





NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Bulletin 1933, No. 10

IN SIX VOLUMES

Volume V

SPECIAL SURVEY STUDIES

IN NINE PARTS

By

BENJAMIN W. FRAZIER, GILBERT L. BETTS
WALTER J. GREENLEAF, DOUGLAS WAPLES
NED H. DEARBORN, MABEL CARNEY
and THOMAS ALEXANDER



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR - - - *Harold L. Ickes, Secretary*
OFFICE OF EDUCATION - - - - - *J. W. Studebaker, Commissioner*
UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE - - - - - WASHINGTON, 1935
For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. - - - - - Price 60 cents

CONTENTS

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.....	Page XI
FOREWORD.....	XIII

PART I. HISTORY OF THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER I—EARLY BACKGROUND: BEGINNINGS OF TEACHER PREPARATION TO 1839.....	1
Religious, political, social, and economic factors—Nature of early elementary, secondary, and collegiate institutions—Qualifications of teachers—Certification of teachers—Establishment of the first teacher-preparation institutions in America.	
CHAPTER II—ESTABLISHMENT AND GROWTH OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND NORMAL DEPARTMENTS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES FROM 1839 TO 1865.....	10
General factors conditioning teacher preparation.....	10
Status of teachers; certification.....	11
Status of teachers—Certification of teachers.	
Establishment and growth of State normal schools.....	12
Normal school curricula and courses—Admission to normal schools—Students.	*
Growth of city training classes and schools.....	18
Decline of teacher preparation in the academies.....	19
Teacher preparation in normal departments of colleges.....	19
In-service education of teachers.....	22
CHAPTER III—RAPID GROWTH OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND BEGINNINGS OF DEPARTMENTS OF PEDAGOGY, 1865-90.....	24
General factors conditioning teacher preparation.....	24
Status of teachers; certification.....	24
Rapid growth of State normal schools.....	25
Development of courses and curricula in normal schools—Students.	
City, county, private, and Negro normal schools.....	31
Rapid growth of city normal schools and training classes—Private normal schools—Teacher preparation for Negro schools.	
Decline of normal departments and rise of departments of pedagogy..	33
Establishment of a chair of science and the art of teaching—College courses in pedagogy.	
Growth of in-service teacher-education agencies.....	37
Summer schools and summer sessions—The Chautauqua movement—University extension—Introduction of correspondence study—Rise of reading circles—Teachers institutes—Public-school supervision.	

	Page
CHAPTER IV—EVOLUTION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AND GROWTH OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION, 1890-1933	42
General factors conditioning teacher preparation.....	42
Changes in general and school populations—Increase in national wealth and support of schools—Growth of education—Educational associations.	
Improvements in teacher status; certification.....	44
Development of certification as a means of raising teacher qualifications—Improvements in the professional status of teachers.	
Changes in the number, organization, control, and support of normal schools and teachers colleges.....	51
Changes in number, by types—Control—Associations of teacher-preparation institutions—Increase in financial support.	
Lengthening and differentiation of curricula.....	57
Enrichment of content; development of new courses.....	59
Observation, student teaching, and the training school.....	60
Changing theories and methodology.....	66
Staff and students.....	63
Staff—Students.	
Changing status of special-type teacher-preparation institutions....	70
City normal schools—High-school training classes and county normal schools—Private and denominational normal schools—Normal schools for Negroes.	
Growth of teacher preparation in colleges and universities.....	72
Growth of departments, schools, and colleges of education—Development of observation and student teaching—Improved preparation and status of staff—Growth in enrollments and student personnel—Land-grant colleges; vocational education—Municipal colleges and universities—Colleges for women—Junior colleges—Graduate work.	
Rapid development of in-service teacher education.....	81
Teachers institutes—Summer sessions—Class extension courses—Study by correspondence.	
Conclusions.....	85
 PART II. THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS EVALUATED THROUGH MEASUREMENT OF TEACHING ABILITY	
CHAPTER I—EVALUATION THROUGH RATINGS AND OTHER MEASURES OF SUCCESS	87
Ability ratings—Relation of preparation and teaching assignment—Salary—Opinions of teachers.	
The relation of teacher characteristics to pupil achievement.....	99
Criterion of teaching success—Method of measuring pupil achievement—The test for teachers—Method of weighting items in the test for teachers.	
Conclusions.....	115

	Page
CHAPTER II—RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF MEASURES OF TEACHING ABILITY OR TEACHING SUCCESS	117
Aspects of reliability.....	117
Agreement between 2 judges or 2 groups of judges—Factors which condition the reliability of the opinions of judges—Training of the judges—Acquaintance—Halo—Philosophy of rater—Rationalization—First impression—Self-interest—Factors which affect the reliability and validity of trait ratings—Reliability as a function of the form of the instrument used.	
The correlation between teacher ratings and other related measures... Professional reputation as a measure of teaching ability—Agreement between 2 teacher ratings given at 2 different times—Pupil achievement as a measure of teaching ability.	141
Conclusions.....	152
 PART III. STUDENT WELFARE AND EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES	
CHAPTER I—INSTITUTIONS AND STANDARDS	155
Purpose and scope of study.....	155
Types of institutions.....	156
Enrollments.....	159
Social and economic background of students.....	161
Selective admission.....	164
Withdrawals.....	166
CHAPTER II—STUDENT PERSONNEL STAFF	167
Dean of students—Deans of men—Director of student personnel.	
CHAPTER III—LIVING CONDITIONS OF THE STUDENTS	174
Student housing.....	174
Housing for men—Housing for women.	
Student feeding.....	179
Fraternities and sororities as residences.....	182
Men's organizations—Women's organizations—Costs.	
Professional societies.....	186
CHAPTER IV—HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND ATHLETICS	188
Physical examinations—Medical treatment—Mental hygiene—Psychiatric division of a large university health service—Athletics—Athletic equipment, instructional staff, and receipts.	
CHAPTER V—EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES	198
Assembly and chapel—Church attendance—Miscellaneous activities.	
Extracurriculum activities.....	202
Student management.....	206
Honor system—Discipline—Practices that are banned—Dancing—Card playing—Smoking—Stealing—Willful neglect of debts—Other offenses—Student disciplinary problems.	
CHAPTER VI—ORIENTATION, GUIDANCE, AND ADJUSTMENT SERVICES ...	215
Orientation of beginning students; freshman week.....	215
Individual counsel and guidance.....	216
Student expenses and aids.....	218
Costs of going to college—Tuition and fees—Board and room charges—Self-help—Student loans.	
Placement.....	222
Research in personnel problems.....	225

CHAPTER VI—Continued.

Summary and recommendations.....	Page 226
Maintain records of all prospective teachers—Coordinate student personnel service—Reduce teaching load of welfare officers—Admit prospective students on a more selective basis—Emphasize campus living and proper housing—Improve dining-room surroundings and procedures—Sponsor extracurriculum activities for every student according to fitness—Develop educational values in assembly and chapel—Inaugurate a systematic and professional guidance program—Integrate placement and guidance services—Increase student aids and loan funds—Apply research to local personnel problems.	

PART IV. LIBRARY FACILITIES OF TEACHERS COLLEGES (COMPARED WITH A SELECTED GROUP OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES)

CHAPTER I—COMPARISON OF BOOK SELECTIONS IN LIBRARIES OF TEACHERS COLLEGES WITH THOSE OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES.....	233
CHAPTER II—OTHER COMPARISONS OF TEACHERS COLLEGE LIBRARIES WITH THOSE OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES.....	241

PART V. READING INTERESTS OF TEACHERS

CHAPTER I—WHAT TEACHERS WANT TO READ ABOUT.....	247
Are teachers interested in "Depression" topics?.....	249
CHAPTER II—WHAT TOPICS ARE OF MOST INTEREST TO TEACHERS.....	252
Are prospective teachers interested in important social issues?.....	252
CHAPTER III—COMPARISON OF ACTUAL READING OF TEACHERS WITH OTHER PROFESSIONAL GROUPS.....	257
Do prospective teachers read?.....	257
Amount of reading—Magazines most read—Book reading—Nonfiction—Fiction—Sources.	
CHAPTER IV—READING INTERESTS OF DIFFERENT GROUPS OF TEACHERS.....	263
Topics of interest to prospective teachers.....	263
Procedure—Group comparisons—Findings.	
Reading interests of women students.....	267
Teachers and teachers college students—Teachers of different grades—Teachers of different subjects—High-school teachers and women in other vocations.	
Reading interests of men.....	276
Liberal arts college students and teachers-college students—Students and teachers in service—Teachers of different subjects—High-school teachers and college faculties—High-school teachers and men of other professions.	
Conclusions.....	283

PART VI. IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

CHAPTER I—AN EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.....	285
Introduction.....	285
A new departure in studying the education of teachers in service.....	288
Visiting days—Committee work—Supervision—Radio education—Miscellaneous.	

CONTENTS

VII

	Page
CHAPTER II—STATE CERTIFICATION	300
Relationship of certification to in-service teacher education.....	300
Permanent certification of teacher.....	305
CHAPTER III—IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS	308
Analysis of programs; college and university education for teachers in service.....	308
Follow-up work for graduates—Follow-up through personal correspondence—Lecture service—Library service—Museum service—Radio service—Services of research bureaus—Place- ment bureau services—Individual conferences at the home in- stitution—Group conferences at the home institution—Provisions made for work of instructors on field work—Problems of success- ful follow-up work—Other services—Methods of determining field needs—"Consumers" judgments of services.	
Correspondence courses for teachers.....	318
Relationship between extension load and certain other factors in the teacher's distribution of time.....	318
CHAPTER IV—IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TEACH- ERS	320
Trade and industry.....	322
Agriculture.....	324
Home economics.....	327
CHAPTER V—A UNIFIED PROGRAM; ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS	333
A unified program of in-service education; the Camden plan.....	333
Additional problems.....	333
CHAPTER VI—SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	335
 PART VII. THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS	
CHAPTER I—INTRODUCTION	341
Social-economic influences—Definition of "rural" teachers—Ade- quacy and sources of data—General professional significance of the welfare of rural teachers.	
CHAPTER II—FINDINGS OF THE NATIONAL SURVEY CONCERNING TEACHERS OF SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS	345
Age, sex, and marital status—Education and professional prepara- tion—Field of most training—Experience—Salaries—Demand and supply and mobility—Summary of status and trends in the qualifica- tion of rural teachers.	
CHAPTER III—FINDINGS OF THE NATIONAL SURVEY CONCERNING THE SPECIALIZED PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS ..	358
Historical statement—Standards for specialized rural instruction in normal schools and teachers colleges—Present practice in the special- ization of training for rural teachers—Special rural curricula— Specialized rural courses—Rural practice teaching—Extension ser- vice for rural teachers—Rural student clubs—Regional development of rural-teacher preparation—Changed attitudes and trends in rural teacher preparation.	

	Page
CHAPTER IV—PROBLEMS AND ISSUES INVOLVED IN THE PREPARATION OF RURAL TEACHERS	366
Issues of institutional attitude and activity.....	367
Appeal of rural teaching—Justification of rural specialization—Need and amount—Organization and set-up of rural instruction—Rural education as a general requirement—Relative importance of 2-year and 4-year curricula for rural teachers—Responsibility of teachers colleges for modernising rural school teaching.	
Issues of State policy and program.....	370
Limited certification for rural teachers—Higher salaries in rural schools—Teaching conditions and community culture as factors in attracting competent rural teachers—Relative value of rural teacher training in high schools and State teachers colleges—Summer-school instruction versus 1-year training courses—Supervision versus preservice preparation—State responsibility for rural-urban parity of preparation.	
CHAPTER V—RECOMMENDATIONS	373
Length of training.....	374
Instruction—amount and type of specialized rural content.....	374
Organization and staff for specialized rural instruction.....	377
Certification of rural-trained graduates.....	379
Placement and follow-up of rural graduates.....	380
Salaries.....	381
Extension activities and in-service education.....	381
Leadership of professional schools for teachers in rural school reform.....	381
Relationships—institutional and extramural.....	382
State program and policy.....	383
Summary and conclusion.....	383

PART VIII. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN EUROPE

CHAPTER I—GENERAL STATEMENT	385
Professional status of teachers in Europe—Competition and standards—Tradition of scholarship and standards—Economic security and standards—Length of period of preparation and standards—Social prestige and standards—Patriotism and standards—Permanency among teachers in Germany and the United States—Predominance of men in European schools—Distinction between elementary and secondary education in Europe—Increasing standards for preparation of elementary teachers—Abandonment of the old normal school in Germany—Economic depression and increased standards—Increasing professional status of elementary teachers—Increasing standards for elementary teachers in England—Comparison of American and European secondary teachers—Comparisons in curricula for elementary and secondary teachers—Changes in elementary schools since the World War—A new attitude toward teachers—Emphasis upon social and economic problems—Separation of professional and academic preparation—Emphasis upon in-service education—Political freedom of European teachers—Nationalism among European teachers—Teachers' salaries in European countries—Teacher tenure in Europe—Selection of candidates for teaching in Europe—Entrance requirements—Selection by competitive examination—Use of cooperating schools for practice teaching—Principles	

CONTENTS

IX

CHAPTER I—Continued.	Page
governing practice teaching in European countries—Summary:	
Teacher training principles in Europe.	
CHAPTER II—THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND.....	410
Training of elementary teachers.....	410
Lower standards for elementary teachers—Teacher-training colleges—Curricula of the training colleges—University training departments—Examinations for teachers—Preparation of faculty—Status of elementary teacher—Summary: Stages in the training of elementary teachers in England.	
Training of secondary teachers.....	414
Similarity to preparation of elementary teachers—Differences from preparation of elementary teachers—Observation and practice teaching—Status of secondary teachers—Summary: Stages in the training of secondary teachers in England.	
CHAPTER III—THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE.....	417
Training of elementary teachers.....	417
State control of teacher education—Entrance requirements—Observation and practice teaching—Examinations for elementary teachers—Preparation of faculty—Status of elementary teachers—Summary: Stages in the training of elementary teachers in France.	
Training of secondary teachers.....	421
Aim of secondary education—Selection of prospective teachers—Academic preparation in lycée—Preparation in the university—Certificates required of a teacher of English—Competitive examination for the agrégation—Observation and practice teaching—Status of secondary teachers—Summary: Stages in the training of secondary teachers in France.	
CHAPTER IV—THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN GERMANY.....	425
Training of elementary teachers.....	425
University for teacher training—Curriculum divisions—Observation and practice teaching—Preparation of faculty—The university plan—Summary: Stages in the training of elementary teachers in Germany.	
Training of secondary teachers.....	430
Selection of prospective secondary teachers—Observation and practice teaching—Examinations for secondary teachers—Preparation of faculty—Summary: Stages in the training of secondary teachers in Germany.	
CHAPTER V—THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SWEDEN.....	433
Training of elementary teachers.....	433
Primary, normal schools—Teachers colleges—Professional subjects—Status of elementary teachers in Sweden—Summary: Stages in the training of elementary teachers in Sweden.	
Training of secondary teachers.....	436
The universities and the training of secondary teachers—The extent of academic preparation—Observation and practice teaching—Preparation of faculty—Summary: Stages in the training of secondary teachers in Sweden.	
CHAPTER VI—EDUCATION OF RURAL TEACHERS IN EUROPE; SUMMARY..	440
Special education of the rural teacher.....	440
Summary: The training of elementary teachers in selected European countries.....	443
Summary: The training of secondary teachers in European countries..	451

PART IX. SUMMARY OF COOPERATIVE STUDIES IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

	Page
Introduction	457
The placement of students in teaching positions as carried on by higher educational institutions	459
The administrative organization for teacher placement—The attention being given to teacher placement—The policies which govern teacher placement—Extent of service rendered—The directors of teacher placement—Other duties of teacher-placement directors.	
The organization and administration of substitute teaching service in cities of 50,000 population and more	462
Organizing and directing substitute-teacher service—Recruiting and selecting substitute-teacher personnel—Compensation—Personnel records and accounting methods—Inducting substitutes into daily teaching service—Using the services of substitutes.	
The internal administrative organization in teachers colleges	465
Criteria for evaluating internal administrative organization in a teachers college—The administrative use of committees in the internal organization of teachers colleges—Interrelations of administrative officers—The performance of administrative functions.	
The internal administration of liberal arts colleges	469
Present administrative practice—Interrelations of officers and duties—Participation of the faculty in the internal administration of colleges—Principles of internal administration and their relation to present administrative practice.	
The preparation of teachers of reading	472
Aims of professional courses for the training of teachers of reading—Materials of instruction used in courses for teachers of reading—The placement and content of the professional course in reading—Some classroom procedures.	
The training of elementary teachers in the field of arithmetic	474
Difficulties which teachers have with the subject matter of arithmetic—Difficulties teachers have with methods of teaching arithmetic—Professional training and experience of instructors of professional courses in arithmetic—Materials of instruction used in professional schools—An analysis of the classroom activities of professional courses in arithmetic.	
The status of teachers of secondary mathematics in the United States ...	477
Location, sex, age, experience, training, and teaching subjects—Special training and professional equipment—Certification—Conclusions.	
State control of teacher training in the United States	481
Analysis of the general features of the five types of State control of teacher training—Composition and general organization of boards required under different types of State control of teacher training—Legal aspects of the problem of State control of teacher training—Judgment of the jury on certain features of State control of teacher training—General recommendations.	

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D.C., June 1893.

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 degree-granting 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. Dr. 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.

After the work of the Survey was organized it was apparent that only a limited number of studies could be undertaken with the time and funds available. It was decided, therefore, to cooperate whenever possible with individuals and organizations at work on any of the problems in the education of teachers which were not included for extensive treatment in the Survey. In this way the scope of the Survey was greatly extended and a number of very important problems were studied intensively which otherwise would have been omitted. This policy was also in conformity with the policy of the Office of Education to supplement but not duplicate the work of individuals and organizations in the field of education.

A number of separate studies concerning the education of teachers are contained in this volume of the Survey. Some were done by regular members of the Survey staff, others by part-time members, and still others by cooperating individuals.

The following persons were responsible for one or more of the studies here reported: Benjamin W. Frazier, senior specialist in teacher training, Office of Education and coordinator for the Survey; Gilbert L. Betts, senior specialist in research in teacher education on the Survey staff; Walter J. Greenleaf, specialist in higher education, Office of Education; Douglas Waples, professor of educational method, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago and head specialist in curriculum and library research; Ned H. Dearborn, then director of the Institute of Education, New York University; Mabel Carney, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University; and Thomas Alexander, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

In addition to those just mentioned 18 graduate students, candidates for doctors' degrees in several universities, undertook and completed studies in which the Survey cooperated. These studies are utilized in some of the special reports in this volume or are summarized in part IX.

Because these studies are so fundamental to a thorough understanding of the problems connected with the education of teachers in the United States, I recommend that this volume be published as part of the report of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

FOREWORD

In any extensive study such as was undertaken in the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, two parts of the undertaking need to be done as quickly as possible. One is the preparation of a complete bibliography of the field covered and the other is the preparation of its historical setting. The first of these—the bibliography—was made an immediate assignment for all members of the Survey staff and the consolidated results of their efforts were published as Volume I—Selected Bibliography on the Education of Teachers.

The second of these foundation studies—the preparation of the historical background for the Survey—was assigned to Benjamin W. Frazier, senior specialist in teacher training in the Office of Education, who, in connection with his work in the Office of Education had assembled a large amount of historical material. His final report, a manuscript of 1,200 pages, is given here in greatly condensed form as part I, but many of his findings have been used freely by those responsible for other sections of the report who needed the historical setting for their specific problems. In Mr. Frazier's treatment of the history of teacher education in the United States he emphasized the development of certain trends or tendencies which are now affecting the teacher-education policies of this country.

Another need which appeared early in the Survey was for more satisfactory methods of measuring teaching success. After it was decided that neither the authorization of the Survey nor its resources would justify an intensive experimental study of measuring teacher success, Mr. Gilbert L. Betts, senior specialist in research in teacher education, was given the task of reviewing and organizing the extensive literature on this subject and also of attempting to find, with the data already available in the three cooperating cities of Washington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, a relationship between teacher merit (as determined by principals' ratings and the progress of pupils) and teacher scores on any or all elements in a battery of tests taken by the teachers. The results of these studies are reported in Part II The Education of Teachers Evaluated Through the Measurement of Teaching Ability.

Several studies, especially those connected with curricula and the ways in which teachers are prepared to meet their many responsibilities, brought out problems connected with provisions for the welfare of students and with various extraclass activities. It was therefore decided to make the question of student welfare a topic for

special Survey study. The report of this study, part III, is the joint work of Benjamin W. Frazier and Walter J. Greenleaf, specialist in higher education, Office of Education, the former studying the provisions for student welfare in normal schools and teachers colleges, and the latter in colleges and universities. The variety in practice, the meagerness of the student welfare provisions in many schools, and the obvious need to give more attention to the education of the whole student which this study revealed more than justifies the attention given to it.

One of the certain results of the lengthening of curricula for teachers has been an increased emphasis upon the library—its adequacy and its use. The opportunity was afforded the National Survey of the Education of Teachers to cooperate with Douglas Waples, professor of educational method, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, in studies which he had under way which would throw more light both upon the adequacy and the use of college libraries by teachers and prospective teachers. These studies had been undertaken as parts of investigations of the Committee on Reading Interests and Habits of Adults, of the American Association for Adult Education and the American Library Association, and had been subsidized by the Carnegie Corporation, the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. By assisting in the collection of additional data from teachers and prospective teachers and the tabulation of these additional returns, it was possible to enlarge these two studies so that they contributed to the work of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers. The results of these two studies are presented in parts IV and V of this volume.

During the years since the World War, the period of preservice education of teachers has been lengthened by from 1 to 2 years in the different States. In order to meet the increased requirements many teachers in service have continued their professional education by means of attendance at summer sessions, extension, and correspondence courses. If, as now seems evident, the in-service education of teachers shifts in its emphasis from the "upgrading" of the unprepared teacher which characterized the decade just past to the professional stimulation of teachers with more adequate preservice preparation, the importance of in-service education of teachers will be increased rather than diminished. Ned H. Dearborn, director of the Institute of Education, New York University, conducted the Survey investigation of the in-service education of teachers. In this investigation he was assisted by several graduate students in New York University. These contributions are acknowledged in Part VI The In-Service Education of Teachers, which contains Dr. Dearborn's report on this significant topic.

One of the largest groups of teachers in the United States at this time and one of the groups which, although it presents many difficult problems in the education of its members, has been more neglected than any other group of teachers is the rural school group. A number of factors—social, economic, and educational—are at the present time operating to bring this group forcefully to the attention of those responsible for teacher-education programs. Mabel Carney, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, because of her leadership in this field, was asked to analyze and summarize the data concerning rural school teachers obtained in connection with the various Survey studies. It was considered desirable to emphasize the needs of this particular group of teachers by giving their problems more detailed treatment than was accorded those of other school groups. The reasons for this are apparent in Professor Carney's report—Part VII, The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools.

Although the Survey was organized and authorized for the purpose of studying the education of teachers in the United States it is readily admitted that our educational practices are affected by those of other countries. It was thought desirable, therefore, to include a brief study of more recent developments in the education of teachers in other countries, particularly those in Europe. Educational practices in several of the European nations have changed as rapidly and as radically as have their political organizations. The directions in which these changes are moving and the extent to which new content and methods of teaching are being introduced are of direct concern to those responsible for constructing curricula for the education of teachers in the United States. Thomas Alexander, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, because of his many contacts with the field of comparative education was asked to prepare a brief statement of present European practices in the education of teachers. He was assisted in the collection and preparation of material by Dr. John W. Carr, professor of education, Duke University. Acknowledgment is also made for sections of the material to Dr. Ruth E. McMurry, assistant professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Miss Gretchen M. Switzer, associate in New College, Teachers College, Columbia University. The statements on comparative practices are included in part VIII and deserve the thoughtful consideration of all American educators responsible for the education of teachers.

As explained in the Commissioner's Letter of Transmittal, the Survey cooperated with a number of individuals in studies which supplemented the studies undertaken by the Survey. Most of these were studies for the doctor's degree in various universities and those which were completed or for which findings were available at the time that this report was submitted to the printer are briefly summarized in

part IX. These summaries give a few of the more significant findings and something of the methods by which the studies were made. Interested individuals may consult these studies for the detailed findings which apply to their subjects or their type of institution.

The studies presented in this volume represent valuable data which were secured in nearly every case through the cooperation and professional goodwill of many individuals working in the field of educating teachers. The number of individuals and organizations whose cooperation made this volume possible is so large that the list cannot be presented. Twenty-two questionnaires or data sheets requesting needed information are represented in the studies reported in this volume. Fortunately, most of these requests went to different individuals. However, there was some unavoidable duplication in which the same individual was called upon for data in connection with more than one of the studies.

Special mention should however be made at this point of the cooperation of the Office of Education in making it possible for some of the members of the regular staff to work on Survey projects and for others to give valued assistance on many of the separate investigations. Three other groups gave a larger amount of time in supplying data than was generally true for those in this volume. They were the teachers and administrative officers of the three cities, Washington, D.C., Baltimore, and Philadelphia, who contributed to the material presented in part II.

In behalf of those responsible for the Survey, I wish to acknowledge our indebtedness to the thousands of individuals whose replies are incorporated in one or more of the reports in this volume.

E. S. EVENDEN,
Associate Director.

PART I

SPECIAL SURVEY STUDIES

PART I. HISTORY OF THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES¹

CHAPTER I

EARLY BACKGROUND: BEGINNINGS OF TEACHER PREPARATION TO 1839

Religious, political, social, and economic factors.—The American colonies, most of which were established between 1607 and 1682, were influenced in their educational outlook and activities chiefly by the contemporary ideas and practices of England, the country from which the majority of the colonists came. The influence of other western European countries was felt, but was usually most marked in limited geographical areas. Provisions for schooling made by the early settlers, handicapped as they were by a difficult physical environment and by the unstable and primitive living conditions of a pioneer country, appear when judged by modern standards to have been exceedingly meager. For 2 centuries or more the matter of specific professional education of teachers was given almost no attention. More basic tasks confronted the colonies and early States. The battles to establish free, tax-supported public schools were yet to be won. Only after the victories were gained could the establishment of State-supported teacher-preparation institutions be brought about.

As in Europe, the church was predominantly the institution of early America through which not only the religious but to a marked extent the educational heritage also was preserved and extended. Its existence operated toward the advancement of the whole idea of common-school education. The ability to read the Bible and other religious writings was deemed essential by the dominant Protestant churches, and the establishment of elementary schools was motivated by the desire to impart this ability to all the people. Later, the

¹ This part of the Survey report was prepared by Benjamin W. Frasier, senior specialist in teacher training of the Office of Education, and assistant to the director of the Survey. The study is taken from a much more extensive history of the professional education of teachers prepared for the purposes of the Survey and unpublished in 1933. Practically all topics discussed in this part of the Survey report have been greatly condensed, and a number treated in the larger study have been omitted entirely. Lack of space also necessitates much briefer documentation than that given in the original study, which contains about 500 citations, and is on file at the Office of Education.

general needs of the people made these educational provisions even more important.

The story of the progress of educational legislation in New England¹ and elsewhere has often been recounted and will not be repeated here. Interest in educational legislation for the benefit of the people as a whole grew with especial rapidity after 1820. It was most marked in Calvinistic New England, and in New York; and it was in these regions that the normal schools were first established. In Rhode Island and most of the Middle or Southern States either the parochial or pauper school idea, or an indifferent attitude toward public education prevailed. The Western States in large part followed the educational traditions of the regions from which their inhabitants came, as illustrated by the States of Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin, where New England influences were strong, and where early efforts were likewise marked in the cause of public education.

Nature of early elementary, secondary, and collegiate institutions.—In earlier colonial days the Bible, a little reading and writing, and less arithmetic, constituted most of the materials of elementary instruction. Memory work and drill were stressed. The status of elementary education in 1839 was still low, though methods of teaching were being gradually improved, the content of instruction was expanding, and more attention was given to the schools in general.

The earliest forerunner of the American secondary schools was the Latin grammar school. First established in Boston in 1635, it was the outstanding middle school of this country for a long period, persisting in considerable numbers until near the close of the eighteenth century. The schooling given was definitely of the classical type. As in England, the services of this school were confined to rather distinct social classes. Preparation for college was stressed.² While many teachers, especially in the middle schools, received their general preparation in the Latin grammar schools, the specific education of teachers was not undertaken in them.

As the limitations of the Latin grammar school became increasingly evident toward the time of the Revolution, a second and more widely serviceable institution, the academy, arose. An interesting innovation was made when the Academy and Charitable School of the Province of Pennsylvania was chartered in 1753. Benjamin Franklin, in presenting a plan for its establishment made specific mention of the need of teacher preparation:

3. * * * a number of the poorer sort will hereby be qualified to act as schoolmasters in the country, to teach children reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar of their mother tongue, and being of good morals and known character,

¹ Martin, George H. *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public-School System—A Historical Sketch*. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1894. 294 p.

² Brown, Elmer E. *The Making of Our Middle Schools; An Account of the Development of Secondary Education in the United States*. New York, N.Y., Longmans, Green & Co., 1907. pp. 31-73.

may be recommended from the academy to country schools for that purpose—the country suffering very much at present for want of good schoolmasters * * *

The academy constituted the dominant middle school in 1839, and continued to grow in influence until about the middle of the century. While usually supported privately and controlled by local boards, many of the academies were subsidized by public taxation or land endowment. County support was common. Tuition was usually charged. One of their most characteristic activities was preparation for college. Although Latin was usually taught, and Greek frequently, the curriculum was expanded much beyond the limits reached in the older Latin grammar schools, and some of the academies in size and number of courses reached the proportions of small colleges. When teacher preparation had its beginnings, it was natural for the people to look to the academies as a possible agency to forward this activity.

The high school, a more democratic institution than the academy, was established in 1821. While this institution contributed little during the period to the development of the specific preparation of teachers, it eventually superseded the academies, and its advent marked an important step in the democratization of education.

Only nine colleges were established during the colonial period: 4 in the New England States, 4 in the Middle Atlantic States, and 1 in Virginia. All were denominational, although public support was given most of them at one time or another. By 1839, the nine colleges of colonial days had increased tenfold or elevenfold in number.⁵ Many of the institutions then called colleges, however, were hard pressed to live up to the name, and large numbers of them have since gone out of existence.⁶ While the first normal schools emphatically were not colleges, the growth of colleges set a precedent of a sort for the establishment of normal schools.

Many teachers in the Latin grammar schools, academies, and high schools received their general education in the colleges, though the primary purpose of the latter was to educate ministers and, to a less extent, members of the other professions, including college teachers. The upper economic classes were favored by the private tuition colleges. In 1839, only about one-third of the State universities of today had been established, and most of them were small and poorly supported. The subjects taught in the colleges were formal, traditional, and limited in scope. Latin, Greek, Hebrew, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, natural science, oratory, general history, ethics, philosophy, and religion led among the subjects offered. Women did not attend the colleges in any considerable

⁵ Reprinted in Wickersham, James F. *A History of Education in Pennsylvania*. Lancaster, Pa., Inquirer Publishing Co., 1886. p. 60.

⁶ List given in *American Annals of Education*, 9: 212-15. May 1839.

⁷ For a list of the colleges that have persisted to the present time, see Tewksbury, Donald G. *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities Before the Civil War*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. pp. 32-54. (Contributions to Education, no. 543.)

numbers until the century was well under way. The institutions were usually small, and were controlled predominantly by the several competing church denominations.

Qualifications of teachers.—Judged solely by modern standards, the status of common-school teachers before the establishment of the first normal schools was everywhere extremely poor; that of the teachers of the Latin grammar schools and academies was somewhat better. Specific professional preparation of teachers was almost unknown. The academic preparation of the typical elementary teacher included little more than nominal mastery of the subjects he taught in the elementary schools. Salaries were very low, the school term was short, teacher tenure brief, physical conditions for teaching bad, the prestige of teachers low, the theory of teaching antiquated, and methods of teaching wasteful.

Concerning the different classes of persons who engaged in teaching in 1829, 10 years before the first State normal schools were opened, Samuel R. Hall had this to say:

* * * A portion of those who engage in teaching are such as have received no instruction, except what they derived from common schools * * *. The employment is little more respectable, in their estimation, than manual labour, and they inquire for, and usually find, a backward school. * * * Such may perhaps have studied the branches required by law, but have not a thorough knowledge of any. They have "gone through" arithmetic, while probably scarcely a rule is understood * * *. Of English grammar, their knowledge is equally superficial * * *. Other branches may have been attended to in the same superficial manner * * *.

Another class of teachers are those, who, in addition to the benefits of the district school, have resorted to an academy for a single season. * * * Some are instrumental in raising the character of their schools, while others do more harm than good * * *. Yet all lack instruction in those things which regard the business of teaching.

There is another class who engage in teaching for a season, for the sake of pecuniary compensation. They are preparing for college, or are members of college, when they are from 12 to 16 years of age, and while they are paying exclusive attention to classical studies * * * their qualifications for instructing a district school with success, are not better than those who were included in the class before mentioned, and they are perhaps even inferior.¹

The application of modern standards renders it easy to become too critical of teachers in pioneer days. Teachers, like institutions, are the products of the particular social order of their day, and a century or more ago doubtless met to a reasonable degree the demands of the great mass of people and of the particular stage of civilization they represented and served. Then, as today, teachers constituted a fair cross section of the population as a whole.

Certification of teachers.—Certification of teachers in some form has existed almost from the beginning of organized elementary schools.

¹ Hall, Samuel R. *Lectures on School-Keeping*. Boston, Mass., Richardson, Lord & Holbrook, 1839. pp. 26-7.

Evidences of the practice in its simplest forms may be found in church schools in Europe in the early Middle Ages.⁸ During colonial days in this country, local ministers and town authorities assured themselves that applicants were "sound in faith" and possessed at least a smattering of knowledge of the subjects to be taught.⁹ The requirements for conjoined civil and ecclesiastical teaching licenses may be found as early as 1645 and thereafter in the Dutch schools of New Netherlands.¹⁰

While certification practices were gradually taken over by civil authorities, requirements were everywhere low in 1839, and for a long time thereafter. Even the requirements that were set up were laxly administered; despite the legal requirements, the examinations appear to have been perfunctory, when they were given at all. Horace Mann said in his first annual report that "from facts which have come to my knowledge, I am constrained to believe that, in two-thirds at least of the towns in the commonwealth, [a very important] provision of the law is more or less departed from."¹¹

Practically all the agencies issuing certificates were purely local, and the certificates had local validity only. District control predominated. The movement toward county and eventually State control was to gain greatest strength during the periods to come. Certification served chiefly as a safeguard against the admission of hopelessly incompetent or undesirable teachers; and the modern practice had not been attained whereby certification is utilized as an instrument by which levels of qualifications may be successively forced upward, and the effectiveness of instructional services and the professional status of teachers be thereby improved.

Establishment of the first teacher-preparation institutions in America.—The first noteworthy advocacy of teacher preparation in this country was for the establishment of "a public grammar school in each county of the State * * * in order to fit young gentlemen for college and school-keeping", the head of which would examine and recommend schoolmasters. The author was anonymous; possibly the essay was by Elisha Ticknor.¹² Later, Prof. Denison Olmstead, of Yale College, in a commencement address at that institution in 1816, made an appeal for a free State-supported

⁸ Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Readings in the History of Education*. Boston, Mass., Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. pp. 124-25.

⁹ Martin, George H. *Op. cit.*, p. 78.

¹⁰ Dunabee, Henry. *History of the School of the Collegiate Reformed Dutch Church in the City of New York, from 1653 to 1833*. New York, N.Y., The Aldine Press, 1883. pp. 23, 32.

¹¹ Mann, Horace. *First Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education*. In Mann, Mary Tyler. *Life and Works of Horace Mann*, vol. 2. Boston, Mass., Lee & Shepard Publishers, 1891. p. 302, 304.

¹² Ticknor, Elisha (T). *Essay Upon the Importance of Studying the English Language Grammatically*. *Massachusetts magazine*. June 1799. Quoted in Mann, Horace, ed. *Common School Journal*, 4: 169-70, June 1, 1842.

"seminary for schoolmasters."¹³ Prof. James L. Kingsley (1823), William Russell (1823), Thomas H. Gallaudet (1825), Walter R. Johnson (1825), Henry E. Dwight (1829), Charles C. Brooks (1835 and later), Calvin E. Stowe (1837), and others spoke or wrote upon the subject.¹⁴

The first institutions that prepared teachers in any specific fashion were of four types: Private academies or seminaries, private normal schools, State-subsidized academies or teachers seminaries, and State-controlled and State-supported normal schools. Beginnings were made in the colleges, but they were too few to give consideration at this time, and will be discussed in the period to follow.

The first American advocates of teacher-preparation institutions, for the first 2 decades or more of the nineteenth century, knew little or nothing about the foreign normal schools which preceded the establishment of normal schools in this country. After about 1825, however, visitors abroad brought back accounts of the German schools; and their reports added force to prior movements for the establishment of normal schools in the United States. Elements in the German pattern were adopted by the first normal schools, but considerable credit for originality is due the first advocates of these schools in America.^{15 16 17} Both the elementary school and the academy contributed certain elements in curricula or organization to the new institution, much of the work of which was no more than review courses in the American elementary school subject matter of the times.

The academy constituted the first significant agency in this country, before the advent of the State normal schools, to attempt the specific professional education of teachers on any considerable scale. Beginnings are said to have been made at Zion Parnassus Academy, near Salisbury, N.C., in 1785; at Westtown Boarding School, established by the Society of Friends in Pennsylvania in 1799; and at Nazareth Hall in the same State in 1807. Later, some attention was given to teacher preparation in similar institutions in many other States.

The normal school commonly accepted as the first in this country was a private institution founded by Rev. Samuel R. Hall at Concord, Vt., in 1823.¹⁸ The institution continued operations at Concord until

¹³ Gordy, John P. *Rise and Growth of the Normal School Idea in the United States*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1891. p. 16. (Bureau of Education (now Office of Education). Circular of Information, No. 8, 1891.)

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 9-17.

¹⁵ Brooks, Charles. Two lectures: (1) *History of the Introduction of State Normal Schools in America*; (2) *A Prospective System of National Education for the United States*. Boston, Mass., J. Wilson & Son, 1834. p. 12.

¹⁶ Gordy, John P. *Op. cit.*, pp. 20-21.

¹⁷ Hinsdale, Burke A. *Horace Mann and the Common-School Revival in the United States*. New York, N.Y., O. Scribner's Sons, 1898. pp. 145-147.

¹⁸ Barnard, Henry, ed. *American Journal of Education*, 16: 75, 1894.

1830. Lectures on school-keeping were given by Hall, and a class of young pupils constituted a "model school." Hall was himself a successful teacher, and he had been working toward the better preparation of teachers for a number of years. In 1829 he published the first American textbook on education, *Lectures on School-Keeping*, which was widely used in many States during the following decades.

In 1830 Hall moved from Concord to Andover, Mass., where he opened a "teachers seminary" in connection with Phillips Academy. The normal or teachers course was 3 years in length. Based largely upon the usual academy courses, it was designed to give students an education preparatory to the work of the professional teaching course.^{19 20} Instruction in the common branches and special lectures in the "art of teaching" were offered. The boys department of the academy constituted a model school.²¹ In 1837 Hall moved to Plymouth, N.H., where he opened still another seminary for teachers, and followed this by a similar one at Craftsbury, Vt., in 1840. Thus for at least 17 years, this early "teacher of teachers" labored, a pioneer in teacher preparation in this country.

By 1836, teachers' seminaries were in existence in several States. Usually these units were "departments" of academies. In addition to a number of academies in New York and Massachusetts, one or more were located in Indiana, Maine, New Hampshire, Illinois, and other States.²²

The institutions in New York and those later in Wisconsin perhaps best illustrate the growth of teacher preparation in State-subsidized academies. The Regents of the University, and certain governmental and other leaders of the times, were concerned with the development of means for the preparation of teachers in New York at least as early as 1821. The academies established by the regents began to prepare teachers after a fashion before legislative recognition or support was accorded such activities. The Regents in referring to academies in their report to the legislature in 1821, stated: "It is to these seminaries that we must look for a supply of teachers for the common schools." In 1826, Governor DeWitt Clinton recommended the establishment of a seminary for teachers, and an act which was passed in 1827 increasing the literature fund contained a provision, probably for the first time in this country, designed "to promote the education of teachers."^{23 24} In 1831, two academies, Canandaigua, and

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, 5: 377-379, 1833.

²⁰ *American Annals of Education*, 9: 143-144, March 1830.

²¹ *Teachers Seminary, Andover, Mass. Catalogue*, October 1835. Andover, Mass., Gould & Newman, 1835. pp. 11-12, 14. (On file in the Library of Congress.)

²² *American Annals of Education and Instruction*, 5: 474-475, October 1835; 6: 125-126, March 1836; 292, June 1836; 425, September 1836; 476, October 1836.

²³ Hough, Franklin B. *Historical and Statistical Record of the University of the State of New York During the Century from 1784 to 1884*. Albany, N.Y., Weed, Parsons & Co., printers, 1885. p. 535.

²⁴ Finagan, Thomas E. *Teacher-Training Agencies*. The University of the State of New York, 1917. p. 21.

St. Lawrence (Potsdam) offered courses in "principles of teaching." Other academies soon followed, and the first law passed in America making provision for the education, in separate departments, of teachers for the common schools was passed in New York in 1834.²²

Very early practices and offerings in teacher preparation in the better academies may be illustrated by those of Canandaigua as reported by this academy to the regents of the university in 1834:

* * * About four years since, a teachers department was organized on the following plan: 1st. That those young gentlemen who entered this school to prepare themselves for teachers, should enter the classes pursuing these branches in which they wished, or it was deemed necessary, to perfect themselves. In these classes the instruction is to be very extended and minute. 2d. The teachers to be organized into a class and to receive a specific course of instruction on the following plan: To meet five evenings each week and spend two or three hours together. On three evenings of each week, Hall's Lectures on School-keeping are recited till the book is finished and thoroughly reviewed. The lessons are short, and the time is filled up by the instructor in further illustration of the subject, and by promoting inquiry and examination of the class. The remaining evening of the week is devoted to the consideration of a series of subjects; one being discussed on each evening. Each member of the class brings in a written subject * * *. Mutual conversation is called forth * * *. The subjects discussed on these evenings are nearly the following, and in the order mentioned:

1. The defects in common schools.
2. The circumstances which restrain and discourage the efforts of the teacher.
3. The best modes of teaching the alphabet, reading, and spelling.
4. The best modes of teaching arithmetic, and the best books.
5. The best modes of teaching geography.
6. The best modes of teaching English grammar.
7. The best modes of teaching writing and making of pens.
8. Pestalozzi and his mode of instruction.
9. Government of schools.
10. Best method of arresting the attention of pupils. Substitution of signs, &c., for the ordinary questions in schools.
11. How to teach composition.
12. What plans can the teacher adopt to render his labors more extensively useful to his pupils? This inquiry is designed to embrace the formation of school lyceums, school libraries, the circulation of periodicals relating to education, &c.
13. Construction of school houses.

This course of instruction is designed to continue one quarter of each year

* * *

The number of teachers who have been through a regular course in the teachers' department during the last four years is about sixty.²³

The academies were content with a single course in pedagogy, namely, principles of teaching.²⁴ The academies gave little or no

²² Ibid., pp. 20-21.

²³ New York (State) University, Albany. Annual Report of the Regents, 1834. pp. 65-67.

²⁴ New York (State) University, Albany. Annual Report of the Regents, 1840. pp. 77, 85.

attention to student teaching. The preparation of teachers was not their primary objective.

Massachusetts was the first State to establish full State support and control of normal schools. James G. Carter, sometimes called the "father of normal schools" (a title that has also been applied to Charles Brooks) was a prominent leader in the movement for several years. In 1835, he was elected a member of the legislature, and as chairman of the committee on education drafted the bill providing for the first State board of education in Massachusetts, established in 1837.²⁰

Horace Mann was appointed secretary of the new board of education in the same year, and his outstanding work in this office continued until 1848. The competency of teachers of the State was one of his first interests.²¹ Governor Lincoln's messages to the legislature in 1836 and again in 1837 recommended normal schools. Carter presented a memorial in 1837. Charles Brooks, who had awakened general interest in the subject throughout the State, and Horace Mann addressed the legislature on the subject in 1838. Their combined influence was largely responsible for the action thereafter taken. A private citizen, Edmund Dwight, had offered through Horace Mann as secretary of the board, the sum of \$10,000 conditional upon the provision by the legislature of a like amount. The gift was accepted.²² On May 30, 1838, the establishment of the first State normal school, to be located in Plymouth County, was authorized. It was opened at Bridgewater in 1840. On December 28, 1838, Lexington was selected as the location of another normal school—the first State normal school in America. It was opened July 3, 1839, under the principalship of Cyrus Peirce.²³

²⁰ Massachusetts. Board of education. Annual Report, 1838. p. 17.

²¹ Ibid., pp. 56-63.

²² For authoritative general accounts of these and related proceedings and conditions, see Massachusetts. Board of education. Second Annual Report, 1839. p. 7-10, 23-24; and Third Annual Report, 1840. p. 8-11. See also Mangun, Vernon L. Op. cit., pp. 1-120.

²³ Peirce, Cyrus, and Swift, Mary. The First State Normal School in America; the journals of Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift, with an introduction by Arthur O. Norton. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1926. p. 2. (Harvard Documents in the History of Education . . . vol. 1.)

CHAPTER II

ESTABLISHMENT AND GROWTH OF NORMAL SCHOOLS, AND NORMAL DEPARTMENTS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, FROM 1839 TO 1865

During the quarter century which ended with the close of the Civil War, growth in number of teacher-preparation institutions and units was not nearly so rapid as in later periods. Something of a struggle was necessary to secure even small advances, and the teacher-preparation programs of the several States were undertaken largely upon an experimental basis. Nevertheless, important beginnings were made.

GENERAL FACTORS CONDITIONING TEACHER PREPARATION

The population of the United States more than doubled between 1840 and 1870. The country was still preponderantly rural, although the number of inhabitants in cities was increasing rapidly. In 1870, there was a total enrollment in the public schools of 6,871,522 students, of whom 6,791,295 were in the elementary schools. Thus the problem of teacher preparation was still chiefly concerned with prospective elementary teachers or elementary teachers in service.

The estimated national wealth of the country was increasing more rapidly in proportion than the population. The total amount trebled from 1850 to 1870, and the amount per capita more than doubled during the 20 years.¹ The expenditures per capita for elementary and secondary schools as late as 1870 amounted to only \$1.64 annually, less than one-eleventh of the figure today.²

Growth of State support and control of schools continued steadily. By the first of the period, centralization of educational control within the State was beginning to make substantial gains over the decentralized local-district system. The growth of public elementary and secondary schools, the raising of certification requirements for teachers, and the establishment and effective control of normal schools could be attained in fullest measure only after strong centralized State departments of education were set up that could work intelligently for the advancement of public education.

Only 4 States had established State boards of education before 1850. By 1889, there were 23 such organizations among the 38

¹ U.S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 1901. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1901. Pp. 294, 294-324.

² U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of State School Systems, 1929-30*, by Emory M. Foster and others. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30*. Vol. 2. ch. 2. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. pp. 28-29. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 23.)

States.¹ Many of them confined their attention to business and related matters. In 1812, the office of State superintendent of schools was growing slowly. Its duties were often performed by the secretary of State. However, with the assumption of office in Massachusetts by Horace Mann in 1837, and by Henry Barnard in Connecticut (1839), and Rhode Island (1843) a new concept of the possibilities of this office arose. These great leaders set patterns of supervision, educational organization, and State leadership emulated by their successors and followers in other States for more than a half century.²

The growing municipalities likewise became interested in the organization of their schools, and the city superintendency was established as the cities grew in numbers and size. Before 1839, the office was usually filled by a layman, commonly unpaid, or by an "inspector" who was usually not a professional schoolman. Of the 85 cities with populations of 8,000 or more in 1850, about a dozen had established this office.

STATUS OF TEACHERS; CERTIFICATION

Status of teachers.—The qualifications of typical elementary teachers were represented throughout the period by upper elementary school preparation. Even normal school graduates, who were relatively limited in numbers, typically could claim little more than a certain amount of secondary school preparation, plus limited professional work. In Massachusetts, where conditions were not far from the best, salaries of men teachers in 1839-40 averaged \$33.08 per month; and salaries of women teachers, \$12.75.³ The status of teachers improved very slowly. There were not enough normal schools, normal departments, or teachers' institutes to do more than make good beginnings toward meeting almost universal needs for trained teachers. However, many books were written on education and means of improving schools. State association journals multiplied in numbers. Some noteworthy publications, such as the early American Journal of Education, later called the American Annals of Education, and Henry Barnard's American Journal of Education were established. Various private societies and associations for the promotion of schools were organized, and the teachers themselves began to organize State and other groups which contributed to their professional improvement. The National Teachers' Association, later called the National Educational (Education) Association, held its first organization meeting in 1857.⁴

¹ Boone, Richard G. *Education in the United States*. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1899. p. 107.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 101-103.

³ Massachusetts. Board of education. *Fourth Annual Yearbook*, 1941. p. 475.

⁴ National Teachers' Association. *Organization meeting and constitution*. New York Teacher (Albany, N.Y., James Cruikshank), extra, 7:3-4, October 1857. Also published in *National Educational Association. Addresses and Proceedings*, 1858. pp. 17-18.

Certification of teachers.—Changes in methods of certification of teachers and in the requirements made were slow. Often the regulations were laxly enforced. Certification by examination in the common elementary school subjects predominated. The most outstanding movements in certification were, first, the gradual centralization of control in larger administrative units (from the district to the county or city, and to a limited degree, to the State); and, second, the gradual elevation of the requirements made for licenses to teach. From exceedingly indefinite requirements each State passed first to the stage in which evidences of proficiency in language, writing, and arithmetic were required. Grammar, geography, physiology, United States history, and eventually theory and practice of teaching were added as time passed.⁷

Beginnings toward the recognition of normal school and college preparation as a basis for certification were made in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and elsewhere. Certification by examination, however, remained the rule; and even within the same State certificates quite often had no validity outside the local district, county or city in which they were granted.

ESTABLISHMENT AND GROWTH OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

After the opening of the first State normal school at Lexington, Mass., in 1839, similar institutions were established from time to time in this and other States. The location of institutions, and dates of their legal establishment and opening are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—State normal schools opening between 1839 and 1866, inclusive^{1,2}

State and location of institution	Date of legal establishment	Date opened
1	2	3
Massachusetts:		
Lexington (West Newton, Framingham).....	1838	1839
Barre (Westfield).....	1838	1839
Bridgewater.....	1838	1840
New York: Albany.....	1844	1844
Connecticut: New Britain.....	1849	1850
Michigan: Ypsilanti.....	1849	1852
Massachusetts: Salem.....	1853	1854
Rhode Island: Providence.....	1854	1854
New Jersey: Trenton.....	1855	1855
Illinois: Normal.....	1857	1857
Minnesota: Winona.....	1858	1860
New York: Oswego.....	1861	1861
California: San Francisco (San Jose).....	1862	1862
Maine: Farmington.....	1863	1864
Kansas: Emporia.....	1863	1865

¹ Dates are taken from State laws, statutes, etc.; earliest catalogs available; and State reports. An easily available reference using data based upon legislative enactments is Humphreys, Harry O. *The Factors Operating in the Location of State Normal Schools.* pp. 117-52.

² Pennsylvania through the act of 1857 recognized as State normal schools, without State aid during this period, Millersville, beginning in 1850, Edinboro (1861), and Mansfield (1862). (See Wickersham, James P. *A History of Education in Pennsylvania.* pp. 622-28.) The State Normal School of Louisiana (New Orleans) existed in this period from 1855 to 1862.

³ Training classes established in academies in 1834.

⁴ City training school until 1866, when it was made a State normal school. State aid authorized in 1861.

⁵ Cook, Katherine M. *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates.* U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 12. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1921, no. 62.)

In order to ascertain the nature and extent of courses of study, the administrative regulations and practices of the schools, and other data, search was undertaken of all the normal school catalogs or reports published between 1837 and 1865 available in the library of the Office of Education and in the Library of Congress.⁸

The establishment of State normal schools during the period was usually brought about only after considerable preliminary agitation and effort, and even when established, their existence was precarious. The very modest appropriations for their maintenance were usually made by the legislatures for a year or so at a time. A single building, often an old one, was almost universally all that was provided, if public schools used for observation or practice are not considered. Dormitories were rarely provided until the close of the period, and their establishment appears to have come only when lodging places in the village or town homes had reached their capacity.

Normal school curricula and courses.—A fair illustration of courses of study of the times is given in table 2, which reproduces the entire catalog statements concerning courses of study given by Westfield, Mass., in 1847, and in 1867.

⁸ Massachusetts. State normal school, West Newton. Circular and register . . . July, 1839 to December 1846. General catalogue, 1850. 2 v.

..... Framingham. Catalogue and circular, 1862, 1865. 2 v.

..... Westfield. Catalogue, 1846-48, 1855-56, 1858, 1861. 6 v.

..... Bridgewater. Catalogue, 1840-1855, 1849-1865. 9 v.

New York. State normal school, Albany. Annual register and circular, 1846, 1847. Quinquennial register and circular, 1854, 1859, 1861, 1864. 6 v.

..... Annual Reports of the executive committee, 1846, 1848, 1850-51, 1862-63, 1865. 7 v.

Connecticut. State normal school, New Britain. First annual circular (1850). Reprinted in Barnard, Henry. Normal schools and other institutions, agencies, and means designed for the professional education of teachers. p. 47-50. Case, Tiffany and Co., 1861.

..... Annual Reports of the trustees, 1851, 1858, 1860-1865. 8 v.

Michigan. State normal school, Ypsilanti. Catalogue, 1857-58, 1861-62. 2 v.

Massachusetts. State normal school, Salem. Catalogue, 1856, 1858-59, 1859, 1860, 1861, 1863, 1864-65. 7 v.

New Jersey. New Jersey state normal school, Trenton. Annual reports of the board of trustees, 1857-1864. 9 v. First triennial register and circular, 1858.

Illinois. Illinois normal university, Springfield. I. Report of the secretary. II. Report of the board of education. III. Report of the principal. The university, 1859. 75 p.

..... State normal university, Bloomington. Catalogue, 1862, 1863, 1865. 3 v.

New York. Oswego training school for primary teachers, Oswego. Circular, 1864. Superintendent of public instruction, Albany, N.Y., 1864. 7 p.

California. California State normal school, San Francisco (San Jose). Report of the board of trustees of the California state normal school. Report of the principal of the State normal school. Rules and regulations and course of study . . . In California. Superintendent of public instruction. Thirteenth annual report, 1863. p. 183-214.

14 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 2.—*Courses of study at Westfield, Mass., in 1847 and in 1867*

1847 *	1867 "
STUDIES	BRANCHES OF STUDY TO BE PURSUED
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Reading the Scriptures daily. 2. <i>Orthography</i>.—Fowle's Common School Speller, McElligott's Analyzer and Worcester's Dictionary; also, daily exercises in etymology, as connected with spelling. 3. <i>Enunciation and reading</i>.—The Normal' Chart, Tower's Gradual Reader, Russell and Goldsbury's American School Reader and Leavitt's Fourth Book. 4. <i>Writing</i>.—Exercises given by the principal. 5. <i>Physiology</i>.—Cutter's and Jarvis'. 6. <i>Drawing</i>.—Schmidt's. 7. <i>Arithmetic</i>.—Thompson's and Greenleaf's. 8. <i>Geography and map drawing</i>.—Fowle's and Bliss', with Pelton's Bliss' and Mitchell's Outline maps. 9. <i>Grammar</i>.—Wells' and Greene's; also, Greene's Chart. 10. <i>Algebra</i>.—Day's and Thompson's; also, Tower's Mental Algebra. 11. <i>Geometry</i>.—Playfair's Euclid. 12. <i>Philosophy</i>.—Olmstead's. 13. <i>Phonography</i>.—Andrews' and Boyle's works. 14. <i>The globes</i>.—Problems. 15. <i>Theory and practice of teaching</i>.—Page's, Abbott's, and Palmer's treatises. <p>Vocal music is taught three times a week to the whole school.</p> <p>Composition is a weekly exercise for the whole school. There are also frequent exercises in preparing abstracts of the several studies.</p>	<p>FIRST TERM</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Arithmetic, oral and written begun. 2. Geometry begun. 3. Chemistry. 4. Grammar and analysis of the English language. <p>SECOND TERM</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Arithmetic completed; algebra begun. 2. Geometry completed; geography and history begun. 3. Physiology and hygiene. 4. Grammar and analysis completed. 5. Lessons once or twice a week in botany and zoology. <p>THIRD TERM</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Algebra completed; bookkeeping. 2. Geography and history completed. 3. Natural philosophy. 4. Rhetoric and English literature. 5. Lessons once or twice a week in mineralogy and geology. <p>FOURTH TERM</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Astronomy. 2. Mental and moral science, including the principles and art of reasoning. 3. Theory and art of teaching, including: 1. Principles and method of instruction; 2. School organization and government; 3. School laws of Massachusetts. 4. The civil polity of Massachusetts and the United States.

In connection with the foregoing, constant and careful attention to be given throughout the course to drawing and delineations on the blackboard; music; spelling, with derivations and definitions; reading, including analysis of sounds and vocal gymnastics; and writing.

* State normal school, Westfield, Mass. Circular and catalogue . . . from Sept. 4th, 1846, to Nov. 19th, 1847. pp. 9-11.

" Ibid. Catalogue . . . for the year ending July 13, 1867. pp. 14-15.

TABLE 2.—*Courses of study at Westfield, Mass., in 1847 and in 1867—Con.*

THE MODEL SCHOOL

Connected with the normal school (in the same building) is a model or experimental school, in which the members of the normal school have an opportunity of spending an hour a day, as assistant teachers, after they have attended the normal school one term. The school consists of about 75 pupils between the ages of 4 and 16. It is considered an important part of the normal school establishment, as it affords the normal pupils an opportunity of connecting practice with theory.

The Latin and French languages may be pursued as optional studies, but not to the neglect of the English course.

General exercises in composition, gymnastics, object lessons, etc., to be conducted in such a manner and at such times as the principal shall deem best.

Lectures on the different branches pursued, and on related topics, to be given by gentlemen from abroad, as the board or the visitors shall direct, and also by the teachers and more advanced scholars.

The order of the studies in the course may be varied in special cases, with the approval of the visitors.

At first, the courses of study of typical normal schools were largely of upper elementary or lower secondary grade. Review courses in elementary school subjects predominated, but such courses functioned as practically new materials in the case of many of the poorly prepared students who came to the early normal schools.

Since the academies commonly included elementary school subjects in their curricula, they were in this, as well as in other respects, somewhat like the normal schools. Some of the public elementary schools, like the normal schools, added some academic courses above the conventional elementary school work to meet the current demands of local pupils in regions isolated from academies. The normal schools sometimes prepared teachers for such courses. Mention of the avowed purpose of preparing teachers for high schools was made in State normal school catalogs before 1872. High-school teacher preparation, however, was not very common in normal schools.

In the beginning, courses of study in the first Massachusetts normal schools were 1 year in length. After about a decade, the courses of study were advanced to about 1½ years, and in 2 decades, to 2 years in length. Many students did not remain to complete the longer courses. In 1870, the length of the courses of study was reported for 19 institutions in representative States as follows: 2 years, 7 institutions; 3 years, 6 institutions; 4 years, 1 institution (Ypsilanti); and 2 to 4 years, 5 institutions.¹¹ The work even at the close of the period and after, however, was still almost entirely of secondary grade or lower.

Throughout the nineteenth century, much flexibility of course organization was necessary because of the fact that students came to

¹¹ U.S. Bureau of Education. "Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1870. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1871. p. 827.

the institutions with widely varying degrees of preliminary preparation. Some were experienced teachers, who came at intervals when their schools were not in session, when their funds permitted, or when ambition or necessity moved them.

In the normal school at Lexington, Mass., topics in the "art of teaching" at first were presented by the principal chiefly through lectures and informal discussions. Apparently, formal and regular class work in pedagogy at first was not emphasized very much in this institution. The catalog of 1846 does not even mention any pedagogical course other than "exercises in teaching", an apparent reference to model school activities. In 1850, the catalog of the school, then located at West Newton, carried this statement:

The attention of pupils is directed * * * to the art of teaching and its modes * * *.

"The art of teaching and its modes" includes instruction as to the philosophy of teaching and discipline, as drawn from the nature and condition of the juvenile mind; the history of the progress of the art, and the application of it to our system of education; and as much exercise in teaching under constant supervision, toward the close of the course, as the circumstances and interests of the Model Schools may allow.¹²

Contemporary catalogs of Bridgeport, Conn., and Bristol (Providence), R.I., contained similar statements.

The references to the "history and progress of the art" at West Newton and Bridgeport in 1850 were the first found, to history of education in State normal school catalogs.

Courses in pedagogy during the period among all the normal schools included one or more of the following, listed under varying titles: Theory, art, practice, or science of teaching; principles of teaching; teaching exercises, model school work, or practice teaching, including observation (not usually listed separately); methods courses in various subjects, including object teaching; school laws; school economy; history of education; philosophy of education, or mental or moral philosophy; and a very few others. Most of these subject fields were scanty in content. They were evolving from the old basic courses of theory and art of teaching, or of principles of teaching, to the courses known today. For example, school economy, the content of which is illustrated in Wickersham's early text, became school management or administration. Principles of teaching is among the oldest of pedagogical courses; it was taught in the New York academies before the first State normal school was established, until the end of the period and after. The nature of the course has changed greatly during the past century.¹³ By 1870, history of education was fairly

¹² State normal school, West Newton, Mass. General catalog, July 1850. p. 28.

¹³ Kruss, Samuel A. A Critical Analysis of the Principles of Teaching as a Basic Course in Teacher-Training Curricula. Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1929. 166 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 63.)

widespread among the courses offered. The first instructional materials in this field were derived from German authors, who led the world in research in history of education. H. I. Schmidt's *History of Education* (Harper's Family Library, 1842) was probably the first textbook on the subject in English in this country. It was followed by Brockett's (*Philobiblius*, pseud.), *History and Progress of Education from the Earliest Times to the Present*, copyrighted in 1859. Both these texts were confined largely to the discussion of the history of education and of educational reformers in Europe.

In all the normal schools, textbooks were meager, although much reliance was placed upon the few that were available. Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping* was the leader at first; toward the close of the period David P. Page's *Theory and Practice of Teaching* (1847) became immensely popular, and was probably the most widely used pedagogical work in the country for a number of decades. Books by Abbott, Palmer, and others received occasional mention in the catalogs before 1865.

As a whole, the period was one in which belief was firmly fixed that education could bring a high degree of mental discipline; when textbook and rote teaching and learning were almost universal; when great stress was placed upon the moral and religious training of pupils; and when belief that education was most appropriately provided only for a few was still not wholly superseded by the new ideal of education for the masses at State expense. Predominately, it was an epoch when traditions were held in considerable respect and when individual authority was the chief instrumentality of instructional progress.

Probably the outstanding English writer and thinker who most influenced the educational thinking of this period was John Locke.¹⁴ The narrower formal aspects of his theory concerning the value of discipline was the predominant one in the colleges, Latin grammar schools, and academies for many years.

Admission to normal schools.—Requirements for admission to the early normal schools were usually examinations in elementary-school subjects. The minimum age of applicants was commonly 16 or 17 years. The requirements of good moral and intellectual character were often mentioned by the catalogs. A declaration of intention to teach was a requirement made by most normal schools. Experienced teachers were welcomed without much question concerning their formal preparatory schooling. Such admission requirements as existed do not appear to have been very rigidly enforced.

With the exception from time to time of 1 or 2 of the Massachusetts institutions, nearly all the normal schools mentioned or described some form of teaching exercises, model school work, experimental

¹⁴ See especially Locke, John. *Some Thoughts Concerning Education*. London, printed for a society of stationers, and sold by F. Baker at the Black Boy in Pater-Noster-Row, 1710.

school work, or practice teaching. Teaching exercises by practice teachers before the whole school were not infrequent, and students were called upon occasionally to teach other normal school students for practice. Both campus and off-campus schools were used, and the classes taught sometimes extended into the secondary grades, where prospective teachers themselves were enrolled.

Students.—An inkling of the social and economic background of many normal school students in a typical western State of the times and of the conditions under which they worked may be secured from a letter written by H. B. Norton, who attended the Illinois State Normal University in 1858.

We were shabbily dressed in those days. I think my pantaloons were generally too short, and my coat seemed to have been made for some other person. We were very poor, but very plucky. We boarded ourselves, mainly on corn mush, washed the floors and built the fires at the Normal Hall, worked hard, lived hard, and were poorly provided with all things; our parents were sad-faced, struggling pioneers of the prairies; but we were cheery, resolute, and happy in our life and our work. To the toiling youth of frontier homes, thirsting for knowledge, the Illinois Normal University opened the gateways of a new life * * *.¹⁵

GROWTH OF CITY TRAINING CLASSES AND SCHOOLS

Development of city normal schools has resulted largely from the desire of municipalities to add to their supply of teachers prepared specifically for local service; and their growth was made easier by the absence of State teacher-preparation provisions satisfactory to the city school authorities. Training classes in academies and high schools in cities were often the forerunners of city normal schools.

A model school was organized in Philadelphia to prepare teachers for Lancasterian schools as early as 1818, but it did not reach the status of a genuine normal school as understood today until 1848. New York, Boston, Newark, St. Louis, Oswego, San Francisco, and other cities established normal schools or training classes before the close of the period. In-service preparation of teachers, much practice work, and comparatively high admission levels characterized these institutions. Local public-school teachers comprised the staffs. The institutions were subject directly to local financial, political, social, and educational conditions, and therefore did not have the stability of State institutions.¹⁶

¹⁵ Extract from letter in Cook, John W., and McHugh, James V. *A History of the Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.* Normal, Ill., pantagraph printing and binding establishment, 1882. pp. 172-174.

¹⁶ Pennsylvania. Session laws, 1818, Mar. 3.

Barnard, Henry, ed. *American journal of education*, 13: 245-250, 1863; 14: 727, 1864; 17: 821, 1867-68.

Agnew, Walter D. *The administration of professional schools for teachers*. Baltimore, Md., Warwick and York, Inc., 1924. p. 37-49.

Newell, M. A. *Contributions to the history of normal schools in the United States*. In *U.S. Bureau of education. Report of the Commissioner of education, 1898-99*. vol. 1. U.S. Government printing office, 1900. p. 244-64.

DECLINE OF TEACHER PREPARATION IN THE ACADEMIES

The academies continued to increase in numbers and enrollments until about 1850. Thereafter their slow and long-continued decline set in, and eventually they were supplanted, in teacher preparation, by the normal schools. In 1870, perhaps 1 in 70 of the white population attended an academy.¹⁷

The academies often taught elementary and college subjects as well as those of purely secondary grade. Naturally many teachers received their education in the academies. The need for teachers was great, and normal and high schools at this time were relatively few in number. The persistence of the academies in teacher preparation was best exemplified in New York. Although the State normal school at Albany was opened in 1844, and State funds for teacher preparation in large part were diverted to this institution, the academies continued to prepare teachers. In 1865, principles of teaching was taught as a professional course in 82 academies. This course was almost the only one taught in pedagogy.¹⁸

TEACHER PREPARATION IN NORMAL DEPARTMENTS OF COLLEGES

Denominational colleges grew in numbers with great rapidity during the early decades of the nineteenth century. Approximately four-fifths of all colleges established before the Civil War have since gone out of existence; 179 operating in 1859 still survive.¹⁹ Their primary purpose was to provide an educated ministry and maintain religious creeds, although at the same time, they provided great numbers of students with a general collegiate education. State universities grew slowly in numbers and size. Fifteen were in existence in 1839, and about half that number were established in addition before 1865. They were much smaller institutions than those of today. However, the granting of vast areas of public lands through the several land grants to the States by the Federal Government early gave State institutions an enduring foundation upon which their later growth was built.

Women's education on secondary and collegiate levels was neglected before this period. The academies afforded women their first substantial educational opportunities on middle or upper levels. In 1836, Georgia Female College at Macon was incorporated. Only after several decades did the standards of work in this and other collegiate institutions for women that followed equal the standards of men's colleges. Vassar (1861) was the first institution to be

¹⁷ Bernard, Henry, ed. *American Journal of Education*, 1: 263. 1855-56.

¹⁸ New York (State) University. *Annual Reports of the Regents, 1832-66. The University, 1832-66.* 15 v.

¹⁹ Tewksbury, Donald G. *The Founding of American Colleges and Universities before the Civil War.* New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. pp. 211-220. (Contributions to Education no. 542.)

established with any large endowment. Meantime, women were admitted gradually into the older colleges. Coeducation was introduced early at Antioch and Oberlin, and became increasingly acceptable in the State universities, especially in the Middle West.

Some rather important normal departments arose in the western State universities and colleges. Their existence during the period was sporadic, however, and normal department courses never became for any considerable length of time fully accepted and integral parts of regular collegiate offerings as distinguished from preparatory or extracollege work.

As early as 1826, the faculty of Amherst College in a report to the board of trustees advocated the establishment of a department of the science of education, but no definite action was taken by the board.²⁰ In Pennsylvania, the policy was early adopted by the State and continued substantially for a half century of chartering private institutions and of aiding them with the understanding that they would prepare teachers "of lower grade." Beginning in 1831, Washington College, Pa., received an appropriation on condition "that the trustees shall cause that there be instructed annually, gratis, 20 students in the elementary branches of education, in a manner best calculated to qualify them to teach common English schools."²¹ The following statement (1831) is the earliest found of its kind:

Professorship of education.—We are gratified to see that a professorship of education has been established at Washington College, in western Pennsylvania, designed to give instruction to those who are preparing to be teachers.²²

Other Pennsylvania colleges also entered temporarily into the work of teacher preparation with State support. In 1838, Lafayette College erected a building for a model school. Concerning these attempts, Wickersham expressed an opinion shared in part by State Superintendent Burrowes:

* * * The experiment of educating teachers in the colleges failed—because there was not then much demand for teachers thus prepared, and for the stronger reason that the general work of a college and the special work of a teachers' school can never be made to harmonize.²³

Meantime, the University of the City of New York had been established (1832) and with it a chair of the philosophy of education. Geneva College, N.Y., reported the offering of a course in psychology in 1840, but there is no evidence that it was considered a professional course.²⁴ Hanover College, near Madison, Ind., in 1845 and in the

²⁰ Monroe, Paul, ed. *Cyclopedia of Education*. vol. 2. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1911-13 p. 406.

²¹ Quoted in Wickersham, James P. *A History of Education in Pennsylvania*. Lancaster, Pa., Inquirer Publishing Co., 1896. p. 608.

²² *American Annals of Education and Instruction*, 1: 82, 1831.

²³ Wickersham, James P. *Op. cit.*, p. 381.

²⁴ New York (State) University, Albany. *Annual Report of the Regents*, 1841. p. 28.

year following announced that "special instruction will be given in the art of teaching, to those who design to engage in that occupation."²⁵

Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., opened a normal department in the fall of 1841. The city high school was used as a model school. Students were admitted to the regular university classes.²⁶

In keeping with the recommendation of President Francis Wayland, Brown University announced the opening of a "department of didactics" in 1851-52, with Samuel S. Greene, superintendent of schools in Providence, as professor. Through him the institution was in a position to maintain cooperative relationships with the local public schools. In 1854-55, it was announced that the course was suspended.²⁷ The department was not reestablished for 40 years.

Antioch College, Ohio, in 1853, under the presidency of Horace Mann, introduced a course in "didactics, or the theory and practice of teaching." A trained Massachusetts normal school teacher who was a relative of Mann was in charge.²⁸

Important beginnings were made at Indiana University in 1852, when a normal "seminary" or department was opened as a preparatory unit of the institution. An interesting array of lectures was offered on a wide variety of pedagogical topics.²⁹ The department was discontinued temporarily several times before a department of pedagogy of college grade was eventually established in the period to follow.

The State University of Iowa opened a normal department in 1855. A separate normal department staff was maintained. Reviews of elementary school subjects, some advanced work, the art of teaching and its modes, and model school work were offered. While the work of the normal department was far from collegiate, the unit enrolled more than half the students in or connected with the university between 1858 and 1864. Not until 1873 was a chair of didactics established.³⁰

When the University of Wisconsin was founded, 4 departments were provided for in the charter, 1 of which was later to be the department of the theory and practice of elementary instruction. It began an irregular existence in 1856 under Daniel Reed.³¹

²⁵ Hanover College, Madison, Ind. Catalog, 1845. p. 11.

²⁶ Connecticut. Board of commissioners of common schools. Fourth Annual Report, 1842. p. 28.

²⁷ Brown University, Providence, R.I. Catalog, 1851-52. pp. 42-44; also catalogs for the years 1853-54 and 1854-55.

²⁸ Hinsdale, Burke A. The Study of Education in American Colleges and Universities. Educational Review, 19:114, February 1900.

²⁹ Indiana University, Bloomington. Annual Report of the Trustees . . . including the catalog 1853. p. 22.

³⁰ State University of Iowa, Iowa City. First catalog, 1855-57. In State University of Iowa. Circulars, catalogs, reports, etc., 1855-60. Davenport, Iowa, Gazette Co., printers, 1877. p. 26.

Bernard, Henry, ed. American Journal of Education, 17:725-727, 1867-68.

³¹ University of Wisconsin, Madison. Annual Reports of the Board of Regents. 1855, pp. 19-20; 1865.

Among the normal departments of the colleges there was much the same interest in the establishment of model schools as in the independent State normal schools. As early as 1838, Lafayette College, Pa., erected a model school for primary teachers. It was referred to by President Junkin in an address:

* * * in commemoration of the founding of the first model school for the training of primary school teachers in Pennsylvania, and the first, as believed, in the United States, in connection with a collegiate institution.²³

This project soon failed. Brown University had an excellent opportunity to undertake observation and student teaching, but pedagogical work was continued only a very few years by that institution. Indiana University and the State University of Iowa established model schools, later suspended, in connection with the normal departments they established in 1852 and 1855, respectively.²⁴ In general, most of the difficulties faced today by teacher-preparation institutions in organizing and conducting observation and practice were encountered by the institutions of the period under review.

In the normal departments of the colleges, considered as a whole, elementary teachers were prepared by normal school methods and through normal school courses. Offerings were usually of college-preparatory grade. The specific professional preparation of secondary teachers on any considerable scale and the full development of regular college departments of pedagogy or education were not to come until the century was well advanced. The normal departments were never held in very high esteem by the regular college faculties. Review courses in elementary subject matter and courses in didactics much like those of the normal schools were offered. Model schools were also established in the leading normal departments. During this period, the existence of the normal departments was sporadic and often interrupted, and eventually the normal departments were either entirely discontinued or evolved with considerable difficulty into regular collegiate departments of pedagogy, which should be considered a distinctly different type of agency for the professional education of teachers from that of the lower-level normal departments.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Before 1865, the most important single means of organized in-service teacher education was the teachers institute, the first notable beginning of which was in Connecticut in 1839, under the leadership of Henry Barnard. After about 1845, the movement spread with great

²³ Quoted in Wickersham, James P. *A History of Education in Pennsylvania*. Lancaster, Pa., Inquirer Publishing Co., 1896. p. 609.

²⁴ Indiana University, Bloomington. *Report of the Trustees* * * * to the General Assembly. By a committee. April 1882. pp. 7-9.

State University of Iowa, Iowa City. *First circular of the normal department, 1855*. In circulars, catalogs, reports, etc., 1855 to 1860, p. 10. Davenport, Iowa, Gazette Co., printers, 1877.

rapidity. By the time of the Civil War the institutes were fairly common in all parts of the country, except in the South.²⁴ Arising with the State normal schools, the institutes were peculiarly American in origin. They partook of the nature of moving or itinerant normal schools, and varied in length from a few days to 6 weeks. Then, as now, the institutes were held at times most convenient to teach, commonly during the summer months and during the days or weeks immediately preceding the opening of schools. Reviews of elementary school subjects were commonly given, along with instruction in teaching and school management. In addition, entertainment and inspirational features were provided.

Superintendent Mayhew of Michigan in 1847 gives a glimpse of the conditions under which institutes operated in the newer States:

Rarely have I been so highly gratified as at my first visit to Gun Plain, where the institute was held. As I came in sight of the school house, I saw an ox team drive up and stop. Several females got out of the wagon, and went into the house. It occurred to me they might be young ladies who had come up to attend the sittings of the institute. On inquiry, I ascertained this was a fact. They had come for this purpose, in a lumber wagon drawn by oxen about 40 miles.²⁵

²⁴ Connecticut. Board of commissioners of common schools. Second Annual Report, 1840. Hartford, Conn., Case, Tiffany, & Burnham, 1840. p. 10.

Barnard, Henry, ed. American Journal of Education, New Series, 30:277.

Boone, Richard G. Education in the United States. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1899. pp. 123-124.

²⁵ Michigan. Superintendent of public instruction. Annual Report for the Year 1847. In Michigan. Department of public instruction. A compilation from the annual reports of the superintendent of public instruction, 1845-47. Detroit, Mich., Baggs & Harmon, printers to the State, 1848. p. 82.

CHAPTER III

RAPID GROWTH OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND BEGINNINGS OF DEPARTMENTS OF PEDAGOGY, 1865-90

GENERAL FACTORS CONDITIONING TEACHER PREPARATION

The population of the United States increased approximately one-fourth during each decade of the period from the close of the Civil War to 1890, when the total population was approximately one-half that of today. New States were being settled rapidly throughout the West, and the growth of cities was marked. By 1890, 29 percent of the inhabitants of the United States lived in cities of 8,000 population or more, as compared with 20.9 percent only 20 years before. The number of school children increased during the period by about 3,000,000 each decade, and the preparation of teachers for new positions was a growing task.

While national wealth more than doubled during the period, there was only a nominal increase in expenditures for education.

A powerful impetus was given to the growth of education, including higher educational institutions, by Federal grants of land which in total amount eventually equaled more than twice the area of England.

The long-continued movement away from church and private control and support of schools advanced during the period, and there was likewise a steady trend away from small local school districts unequally endowed with wealth and educational foresight, to more centralized agencies of supervision and control.¹

Democratizing influences stimulated in particular the growth of public high schools, the enrollments of which more than doubled, and the growth of State universities and land-grant colleges, public elementary schools, and normal schools. Decline in the number of academies and seminaries was steady, but their influence and services were still wide-spread and important.

STATUS OF TEACHERS: CERTIFICATION

The number of teachers approximately doubled during the period, totaling more than one-third of a million in 1890. Salaries were higher, school terms longer, and teacher qualifications higher in 1890 than in 1865. However, improvement in the status of teachers, while appreciable, was slow. In the middle of the period, typical monthly salaries of men the country over were probably less than \$45, and for

¹ Boone, Richard G. *Education in the United States*. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1933. p. 100.

women, \$35 per month.¹ Salaries of city teachers were higher, averaging \$657 per year.

Even at the close of the period, the number of normal-school graduates was quite inadequate to meet the country's need for trained teachers. The typical teacher did not have the equivalent of high-school graduation until after the beginning of the twentieth century.

With many setbacks, certification requirements became more and more centralized under the control of State authorities during the period. In 1890, however, the movement was still in preliminary stages of advancement in many States, and only in a few of the commonwealths was there centralized control of certification. Requirements for certification rose with extreme slowness. Certification by examination predominated, but recognition of professional and academic education in teacher-preparation institutions as a primary basis of certification was given in more than half the States by 1897.

RAPID GROWTH OF STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

Despite the economic effects of the Civil War 26 normal schools in 12 States had been added by 1871 to the previous list of 18, which included .3 Pennsylvania institutions given joint private and State support. In all, 92 State normal schools for white students were in existence in 1890. Almost none had been discontinued.² By that year, State normal schools were very well distributed over the several geographical areas of the country.

The location of normal schools within States was unfortunate in many instances. Political and local community influences, rather than any intelligent forecasts of future institutional and State needs, usually determined the location of new schools. "Bidding" was spirited for normal schools by the towns and communities that desired them. Declining private academies and colleges that had outlived their usefulness, or at any rate had lost most of their income, looked hungrily to the States for succor and some were made State normal schools. The old German tradition that a small-town or village environment was best for prospective teachers determined the location of normal schools in some instances, and when the schools later became teachers colleges, the absence of student teaching facilities, lack of convenient means of rail transportation, absence of proper housing facilities for students, and other disadvantages became increasingly embarrassing to all concerned.³

The nature of the overhead administrative control of State normal schools did not change greatly during the period. In general,

¹ U.S. Bureau of Education (now Office of Education). Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1877. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1879. pp. 308-09.

² For a list of institutions reporting to the Commissioner of Education, see U.S. Bureau of Education, Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-90, vol. 2, pp. 1066-69.

³ For a good detailed discussion of this topic, see Humphreys, Harry O. The Factors Operating in the Location of State Normal Schools. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 151 pp.

although the nature of such control varied among the States, local boards of trustees and the principals or presidents of the institutions exercised more power than they do today. State departments of education did not fully assume authority over many of the normal schools, which, in a current phrase, "operated in splendid isolation and majesty."

Voluntary cooperative action among normal-school presidents and principals was best exemplified in the department of normal schools of the National Educational Association, which was first organized as the American Normal School Association in 1858. This organization became a department of the National Educational Association in 1870. Many noted educators participated in the discussions at the meetings which were held annually in conjunction with those of the National Educational Association.⁵ However, the normal-school organization did not undertake during the nineteenth century any programs designed to build up definite standards governing the institutions.

The incomes of the State institutions were decidedly low. In 1870 \$8,000 to \$9,000 per year is an ample estimate of the receipts of the typical institution and receipts were only a little higher in 1890. Tuition, of course, amounted to little or nothing, and private contributions went to the colleges rather than to the normal schools.⁶ Capital outlays were not large; housing facilities in the normal schools were usually confined to one main building, with the addition in some cases of a public school for practice.

Special facilities and apparatus were meager. In respect to library books, a high estimate of the average in 1870 would be 1,300 volumes per institution; in 1890, 3,800.⁷ Donations of books, with scant mention of the kinds desired, were invited in some catalogs. While the normal schools usually supplied the textbooks, the students were often urged to bring with them whatever books they possessed. Science equipment was especially meager.

Development of courses and curricula in normal schools.—For the purpose of the present Survey all the courses in pedagogy and some closely related courses were tabulated from paired catalogs of representative or influential State normal schools in different parts of the country in 1870 and in 1890 (table 3). The nine institutions selected constituted about 20 percent of all the State normal schools in 1870. In some States, all the normal schools had practically the same courses. The courses offered in eight additional institutions in 1890 were tabulated as a check, but in all except a few cases, the additional courses found merely represented recombinations of the word-

⁵ National Education Association. *Fiftieth Anniversary Volume, 1857-1906*. Washington, D.C., The Association, 1907. p. 590.

⁶ U.S. Bureau of Education. *Reports of the Commissioner of Education*. 1870, pp. 526-27; 1889-90, vol. 2, pp. 1090-31.

⁷ U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1870*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1875. pp. 526-27. Estimate for 1890 based upon catalog statements of 17 selected institutions.

ing used for the titles listed in table 3. The number of separate course titles increased only a little during the period.

Confusion in course terminology will be observed in the table at once. Genuine changes, however, during the 20 years may be perceived, and the steady development of professional courses can be traced in more than one instance. The tendency toward disappearance of the old standard courses in mental, or mental and moral philosophy will be seen in group 1. Psychology had a marked growth.

TABLE 3.—Professional courses offered in 9 selected State normal schools in 1870 and in 1890¹

Course titles	Number of institutions listing course		Course titles	Number of institutions listing course	
	1870	1890		1870	1890
1	2	3	1	2	3
Group 1			Group 3—Continued		
Ethics, professional.....	1	—	Methods of teaching grammar.....	—	1
Intellectual philosophy.....	1	—	Methods of teaching reading.....	—	1
Mental and moral philosophy.....	3	—	Methods of teaching (or of instruction).....	2	3
Mental philosophy.....	2	—	Methods of teaching the common branches, graded and high-school.....	1	—
Mental philosophy and methods of culture.....	1	—	Object lessons (exercises and topics, rather than courses).....	3	1
Mental science.....	—	1	Teaching in graded schools.....	—	1
Moral lessons.....	1	—			
Moral philosophy.....	—	2	Group 4		
Moral philosophy and methods of culture.....	1	—	History of education (lectures).....	1	—
Philosophy of education.....	2	1	History of education and school laws of State.....	1	—
Principles of teaching.....	—	1	History of education (or of pedagogics).....	—	5
Psychology.....	—	5	History of educational methods.....	1	—
Psychology, advanced.....	—	1	History and methods of education.....	1	—
Group 2			History and philosophy of education.....	—	2
Art of teaching.....	—	1	Group 5		
Didactics.....	—	1	Discussion and comparison of educational systems and supervision.....	—	1
Pedagogy, theoretical.....	—	1	Organization and management of graded or ungraded schools.....	1	—
Principles and methods of teaching the common branches.....	1	—	School economy.....	3	2
Professional training.....	1	—	School economy and management.....	—	1
Readings in education.....	—	2	School economy, civil government, and school law.....	1	1
Science and art of education (or teaching).....	—	2	School government.....	—	1
Science of teaching.....	1	—	School laws (of State).....	2	3
Theory and art of teaching.....	2	—	School management.....	1	—
Theory and practice of teaching.....	—	1	School organization.....	—	2
Theory of teaching.....	2	—	School organization and laws.....	—	1
Group 3			Group 6		
How to study and recite.....	1	—	Practice (in) teaching; practice class; practice lessons; experimental school work; teaching; teaching and criticism; model school (practice, work, teaching); observation and practice; observation.....	(7)	(7)
In the schoolroom.....	1	—			
Kindergarten (methods, etc.).....	—	1			
Methods, algebra.....	1	—			
Methods, arithmetic.....	1	1			
Methods, geography.....	1	1			
Methods of teaching elementary English.....	—	1			

¹ A few courses are included, such as moral philosophy, etc., that were listed separately or in combination as professional courses by some institutions, but not by others. They are included for all institutions because of their relationship to professional courses, and the fact that their total exclusion appears unfortunate when attempts are made to discover the courses that in some cases constituted the parent courses of later bona fide professional offerings that were then evolving.

² Catalogs as follows: California State Normal School, San Jose, 1870-71, 1891; State normal school (Connecticut Normal Training School), New Britain, Conn., 1890-91; State normal university, Bloomington (Normal), Ill., 1892, 1893; Western State Normal School (State normal and training school) Farmington, Maine, 1869-70, 1899; State normal school, Bridgewater, Mass., 1869-70, 1890; Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti, 1868-69, 1889-90; Missouri State Normal School, Kirksville, 1870-71, 1889-90; State normal and training school, Oswego, N.Y. (annual report), 1869 (circula.), 1892; Pennsylvania State Normal School, Millersville, 1869-70, 1890-91.

³ Offered in nearly all but frequently not outlined as a "course."

The old omnibus courses in theory or theory and art of teaching shown in group 2 appear to have been experiencing some changes that forecast the development of more modern subjects. In group 3, the dwindling influence of the formalized Oswego courses, as exemplified in object lessons, is seen, but courses in special methods at least grow no fewer in numbers. History of education (group 4) was becoming a clear-cut and distinctive field, a characteristic later in marked contrast to most other subjects in education. Some slight changes in group 5 perhaps suggest the evolution of school economy into later courses in school administration.

Gray found in 1889 the following distribution of time among certain generalized subjects in from 23 to 33 State normal schools: History of education, 13 weeks; science of education, 15½ weeks; methods in elementary branches, 31½ weeks; mental science, 20½ weeks; and school economy, 14½ weeks.⁸ Usually each subject was taught 4 or 5 times each week. There was, of course, a great variation in the scheduling of courses among the different institutions.

Imitation by normal schools of the curriculum practices of other institutions was common. The following statement from Kirksville in 1871 is refreshing in its frankness:

We thank the principals for catalogues of nearly all our State normal schools. These have been used freely in the preparation of our catalogue. We are especially indebted to the Pennsylvania State Normal School at Millersburgh.⁹

The development of professional courses by means of the application of scientific methods of research to the field of education, the accumulation and organization for instructional purposes of materials based upon field experience, and the formulation of principles by careful analysis and logical arrangement were not undertaken to any great extent during this period. Professional courses were therefore sketchy, and often not very effectual. The practical experience of teachers was drawn upon freely for instructional materials.

The academic courses taught in the normal schools of this period were still strongly intermixed with elementary review courses in public-school subjects. On the whole, the regular academic offerings were typical of the high schools and academies of the times.

The length of the regular normal school courses of study (curricula) in the 9 selected institutions cited in table 3 ranged from 2 to 4 years in 1870; the modal lengths were 2 years (the most frequent) and 3 years. In 1890, while the length of the courses of study still ranged from 2 to 4 years, there were more 3- and 4-year courses of study, and the 2- and 4-year courses were more distinctly outlined. Occasion-

⁸Gray, Thomas J., ed. Report of the "Chicago Committee" on Methods of Instruction and Courses of Study in Normal Schools. In National Educational Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1889. p. 675. Topeka, Kans., Kansas publishing house, 1889.

⁹Missouri State Normal School of the First District, Kirksville. Catalog, 1870-71. St. Louis, Mo., E. P. Studley & Co., 1871. p. 22.

ally a "postgraduate" year for college graduates was added, but it was exceedingly different from a graduate course in the modern sense. It must be remembered that entrance requirements to the normal schools were still not far from elementary school graduation.

Among the catalog courses listed before 1890 were a number of arts and science subjects, and in addition, several courses in engineering, preparatory medical, and commercial subjects. Hence the inclusion of nonprofessional courses is not new in normal school and teachers college curricula. The teacher-preparation institutions that offered avowedly nonprofessional courses a generation or more ago in many cases still tend to do so.

Certain tendencies to diversify curricula were evident. While electives were not commonly mentioned during the period, the number increased toward the close of the period. Many prospective teachers did not remain long in the institution. Courses for kindergarten teachers were growing in numbers. Some of the larger institutions undertook to prepare high-school teachers, with the result that classical, scientific, and English fields of study were developed. Degrees of bachelor, master, and doctor of pedagogy were conferred in increasing numbers by the largest normal schools toward the close of the period, but they were not the equivalent of regular college degrees.

Student teaching and observation were offered under a variety of titles (table 3, group 6). The extent of such work among normal schools made some gains, especially in Massachusetts, and the vast majority of normal schools in 1890 offered observation or practice. The work of Oswego, N.Y., was outstanding; instruction was largely centered in the model school. City normal schools and training classes relied greatly upon their abundant practice facilities. Normal departments in colleges, which prepared elementary teachers, usually had model schools, but the new college departments of pedagogy, which prepared secondary teachers, gave little attention to practice work of any kind.

The amount of time given to practice work varied greatly. The average reported by 48 normal schools in 1887 was about 175 lessons of 45 minutes each. Observation was common. The number of grades taught ranged from 2 to 10; the average was 7.¹⁰

Admission requirements to the institutions rose very slowly, although curricula were lengthening steadily. In 1890 only a few city training schools required high-school graduation for admission to

¹⁰ Gray, Thomas J., ch. Methods of Instruction in the Normal Schools of the United States. In National Educational Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1887. pp. 472-480. Salem, Mass., Observer book and job print, 1888.

See also Gray, Thomas J., ch. Report of the "Chicago Committee" on Methods of Instruction and Courses of Study in Normal Schools. In National Educational Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1889. pp. 570-587. Topeka, Kans., Kansas publishing house, 1889.

professional courses.¹¹ Only as high schools became sufficiently numerous in the following period to provide secondary preparation for the students who wished to attend normal school was it possible for the latter institutions to dispense with secondary academic courses. The regulations of the normal school at Framingham in 1889-90 will serve to illustrate in most respects the more advanced admission practices of the day:

A candidate for admission must be at least 16 years old (one who lacks more than a few days of that age need not apply); and it is very desirable that she should be several years older * * *. She must bring from a former teacher, or, if that is not possible, from some other responsible person, a certificate of such intellectual and moral qualities as are essential to a teacher; she must pass a satisfactory examination in arithmetic, geography, history of the United States, and the English language (including reading, writing, spelling, definition, grammar, and composition); and must pledge herself to teach, after completing the course of study, in the public schools of Massachusetts for at least one year * * *. A thorough high-school course, or its equivalent in some other good school, and some experience in teaching, though not conditions for entrance, are very desirable as a preparation for normal-school work * * *.¹²

In the country as a whole, probably not more than 13 percent of the normal school students at the close of this period were high-school graduates.¹³

The teaching staffs of the normal schools in 1870 averaged about 7 in number; in 1890, about 11. The formal preparation of the staffs was not equal to that in the colleges; in practical teaching experience in the public schools, however, the normal school staffs excelled.

The teaching methods and philosophy of instructors in normal schools followed in the main the current practices and thinking of the times. The formal disciplinary theories of John Locke were being superseded by new emphases. The foremost among these were found in the doctrines of Rousseau (1712-78), Pestalozzi (1746-1827), and Froebel (1782-1852). Herbartianism had its greatest influence in this country after 1890.

Students.—Students in normal schools of the period, like those of preceding and later years, were not favored with the opportunities of those whose economic standing enabled them to attend the large private tuition colleges. In 1870, the average annual expense to each student in 16 State normal schools was \$173.¹⁴ The occupational groups from which students were drawn were those of the rank and file of working people everywhere. Many students came from the farms. Not a few were experienced teachers. The average age of

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 1889. p. 575.

¹² State normal school at Framingham, Mass. Catalog and circular for 1889-90. p. 14.

¹³ Parsons, W. W. The Normal School Curriculum. In National Educational Association. *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1890. pp. 718-724.

¹⁴ U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1870*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1875. pp. 536-537.

the graduating classes in 41 representative State normal schools in 1889 was 21½ years.¹⁴ Student mortality in the institutions was high; the students had little incentive to undertake much advanced work, since the salaries paid teachers were extremely low.

On the whole, institutional provisions for raising the general cultural equipment of the students other than through classroom work were exceedingly modest. Not much attention was paid to housing facilities and dormitories were still uncommon.

CITY, COUNTY, PRIVATE, AND NEGRO NORMAL SCHOOLS

Rapid growth of city normal schools and training classes.—Growth of city training or normal schools and of city training classes roughly paralleled the rapid growth of cities. By 1880, city normal schools and training classes were established generally in both large and small municipalities.

Four types of institutions were in operation: The combined high school and normal school; purely professional units, the work of which was based upon high-school graduation; simply organized training classes; and normal departments of high schools. Typical courses of study were 1 or 2 years in length, but a few were longer. Graduation from high school was required for entrance to most of the 1-year courses of study. City normal schools, organized in conjunction with the city public schools, led all types of normal schools and teacher-preparation institutions in the amount of student teaching and observation required.

The city normal schools and training classes were easily established, and as easily discontinued. Among other causes for their growth was the lack of State provisions for the preparation of a sufficient supply of teachers of the kind preferred by the cities.¹⁵

Particularly worthy of mention among normal schools established by local governmental units was the Cook County Normal School at Englewood (Chicago), Ill. The chief sources of support of this school were the county of Cook, which contributed \$15,000 annually, about 1882, and tuition fees charged nonresidents.¹⁷ Under the leader-

¹⁴ Gray, Thomas J., ch. Report of the "Chicago Committee" on Methods of Instruction and Courses of Study in Normal Schools. In National Educational Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1889. p. 582. Topeka, Kans., Kansas publishing house, 1889.

¹⁵ For accounts of the growth of these institutions, see Parr, S. S. The Purpose and Means of City Training Schools. In department of superintendence, National Educational Association. Proceedings, Mar. 6-8, 1889. pp. 67-69. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1889.

U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1888-89. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1891. p. 957.

Newell, M. A. Contributions to the History of Normal Schools in the United States. In U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1898-99. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1900. pp. 246-64.

Philbrick, John D. City School Systems in the United States. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1885. pp. 41-47. (Bureau of Education. Circular of Information No. 1, 1885.)

¹⁷ U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1880. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1882. pp. 464, 468-469.

ship of Col. Francis W. Parker, principal of the institution from 1883 to 1899, the fame of this normal school extended not only throughout the Middle West, but over most of the Nation.

Private normal schools.—In 1880, 114 private normal schools were listed by the Bureau of Education. Many of these, however, were academies, colleges, and universities with normal departments. The list given in 1890 includes only 43 private institutions. Of these, 26 were in 9 States of the north central division. While changes in classification account for much of the difference in numbers of institutions over the decade, there was nevertheless a real decline in the number of private normal schools as the States entered the field of teacher preparation more extensively. Most of the private normal schools of the period have since passed out of existence, although others have arisen to take their place in part.

Teacher preparation for Negro schools.—Appreciation of the progress the Negro race has made in three-quarters of a century is greater when it is realized that Negro education in that brief period has recapitulated in part the history of general education in white schools for centuries.

Since 1865, the increase in numbers of the Negro race in this country has averaged roughly a million per decade. At first, illiteracy was the rule among this newly emancipated people. Teacher preparation of necessity followed the development of elementary and secondary education.

Industrial education has been stressed considerably in the education of Negroes, and the efforts of Hampton Institute (chartered 1870) in Virginia and of Tuskegee Institute (1880) in Alabama, are important and to a degree representative of the efforts of other institutions of their kind. Seventeen separate Federal land-grant institutions have been established for Negroes. However, the desire for general and cultural work in the several institutions has led to the offering of a not inconsiderable proportion of arts and science work. Such is the pressure upon the teacher-preparation institutions for Negroes for general service to the race that few of the institutions have confined their objectives solely to the education of teachers. They have undertaken in addition the performance of numerous other tasks involved in the vocational, cultural, and religious upbuilding of the race.¹⁸

¹⁸ Dickerman, George B. *History of Negro Education*. In Jones, Thomas Jesse. *Negro Education*. vol. 1. pp. 244-268. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1917. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1916, no. 28.)

Lyte, Eliphalet O. *The State Normal Schools of the United States*. In U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1903*. vol. 1. pp. 1129-30. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1904.

DECLINE OF NORMAL DEPARTMENTS AND RISE OF DEPARTMENTS OF PEDAGOGY

Of the total number of colleges and universities in this country in 1918, approximately 93 were established in 1860-69, 85 in 1870-79, 99 in 1880-89, 128 in 1890-99, 69 in 1900-1909, and 63 in 1910-18.¹⁹

In 1889-90, 415 colleges and universities reported to the Commissioner of Education. Of the 7,915 staff members reported, more than one-fifth still taught in preparatory departments. There were 118,581 students enrolled, between one-third and one-fourth of whom were women. The total annual income of the institutions reporting was only \$10,801,918.²⁰

Women's colleges, 179 in number, were listed separately. There were 24,851 students enrolled in these institutions in 1889-90.

The general characteristics of the normal departments of the colleges remained much the same during the period as they were before the close of the Civil War. Usually of subcollegiate grade, they were primarily interested in elementary teacher preparation. As late as 1890, normal departments and pedagogical courses of high-school grade were to be found in possibly one-fourth of the colleges.

The academic status of the normal departments of the colleges was not very high.

* * * It may be said that an intelligent graduate of a thoroughly taught high school who had attentively read Compayre's *History of Pedagogical Ideas*, a book on methods and management, and Sully's *Psychology*, for example, might graduate immediately and with honor from the great majority of the normal departments or teachers courses of our colleges and universities.²¹

Eventually these units were either discontinued or evolved into regular college departments of pedagogy or education. After 1879, departments of pedagogy of regular college grade entered into the field of secondary teacher preparation in growing numbers.

The department of pedagogy was the true progenitor of the department of education of today. While the University of Iowa is first chronologically, the University of Michigan (1879) is often accorded first place in the establishment of a genuine department of education, because of its importance, influence, clear-cut organization, and exclusively college-grade work. Discussions of the beginnings of the

¹⁹ See lists of institutions and dates of founding in U.S. Bureau of Education. *Biennial Survey of Education*, 1916-18. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1921. pp. 746-853. (Bulletin, 1919, no. 90.)

²⁰ U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-90*. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1893. pp. 760-763.

²¹ Addis, Wellford. *Curricula of Professional Schools*. In U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-90*. vol. 2. p. 1020. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1893.

first departments of pedagogy are numerous in the literature of education.²²

One of the primary forces leading to the establishment of departments of pedagogy of regular college grade was the increasing demand for better prepared high-school teachers, and for school principals and superintendents, consequent upon the rapid development during the period of public high schools and school systems. The normal departments had set strong precedents in specific preparation of elementary teachers, that suggested the desirability of similar preparation for academy and high-school work. The growth of State normal schools was rapid, and their increasing enrollments were not to be ignored by the colleges. In addition, the State universities and colleges felt under obligation to meet current State public-school needs, and the private institutions were not slow to sense the same needs.

Establishment of a chair of science and the art of teaching.—This chair was established at the University of Michigan in 1879 by the board of regents with William H. Payne, M.A., as head. He was paid a salary of \$2,200 per year.²³ The purposes of the department repeated in substance for a score of years in the catalogs of the institution, were as follows:

1. To fit university students for the higher positions in the public-school system.
2. To promote the study of educational science.
3. To teach the history of education, and of educational systems and doctrines.
4. To secure the rights, prerogatives, and advantages of a profession.
5. To give a more perfect unity to our State educational system by bringing the secondary schools into closer relations with the university.²⁴

The pedagogical courses offered, which were later copied in part by a number of other higher institutions, changed little during the period. The courses listed in 1889-90 may be considered representative of those in other leading college-grade departments of pedagogy elsewhere.

First semester

1. Practical: The arts of teaching and governing; methods of instruction and general schoolroom practice; school hygiene; school law. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Compayre's Lectures on Pedagogy. [4] * * *
3. History of education: Ancient and mediæval. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Compayre's History of Pedagogy. [3] * * *

²² Fellows, Stephen N. Didactics in the State University of Iowa. *Education*, 1: 393-400. March 1881.
Hinsdale, Burke A. History of the University of Michigan. Ann Arbor, Mich. The University, 1908. pp. 82-84.

Hubbell, Leigh G. The Development of University Departments of Education in Six States of the Middle West. Doctor's thesis. Washington, D.C., Catholic University of America, 1924. pp. 3-8.

Luckey, George W. The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan, Co., 1908. pp. 68-71, 104-105.

Parker, Leonard F. Higher Education in Iowa. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1908. pp. 95-97. (Bureau of Education. Circular of Information No. 6, 1908.)

²³ University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Proceedings of the Board of Regents from January 1876 to January 1881. Ann Arbor, Mich., Ann Arbor Printing & Publishing Co., 1881. pp. 368-69.

²⁴ University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Calendar, 1879-80. pp. 44-45.

5. School Supervision: Embracing general school management, the art of grading and arranging courses of study, the conduct of institutes, etc. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Payne's Chapters on School Supervision. [3] * * *

Second semester

2. Theoretical and critical: The principles underlying the arts of teaching and governing. Lectures. [3] * * *
4. History of education: Modern. Recitations and lectures. Textbook: Compayre's History of Pedagogy. [3] * * *
6. The comparative study of educational systems, domestic and foreign. Lectures. [2]
7. Seminary. Study and discussion of special topics in the history and philosophy of education. [2] * * *

Other institutions soon followed Michigan, but the early growth of departments of pedagogy was rather slow. The unit evolving at Iowa had reached the status of a department of pedagogy in most respects when Michigan began her work. Thereafter followed the department at the University of Wisconsin (1885), headed by John W. Stearns; Indiana University (1886), under Richard G. Boone; Cornell University (1886-87), headed by Dr. S. R. Williams; and others. By 1890, a number of State institutions, such as the University of Minnesota, had provided lecturers in pedagogy; and others, such as the University of California, had established teachers courses of one kind or another. Among the private institutions, Johns Hopkins early offered courses in psychology and education, under the guidance of G. Stanley Hall. This prominent educator and investigator became president of Clark University in 1888, where courses in psychology and education were also soon established. Ohio University at Athens, Iowa College, Northwestern University, Teachers College (Columbia University), and others had also made substantial beginnings in the preparation of secondary teachers at the close of the period. In all, possibly 10 institutions had established chairs or departments of pedagogy or education in 1891.²⁵

College courses in pedagogy.—Titles of courses offered by 10 departments of pedagogy in 1889-91, as taken from the catalogs, are shown in table 4. Most of the departments of pedagogy were included, and possibly one or two normal departments or mixed units that were rapidly approaching the status of departments of pedagogy.

Much variation and flexibility existed in the arrangement and organization of courses and in terminology. In general, the courses were given in the third or fourth years of the regular college curriculum; they were taught from 2 to 5 times a week; they were often given for 1 term or semester only; and they were offered as electives

²⁵ University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Calendar, 1890-91. p. 56.

²⁶ Cubberley, Ellwood P. Public-School Administration. In Kandel, Isaac L., ed. Twenty-Five Years of American Education. p. 122. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1924.

much more commonly than as required subjects. Much reliance was placed upon the few relatively good textbooks available, and teaching by lectures or by other conventional college methods was the rule. Considerable duplication of content among different courses was inevitable.

Student teaching was almost, if not entirely, lacking in the universities before 1893, although a little observation was provided, as at Cornell University.

As a rule, courses in education were taught by instructors who were drawn from other subject-matter departments, such as philosophy. The field of education was not yet well developed.

TABLE 4.—*Course titles in pedagogy in 10 selected colleges and universities, in or about 1890*^a

GROUP 1

Educational psychology (two institutions)	Psychology
Logic and psychology	Psychology and moral philosophy
Mental science	Pure psychology and ethics
Philosophy of education (two institutions)	Theoretical and critical; principles, etc.
	Theory of teaching

GROUP 2

Didactics (two institutions)	Practical: The arts of teaching and governing, etc.
Education in the United States	Science of education
Educational science and systems	Seminary: Educational problems (two institutions)
Libraries and schools	The school (two institutions)
Literature of education	
Pedagogics	
Pedagogics: Seminary	

GROUP 3

High school teaching	Methods
Kindergarten management and primary school	Methods of teaching
	Methodology and applied pedagogy

GROUP 4

Comparative study of educational systems	History of education, modern
Foreign school systems	History of education and philosophy
History of education (four institutions)	History of educational theories and practice
History of education; ancient and medieval	[History and philosophy of education]
	Seminary

^a Catalogs as follows: Indiana University, Indianapolis. Catalog, 1889-90. Iowa College, Grinnell. Catalog, 1890-91. State University of Iowa, Iowa City. Catalog, 1890-91. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. Calendar for 1890-91. University of the State of Missouri, Columbia. Catalog, 1890-91. Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. Register, 1890-91. The University of the City of New York, New York. Catalog, 1890-91. University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill. Catalog, 1889-90. University of Deseret [Utah], Salt Lake City. Report of the Chancellor . . . January 1890. University of Wisconsin, Madison. Catalog, 1889-90.

TABLE 4.—*Course titles in pedagogy in 10 selected colleges and universities, in or about 1890—Continued*

GROUP 3

City school systems	School supervision (two institutions)
School law and school hygiene	School system of Indiana
School management and exemplification of methods	

Professional preparation for teaching was not yet in very wide demand among employers of high-school teachers. Not a little of faith, hope, and tenacity sustained the early college teachers who endeavored to make a respected place for professional education in the regular college curriculum.

GROWTH OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER-EDUCATION AGENCIES

Most of the methods employed today for the in-service education of teachers that were not already known in 1870 had their origin during the period under review. Reading circles, teachers meetings, work of local, State, and national professional teachers organizations, lay societies, or associations, the teachers institutes, summer sessions, class extension and correspondence school work, and other means were all by 1890 contributing to the gigantic task of raising levels of preparation of teachers in service.

Summer schools and summer sessions.—The germ idea of the summer session, a development largely American in origin, is probably to be found in the old American or National Lyceum, which contributed to the limited learning of teachers after 1826. It is not beside the point to recall that some of the Massachusetts normal schools during the middle decades of the nineteenth century extended their regular sessions into the summer months. Summer elementary schools were common in New England at that time. The first commonly recognized beginning of the summer school as a distinct unit, however, was at Harvard University in 1872, when Louis Agassiz established a summer zoological laboratory on Penikese Island in Buzzard's Bay.²⁸

The chief purposes underlying the establishment of early summer schools were: To provide instruction for those wishing to obtain qualified assistance in their studies, but unable locally to obtain the instruction best fitted to their needs; to enable college students to add to their college credits by making up deficiencies or advancing their academic session work; to carry on special research work or study, as in geology or biology, which could best be conducted during the summer session; and to afford teachers special out-of-term work in professional education or in academic or technical subject matter.

²⁸ Willoughby, W. W. *The History of Summer Schools in the United States*. In U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1891-92*. vol. 2. p. 302. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1894.

After the beginnings at Harvard, summer schools grew rapidly in numbers and diversified their offerings. The arts and sciences, pedagogy, and special subjects such as physical education, music, and oratory were all given recognition. Prominent teachers were early listed on faculty rolls, including Emerson, Harris, Howe, Dewey, Saveur, and many others.

In 1890, more than 100 summer schools or summer sessions were maintained by colleges or universities, religious or semireligious groups or gatherings, individuals engaged in private business undertakings, teachers assemblies, Chautauqua groups, and many other agencies. Pedagogical work was stressed in many places. Great variety characterized offerings, organization, and methods of instruction. There was an open field for experimentation, and from the successful ventures there evolved the pattern of the summer session as it is known today. Important among early practices was that of the University of Chicago, which abolished distinctions between the work of different sessions, and provided for a regular summer session as a fourth quarter which operated essentially like those of the rest of the year.

The Chautauqua movement.—Chautauqua contributed greatly to the popularization of the summer-school idea and to several other agencies devoted to in-service education. This "University of the People" was originally established at Chautauqua Lake in the southwestern corner of the State of New York in 1873. Bishop John H. Vincent and Louis Miller of Ohio, joined in the improvement of Sunday-school teaching by incorporating into it instruction not only in the Bible, but also in science and literature.²⁰

Chautauqua at its height included a wide variety of educational, recreational, and inspirational activities. At the close of the century the Literary and Scientific Circle included reading circles in 10,000 or more centers throughout the country. Several forms of university extension were developed at Chautauqua. Correspondence school work was offered, and the whole summer-school movement throughout the country was forwarded by the influence of this highly successful institution. A pedagogical department called the "teacher retreat" offered general and special courses in pedagogics, which were taught by many well-known educators of the times, including Francis W. Parker.

University extension.—University extension began in England shortly after the middle of the nineteenth century, largely as a result of pressure designed to extend the offerings of the older English universities to poor classes not able to attend these institutions. In America,

²⁰ Adams, Herbert B. Chautauqua: A Social and Educational Study. In U.S. Bureau of Education Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1894-95. vol. 1. pp. 977-1077. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1896.

U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1896-97. vol. 1. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1898. pp. 994-999.

elements of this idea, as of several others of the kind, are to be found in the old American or National Lyceum in the first half of the century, but the most significant beginnings in this country probably date from 1887, when Prof. Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University delivered an address before the American Library Association on the English system of university extension. Soon thereafter some extension work was undertaken by public libraries in Buffalo, Chicago, and St. Louis.²⁰ The greatest growth of extension work was to come in the period to follow.

The causes for the introduction of general or university extension work were numerous. The growth of human knowledge was marked during the last decades of the century. Many adults, including teachers, could not or would not give up their regular employment to attend college. Certification requirements for teachers were being gradually heightened. More collegiate or normal-school work was being required. Methods of teaching were changing. Educational literature was growing in volume. The higher institutions were assuming an increasingly liberal attitude toward the extramural extension of their services to wider constituencies. Communication and transportation were becoming easier, the population was becoming denser, and prospective students to whom extension work would appeal were becoming more numerous.

Introduction of correspondence study.—The first outstanding attempt in the United States to offer organized and more or less professional instruction without direct personal contact with students was that of an organization known as "The Society to Encourage Studies at Home", formed in 1873, but the life of the society was brief, as was that of a "correspondence university" organized a decade later.²¹

The Chautauqua movement greatly forwarded instruction by correspondence. The instructor in languages during the summer at Chautauqua, William Rainey Harper, later established a correspondence-study department at the University of Chicago, where he became president. This unit grew with great rapidity, and blazed the way for the establishment of correspondence instruction in many other institutions of higher education. Commercial correspondence schools also flourished in several sections of the country before the close of the century.

Many factors contributed to the development of correspondence instruction. The work could begin at almost any time and proceed within limits at a rate dependent upon the abilities or desires of the

²⁰ Adams, Herbert B. Educational Extension in the United States. In U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1899-1900. vol. 1. pp. 275-279. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1901.

²¹ Noffsinger, John S. Correspondence Schools, Lyceums, Chautauquas. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1926. pp. 1-7.

U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1902. vol. 1. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1903. pp. 1009-72.

student; it demanded little in the way of institutional plant; it was administered with comparative ease, and was not unduly expensive. Through the period of instruction, teachers in service could secure needed information and often earn college credits in almost any field. Correspondence work lacked some of the advantages pertaining to resident instruction; and the temptation to discontinue work was strong unless some effective motive for completing the course was provided.

Rise of reading circles.—By 1886-87 more than 75,000 teachers in 20 States were engaged in reading-circle work.³² General cultural, informational, and professional reading was provided. Usually a course of study or of reading was outlined by the State associations. Book lists were provided, reductions were secured in prices of books, advice was given on methods of reading or study, examinations on completed work were conducted, and certificates of proficiency were granted to teachers. State teachers associations led in the organization of reading-circle activities, but county and other local circles were also formed. Often teaching certificates were renewed on the basis of completion of reading-circle work.

Teachers institutes.—Teachers institutes grew rapidly in numbers, but their nature did not change essentially during the period. The need for the institutes, and indeed for almost any legitimate form of in-service education was great; for the qualifications of the typical elementary teacher had not yet reached the equivalent of high-school graduation. Salaries were very low, and tenure was short; hence incentives to attend normal schools and colleges were not particularly strong. Furthermore, normal schools were not everywhere provided and institutes were considered valuable auxiliaries to those that existed.

In 1882-83, there were 12 States that conducted institutes directly. Sessions averaged from 1 or 2 days to 6 weeks in length. State appropriations varied from \$300 in Nevada to \$16,040 in New York. New York led also in number of teachers in attendance—13,231 out of a total of 30,826 in the State. County institutes were conducted in 18 States; Pennsylvania led in attendance, with 17,124 teachers out of approximately 21,352 in the State. Nearly 100 cities reported that institutes were conducted.³³

A fairly easily administered and relatively inexpensive agency for giving teachers in service a modicum of instruction, the institutes were deeply rooted in existing educational procedures, and had fair at the close of the period to persist for many years.

³² U.S. Bureau of Education. Reports of the Commissioner of Education, 1886-87, pp. 404-405; 1887-88, pp. 1050-74.

³³ Smart, James H. Teachers Institutes. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1885. pp. 20-23, 219. (Bureau of Education. Circular of Information, no. 2, 1885.)

Public-school supervision.—Public-school supervision of instruction remained largely a phase of the general administrative work of school principals and superintendents, and was largely inspectorial in nature. On the whole, effective supervision of instruction appeared to await the further development of education as a science; the consolidation and organization of larger school units, especially city school systems; the education of a personnel better qualified to assist teachers; and the provisions of funds for the development of supervision as an organized and self-contained function.

CHAPTER IV

EVOLUTION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AND GROWTH OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION, 1890-1933

GENERAL FACTORS CONDITIONING TEACHER PREPARATION

The greatest growth in the history of this country in general education and in the professional education of teachers has occurred since 1890.

Changes in general and school populations.—Although the population of the United States has approximately doubled since 1890, the percent of increase dropped from 35.6 during the decade ending in 1860 to 25.5 in 1880-90, and further to 16.1 in 1920-30.¹

The changes indicated have already markedly affected the school population. For a long time the enrollment in the schools increased as the attractiveness and holding power of the schools increased. Now other factors, including decreased birth and immigration rates, are making their influences felt. The proportion of the number of children of school age to the total population of the country is decreasing. This means that it is becoming necessary to prepare relatively fewer teachers. The extension to more pupils of schooling above high school and extension below kindergarten, decreases in class size, extension of school services, and the like are possibilities to be considered, but on the whole, the preparation of teachers would appear to be fast approaching a predominantly maintenance or renewal basis.

Increase in national wealth and support of schools.—What are present trends in respect to the support of schools? An economic depression has caused a temporary recession in a former marked upward curve of growth. The long-time trend, however, is far more significant.

The total national wealth of this country increased, in dollars, more than 45 times over between 1850 and 1922. It increased nearly five times over between 1890 and 1922 alone. Effects of periods of severe economic depression are practically indistinguishable in the long-time movement. Per-capita wealth increased from \$308 to \$2,918 during the 72-year period; it increased nearly three times over between 1890 and 1922.²

In expenditures for schools, there have also been marked increases. Between 1870 and 1930, the total amounts expended for elementary and secondary education increased in dollars, nearly 37 times over; the expenditure per capita nearly 12 times over; and expenditure

¹ U.S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1931. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 84.

² Ibid., pp. 296, 334-335.

per pupil in average attendance about sevenfold. Changes in the purchasing power of the dollar account for only a part of the increase.³

While the figures would be lower in 1934 than in 1930, owing to the effects of the present economic depression, it must be remembered that the 8 decades since 1850 cover several major economic depressions, and the long-time trend toward increased public-school support has never been interrupted for more than a few years at a time. Fundamental and lasting changes in prevailing social and economic conditions have been freely prophesied during all of the preceding periods of gloom, but development continued, nevertheless, to higher points than before.

Growth of education.—The greatest growth in education has been in the publicly supported schools. Among private or denominational schools, however, the Roman Catholic Church has gained substantially in pupils enrolled, while about as many of the Protestant churches have lost school enrollments as have gained them.

The number of public elementary school children increased from 12,519,618 in 1890 to 21,278,593 in 1930. In the same period, the number of secondary school pupils increased from 202,963 to 4,399,422.⁴ The last-mentioned increase is particularly impressive. Roughly, half the secondary school population age group is now enrolled in the high schools. This extraordinary growth of the high schools explains in part the growth of teachers colleges during this period. In the past the preparation of high-school teachers was commonly the function of the colleges, but more teachers colleges are now entering this field. Both teachers colleges and colleges and universities prepare teachers for the reorganized junior high schools, which began their growth early in the present century.

In 1899-1900, there were 225,394 pupils enrolled in kindergartens; in 1930, the enrollments had reached 717,899 pupils. The preparation of teachers for kindergarten or kindergarten-primary work is a major activity of the teachers colleges. Several private normal schools as well as certain colleges and universities also prepare teachers for kindergarten work.

State departments of education have grown in size and strength. Since about 1920, the percentage of school revenues contributed by the State to public education has tended to increase. Administration of certification requirements during the period has been centralized more and more in the hands of the State; and there has been a tendency also for the States to assume more direct control over the teacher-preparation institutions.

³ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of State School Systems, 1929-30*, by Emery M. Foster and others. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-30. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. pp. 28-29. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 6, 28-29.

Educational associations.—Many hundred important organizations of teachers or administrative officers are functioning at the present time; the standards, policies, and resolutions formulated and the attitudes engendered by the group action of educators today constitute important and powerful agencies of control over educational practices, and contribute materially to educational advancement. The regional and national associations have influenced the development of high schools and colleges, and have affected the standards of teacher-preparation institutions.

The largest of the national organizations of teachers, the National Education Association, had a membership of 189,173, on December 31, 1933. Most of the national groups interested in teacher preparation meet annually in conjunction with the meetings of the department of superintendence of the National Education Association. The influence of the Association has been great in the awakening of a professional consciousness among American teachers.

IMPROVEMENTS IN TEACHER STATUS; HEIGHTENED CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

Development of certification as a means of raising teacher qualifications.—Studies of certification requirements at different times during the period disclose some fairly clear trends. These are evident despite an exceedingly complex and growing variety of certification practices among the 48 States and the District of Columbia.

One outstanding trend is toward the centralization of certifying authority in State departments of education. Table 5 summarizes this trend since 1898.

TABLE 5.—Tendency toward centralization of certifying authority in State departments of education^{1 2 3}

Kind of system 1	Number of States ⁴					
	⁵ 1898	⁶ 1908	⁷ 1911	1921	1926	1933
	2	3	4	5	6	7
State systems (State issues all certificates).....	3	5	15	26	36	39
State-controlled systems (State prescribes rules, gives questions, and examines papers; county authorities issue some certificates).....	1	(⁸)	2	7	4	3
Semi-State systems (State makes regulations and gives questions; county authorities issue certificates and correct papers).....	17	(⁸)	18	10	5	3
State-county systems (both issue certificates; county retains full control over examination for 1 or more certificates).....	18	(⁸)	7	3	2	2
State-local systems.....				2	1	1
County system (county grants all certificates).....	4	4	1			

¹ Cook, Katharine M. *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1928. p. 19. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1927, no. 19.)

² U.S. Government Printing Office, 1921. p. 9. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1921, no. 22.)

³ State departments of education. Rules and regulations, governing certification, 1933.

⁴ Temporary and emergency certificates and permits not included.

⁵ See also Blodgett, James H. *Legal Provisions of the Various States Relating to Teachers' Examinations and Certificates*. In U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1897-98*. vol. 2. pp. 1632-91. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1899.

⁶ See also Jackson, William R. *The Present Status of the Certification of Teachers in the United States*. In U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1903*. vol. 1. pp. 463-519. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1905.

⁷ See also Updegraff, Harlan. *Teachers' Certificates Issued Under General State Laws and Regulations*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1911. p. 12-135. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1911, no. 13.)

⁸ No data.

Numerous gains have accompanied the centralization of certification in the State boards and departments of education. One of these gains is the more rapid heightening of certification requirements at a more nearly uniform rate in the States. Numerous difficulties, however, are encountered in raising requirements, even by centralized authority. The departments of education are not wholly independent agencies. Certification of teachers is still a matter of specific legislative action in many States; and the State department staffs which should be empowered to change minimum and other requirements as supply and demand of teachers fluctuate, must await the uncertain mandates of State legislatures, which raise requirements very slowly, and sometimes in doubtful directions. Again, members of the teaching profession who have low-grade certificates are loath to see their credentials or positions endangered, and their attitudes sometimes tend to retard progress in raising requirements. Finally, local officials who employ teachers often are governed by personal or community factors rather than purely professional motives in the selection of teachers. Altogether, the raising of certification requirements is a tedious and difficult task; and on the whole, most programs designed to raise such requirements are conservative in nature.

The result in one sense is unfortunate. An oversupply of teachers occurs from time to time, and the usual remedy is to permit a lowering of salaries until some of the surplus teachers withdraw from the profession or the teacher market. The lowering of salaries also means that the more ambitious and able "prospects" for the profession enter more promising fields of work.

Certification was granted at first primarily on the basis of safeguarding the schools against waste of public funds due to extreme inefficiency or lack of personal competency to meet local demands on the part of prospective teachers. Later, examinations were imposed to test elementary or secondary school attainments. Finally, the completion of a specified amount of college or normal school work was embodied in the requirements. Many certificates are still issued on the basis of examination or short-time attendance at colleges or normal schools. As a result, there is a steady infiltration into the profession from the ranks of the more poorly prepared applicants. The raising of the average level of competency of teachers is thus retarded. However, certification by examination, while still found in some form in at least 25 States in 1933, is slowly on the decline; it is more and more confined to low-grade certificates, or to special cases not easily dealt with by better means. The requirements with respect to college work have steadily been strengthened. In 1926 and thereafter all States issued one or more certificates upon the basis of graduation from normal school or college.

Trends in the rise of scholarship prerequisites for certificating teachers during the past decade are indicated in table 6. Probably the rise in requirements was more rapid during this short period than in any other 10 years in the history of certification in this country. The effects of abnormal economic conditions after 1929 on certification requirements cannot yet be ascertained in full. In a few States, lowered salaries, shortened school terms, and failure to pay teachers' salaries promptly have led to suspension of efforts to raise standards; in other States, advantage is taken of an oversupply of applicants for teaching positions, and requirements are being raised steadily.

TABLE 6.—*Scholarship prerequisites for certificating teachers without experience, temporary and emergency certificates not considered*¹

Minimum scholarship prerequisites	Number of States		
	1921	1926	1930
1	2	3	4
High-school graduation and 3 years' training of higher grade.....	0	0	2
High-school graduation and 2 years' training of higher grade.....	0	4	5
High-school graduation and professional training, 1 year of higher grade.....	0	9	11
High-school graduation and some professional training, but less than 1 year.....	4	14	13
4 years secondary school (may or may not include professional courses).....	14	6	5
No definite scholarship requirement stipulated.....	30	15	12

¹ Cook, Katherine M. *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1921. p. 16. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1921, no. 22.)

² Effective in Kentucky in 1932.

Data for 1930 based upon Tewksbury, Mary A. *Certification of Public-School Teachers in the United States*. Master's thesis. University of Washington, 1930. pp. 67-69. ms.

In February 1933, Bachman stated that minimum certification requirements for elementary teachers had reached the encouragingly high level of 4 years above high school in Rhode Island, the District of Columbia, and for all practical purposes in California. The minimum 3-year level had been reached in Arizona, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maryland, New Jersey, and Washington; and the 2-year level in Colorado (in effect), Idaho, Indiana, Louisiana, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Vermont. Examinations were still permitted in five of these States, but few teachers were certificated by this means, except in Colorado.⁵ In 1935, other States can doubtless be added to the higher-level lists.

In 1906, one pedagogical subject was required for one or more certificates in about three-fourths of the States. Commonly this subject was the theory and art of teaching. School law and, much

⁵ Bachman, Frank P. *Present Certification Requirements and Implications for Teachers Colleges*. Educational Administration and Supervision, 19: 99-100, February 1933.

less commonly, psychology, history of education, and a few other professional subjects were also occasionally required.⁶

In 1934, all States had minimum requirements in professional education courses for one or more certificates, ranging in amount from 8 to 24 semester-credits. Numerous institutions in their efforts to meet the requirements of the regional associations, required a certain amount (e.g., 15 semester credits) of professional education for the first degree upon which certification is based. Thirty States also required courses in student teaching with varying amounts of credit for one or more certificates.⁷

Differentiation of certificates on bases of grade-group levels of instruction, subjects, or types of teaching positions is an important means of raising standards and is increasing in use and scope. In not more than six States before 1900⁸ did the legal certification standards for high-school teachers differ from those for elementary-school teachers. Cubberley's study of certification showed that less than one-fifth of the States in 1906 made any distinction between high-school and elementary-school certificates. A State certificate, as well as a local certificate, was good in almost any kind of public school in the area in which the certificate was granted. In most of the States, the only legal requirement for instruction in high schools was a county certificate of one of the regular grades. By 1921, differentiation by subjects or fields of work for some certificates, at least, was well established. In 1930, while 25 States still issued certificates valid in all grades of elementary and secondary schools, practically all States issued certificates specifically for elementary grades; 31 issued certificates specifically designated for high-school teachers; and 26 States issued certificates specifically for junior high school teachers. Numerous combinations of such certificates were granted.⁹

At the present time, a great variety of specialized certificates are issued. Certification by single teaching subjects or levels of work, as well as by subject combinations and by supervisory and administrative types of positions may be found. The practice of "blanket" certification appears to be slowly diminishing in extent, and the practice of differentiating certificates is growing.

In 1930, 27 States still made no academic requirement for the highest grade of academic high-school certificate other than graduation from a recognized college, but 16 States required college graduation, and also directly or indirectly a major or minors with a specified number of hours of work in each. In addition, five States required

⁶ Cubberley, Ellwood P. Part II. The Certification of Teachers. In National Society for the Scientific Study of Education. Fifth yearbook, 1906, pp. 28-39. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago Press, 1906.

⁷ See also Tewksbury, Mary A. Op. cit., pp. 57-70.

⁸ Brown, John F. The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools in Germany and the United States. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1911. p. 208.

⁹ Tewksbury, Mary A. Op. cit., pp. 61-63.

college graduation and also a major and minors with specified numbers of hours and suggested courses in each.

Considerable difficulty is encountered in securing recognition in a given State, of certificates issued by another State. Diversity of terminology applied to certificates and the diverse nature of the credentials granted appear to make the problem worse as certificates grow in number and variety. Institutional credits appear to be utilized increasingly as indications of attainments worthy of interstate recognition.

The duration of teaching certificates varies among States and among certificates. In 1930, six States issued no life certificates, and there appears to be some demand elsewhere for their abolition. It is claimed with some reason that possession of life certificates in many cases leads to professional stagnation, unless provisions are made whereby continuous growth in service is ensured.

To summarize, important trends in certification during the period include:

1. Centralization of certification from county and other local authorities into the State departments, of education.
2. Raising progressively the minimum certification requirements, and at the same time raising the general level of requirements for all certificates.
3. Increase of certification by specific grade levels, or by teaching fields and types of work.
4. Increase of certification under the authority or auspices of institutions of collegiate grade that prepare teachers, and increased use of institutional credits as a basis of certification.
5. Decrease in certification of graduates of institutions of sub-collegiate grade.
6. Increase in requirements in professional education courses, including student teaching.
7. Slow decrease in certification by examination.
8. Increased recognition of the need for State control over, or coordination of, certification, institutional offerings for prospective teachers, and placement of teachers in positions for which they are specifically prepared.

Improvements in the professional status of teachers.—The increase in the number of teachers since 1890 has been nearly threefold: the total in 1930, including college teachers and school administrators, was 1,037,605.¹⁰ The percent of women increased from 65.5 in 1890 to a high point, 85.9 in 1920; the percent was 83.4 in 1930.

¹⁰ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistical Summary of Education, 1920-30*, by Emery M. Foster and others. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1920-30. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. p. 7. (Office of Education. Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

The total number of secondary schools increased from 4,158 with 16,329 teachers in 1890, to 24,997 schools with 235,092 teachers in 1930. This phenomenal increase has been equaled by no other country in the world. The ratio of public high-school teachers to private high-school teachers is growing steadily higher; in 1930, it was about 8.5 to 1.

The preparation of teachers for new positions, and for replacements of those who die or leave the profession, and the general elevation of the levels of preparation existing a generation ago have constituted a task that has led to greatly increased enrollments as well as substantial increase in numbers of teacher-preparation institutions. The great increase in number of high schools has also been an important factor in the rapid development of teachers colleges and of departments and schools of education in colleges and universities. A large expansion of curriculum offerings has been necessitated by the development of numerous specialized types of teaching positions in the public schools. Different types of instructional, extension, and research services have multiplied. City, county, and State administrative, supervisory, and special-service personnel have also grown in numbers. All demand professional preparation.

The rise in levels of preparation of teachers has been greater since 1890 than during any other period of like length in the entire history of this country. In 1890 and before, the typical elementary teacher had received preparation to a level distinctly below the equivalent of high-school graduation. The majority of students in State normal schools received their preparation in curricula typically 2 or 3 years in length at the beginning of the period, and such curricula of necessity began somewhere on lower or middle secondary levels. Most of the students did not remain to graduate from normal schools, and a large number of elementary teachers never attended these institutions. Certification requirements in the majority of States did not reach a level equivalent to normal school graduation (table 6).

High-school teachers received more preparation than elementary teachers, but their numbers were relatively small in 1890. Dexter in 1904 in a study of a somewhat selected group including approximately one-sixth of the high-school teachers in this country, found that possibly 60 percent had completed a college course.¹¹ Thorndike found the preparation of high-school teachers no higher in 1908 or 1909.¹² However, the qualifications of secondary teachers have improved steadily until the present time. At present, the typical prepa-

¹¹ Dexter, Edwin G. *The Present Status and Personnel of the Secondary Teaching Force in the United States*. In *National Society for the Study of Education*. Fourth yearbook, 1905. Part I. pp. 61-62. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1905.

¹² Thorndike, Edward L. *The Teaching Staff of Secondary Schools in the United States*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1909. 60 pp. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1909, no. 4.)

ration of high-school teachers is college graduation, with a tendency in favored localities toward the extension of preparation to the graduate levels.

In an investigation in 1910 of the preparation of all teachers considered as a group, Coffman found in a questionnaire study of 5,215 teachers chosen at random in 17 States, that the average preparation was high-school graduation in the case of women, and a little less in the case of men.¹² Eight years later, in 1918, a commission of the National Education Association stated that approximately half of the 600,000 teachers in the country had no more than 4 years' education beyond the eighth grade.¹³ The preparation of rural teachers was particularly poor.

In 1922 a report by the Carnegie Foundation based upon a study of certification requirements in the several States indicated that possibly 25 percent of the teachers had less than a high-school education, and 55 percent less than 2 years of collegiate study.¹⁴ A study by the National Education Association in 1923 similarly justifies the statement that more than half the teachers of this country appeared to have had less than 2 years of preparation in 1921 or 1922.¹⁵

Today, the average amount of preparation is probably nearer the 3-year level than the 2-year level. However, variations between city and rural areas and variations among States as well as among different types of teaching positions are very great. For instance, a study of 165,442 rural school teachers in 1929-30 showed the median training to be only 4 years and 7 months above elementary school.¹⁷ On the other hand, a number of cities and at least three States have reached or will soon reach the 4-year level for the vast majority of their beginning teachers.

The salaries of teachers have materially increased during the past two periods, to 1930. As in the case of teacher preparation, variations in teachers' salaries are very great in different places and among different types of teachers. In 1870, the average annual salary of all teachers was \$189; in 1890, \$252; in 1920, \$871; and in 1930, \$1,420.¹⁸ In purchasing power, the actual increase has been less. It should, of course, be remembered that comparable increases have occurred in

¹² Coffman, Lotus D. *The Social Composition of the Teaching Population*. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911. p. 21. (Contributions to Education, no. 41.)

¹³ National Education Association. *Commission on the National Program in Education. Federal appropriations for the preparation of public-school teachers*. Washington, D.C., The Association, 1918. p. 4.

¹⁴ Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. *Seventeenth annual report of the president and treasurer, 1922*. pp. 57-58.

¹⁵ Research bulletin of the National Education Association, 1:43. January 1923.

¹⁷ Gaumnitz, Walter H. *Status of Teachers and Principals Employed in the Rural Schools of the United States*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. p. 85. (Office of Education, Bulletin, 1932, no. 3.)

¹⁸ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of State School Systems, 1927-28*, p. 14; 1929-30, p. 44. (Bulletin, 1930, no. 5, 1931, no. 20.)

In 1934, the estimated average was \$1,000.

other vocations, as standards of living have advanced, and that the length of school terms taught has also increased.

The length of teaching life, as well as of teacher tenure, has been increasing steadily. The demands upon the teacher-preparation institutions for new teachers, therefore, tend to decrease.

At present, there is a decided oversupply of certificated teachers. The law of supply and demand operates in the case of teacher supply much as in the case of commodities. Supply and demand fluctuate more or less in accordance with the swings in economic cycles, but tend always toward equality. In 1930, salaries had increased, and working conditions in teaching had improved. More and more individuals have been attracted into the profession. Again, the large increase in enrollments in almost every type of higher institution has led to a very great increase in the potential supply of teachers. The preparation of teachers has not yet been restricted to institutions specifically designated for this purpose. The raising of certification requirements has not kept pace with the increasing supply of teachers; and higher institutions have been loath to curtail enrollments, except in some of the most densely populated areas where teacher oversupply has become most acute.

CHANGES IN THE NUMBER, ORGANIZATION, CONTROL, AND SUPPORT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

Changes in number, by types.—Changes during the period in the number of normal schools and teachers colleges, by types, are shown in table 7. The data show the following trends: A continuation of the growth of State normal schools during the first half of the period; their very rapid transformation into teachers colleges, especially during the last decade or two; a decline in the number of city normal schools; and a rise early in the period and a decline later in the number of private normal schools. The comparatively recent attainment of teachers college status by city and private normal schools is also shown. The tendency toward the transformation of normal schools into State teachers colleges is particularly marked. Very few State normal schools and State teachers colleges, once established, have been discontinued; local demand for their retention is apparently almost impossible to resist. City, county, and private institutions have not been so continuously supported.

TABLE 7.—Number of normal schools and teachers colleges reporting to the Office of Education, 1890-1933¹

Type of institution	Number of institutions						
	1890-90	1890-1900	1900-10	1910-20	1920-30	1931-32	1932-33
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
State normal schools.....	108	125	141	128	66	55	50
State teachers colleges.....		2	10	30	125	162	166
City normal schools.....	58	27	81	33	26	21	16
City teachers colleges.....			1	1	3	6	7
Private normal schools.....	43	134	67	60	52	38	68
Private teachers colleges.....			1	6	6	10	11
Total.....	204	288	251	277	278	271	268
County normal schools ²		3	8	95	68	69	81
Grand total, all types.....	204	291	259	372	346	340	349

¹ Data taken in part from U.S. Bureau of Education: Annual Report of the Secretary of the Interior 1890, vol. 5, pt. 2, pp. 1056-1061; Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1890-1900, vol. 2, pp. 2090-2117; 1910, vol. 2, pp. 1104-1125; Statistics of teachers colleges and normal schools, 1910-20, pp. 33-34, 38-42, 54-57, 62-63; 1920-30, pp. 29-31, 37-41, 62-65, 73; Educational directory: 1932, pp. 104-106; 1933, pp. 75-111. Revisions and corrections are made from catalogs and other sources cited under discussions of separate institutions. High-school training classes are excluded when possible.

² Approximate.

³ Reports in 1890 from cities of 4,000 or more population. Probably incomplete.

⁴ 3 in New York City discontinued in February 1933, not included.

⁵ Does not include high-school training classes. Data for both county normal schools and county high-school training classes are incomplete because of inadequate returns and difficulty of classification, and figures given for county normal schools are indicative of growth only.

An idea of the rate of growth of teachers colleges by States and regions may be obtained from table 8. The teachers-college movement has been very largely confined to the present century, and the greatest growth of these institutions has taken place since 1915. Teachers colleges are now well distributed throughout the country, with the Middle West and South most largely represented.

TABLE 8.—Date of legal establishment of teachers colleges, 1897-1931, and their distribution by States and regions¹

State or Territory	Distribution by years																
	1897	1899	1904, 1905	1904, 1907	1906, 1909	1910, 1911	1912, 1913	1914, 1915	1916, 1917	1918, 1919	1920, 1921	1922, 1923	1924, 1925	1926, 1927	1928, 1929	1930, 1931	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
United States.....	1	1	2	5	1	5	2	1	11	10	33	11	16	27	16	5	156
New England division.....											5	1		2	2		10
Middle Atlantic division.....			1							1		1	1	13	3		19
Southern division.....						1			10	10	2	9	6	4	11	4	57
Middle Western division.....	1		1	5	1	3	2	1	1	8	18	1	6	8			66
Western division.....		1				1					8	1	3				14
New England division:																	
Connecticut.....																1	1
Maine.....																1	1
Massachusetts.....											4	1		1			6
New Hampshire.....														1			1
Rhode Island.....														1	1		2

¹ Data secured from statutes, catalogs of institutions, reports to the Office of Education, and correspondence. Teachers colleges in existence in 1931-32 that had actually conferred degrees alone included. Dates when degrees were first conferred used for a few institutions when records of legal establishment are uncertain.

TABLE 8.—Date of legal establishment of teachers colleges, 1897-1931, and their distribution by States and regions—Continued

State or Territory	Distribution by years																	Total
	1897	1899	1904, 1905	1905, 1907	1908, 1909	1910, 1911	1912, 1913	1914, 1915	1916, 1917	1918, 1919	1920, 1921	1922, 1923	1924, 1925	1926, 1927	1928, 1929	1930, 1931		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
Middle Atlantic division:																		
New Jersey.....														2	1			
New York.....			1							1			1					
Pennsylvania.....														11	3			
Southern division:																		
Alabama.....														1	6			
Arkansas.....										1					1			
Georgia.....															1			
Kentucky.....										1		2				1		
Louisiana.....												2		1				
Mississippi.....										1						1		
North Carolina.....												1	1	1	1			
Oklahoma.....											1				1	1		
South Carolina.....										6			2			1		
Tennessee.....						1							1	3				
Texas.....									6	1			1					
Virginia.....												1						
West Virginia.....									4									
Middle Western division:											1	2				1	3	
Illinois.....	3			3														
Indiana.....				2				1						1				
Iowa.....			1		1					1								
Kansas.....																		
Michigan.....	1					2												
Minnesota.....									1	2	1							
Missouri.....											6							
Nebraska.....						1				6	1		1					
North Dakota.....											4							
Ohio.....							2				1		3					
South Dakota.....																		
Wisconsin.....											1							
Western division:											1		2	7	4		10	
Arizona.....																		
California.....											7		2				2	
Colorado.....						1					1		1				7	
New Mexico.....		1										1					3	

Unless radical reversals of former trends occur, it is probable that the number of teachers colleges will increase within the next few years, when economic conditions improve, and as some of the remaining normal schools attain degree-granting status. Some of the weaker arts and science colleges may discontinue secondary-teacher preparation as State certification and accrediting standards are raised, but it is not probable that any considerable number of strong State and private arts and science institutions under present conditions will abandon the field of teacher preparation, for the simple reason that such institutions place possibly two-fifths of their graduates in teaching, and many have built up strong organizations and offerings for teacher preparation.

Allocation of function—that is, the assignment of specific fields of teacher preparation to the several teachers colleges or normal schools of a State, as is partially done in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, and elsewhere—is a definite tendency that may be expected to continue. The elevation of curricula to graduate levels

is another, although if graduate programs are not significantly different from those of the universities, difficulties may ensue. In any case, the establishment of any substantial number of entirely new teacher-preparation institutions appears extremely improbable at the present time.

Control.—Centralized control of State normal schools and teachers colleges is gaining ground. General types of control in 1931 are shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—General types of control of teacher-preparation institutions in 48 States¹⁸

Type of control:	Number of States
No separate teacher-preparing institutions.....	5
State board of education.....	19
State normal school or teachers college board of trustees.....	8
Board of higher education (all higher institutions under one board)....	5
Local institutional boards.....	11

The predominant type is easily seen to be that of control of normal schools and teachers colleges by the State board of education. A centralized State board of normal schools or teachers college trustees is the second most common form of control. Approximately two-thirds of the States that have State normal schools or teachers colleges fall into one or the other of these two types. A recent study of classification and evaluation of different types of control of educational agencies concerned with the preparation of teachers was made by Claude W. Street. His findings supplement those in the above table.²⁰

Professional supervision by the State of teacher preparation and closely related activities has grown steadily during the present century. By 1914-15, more than a half dozen State departments had officers primarily concerned with high-school or county normal teacher-training activities, and their number grew rapidly thereafter.

In 1926, according to Yeuell, 10 States had regular divisions or bureaus of teacher training and 14 others supervised teacher preparation in high schools.²¹ The number of directors of teacher training has since increased. In addition to these officers, nearly all the States have part-time officers, certification clerks, and others who in one way or another exercise some of the duties of this office. The chief interests of the director of training were listed by Yeuell as follows: Certification of teachers, teacher preparation in higher institutions, extension work, teacher preparation in high schools, teachers' insti-

¹⁸ Adapted from Chambers, Merritt W. *The Structure and Legal Status of the Governing Boards of State Institutions of Higher Education in the United States*. Doctor's thesis. Columbus, Ohio, Ohio State University, 1931, pp. 265-337. ms.

²⁰ Street, Claude W. *State Control of Teacher Training in the United States*. Pittsburg, Kans., Kansas State Teachers College, 1932. (Doctor's dissertation.)

²¹ Yeuell, Gladstone H. *The Special Work and the Office of the State Director of Teacher Training*. Doctor's thesis. [Abstract.] University of Cincinnati, 1937. p. 5.

tutes, placement of teachers, reading circle work, administration and supervision of elementary and of high schools, and salary schedules.

Associations of teacher-preparation institutions.—While the influence of the regional accrediting associations, especially the North Central Association, has been and still remains appreciable in the upbuilding of standards of teachers colleges and normal schools as well as of the member colleges and universities, the tendency in the past few years has been for the teachers colleges and normal schools to look more and more to their own distinctive professional organization for guidance.

An important organization antecedent to the American Association of Teachers Colleges was the North Central Council of State Normal School Presidents (1902), which met for a number of years in conjunction with the North Central Association. Joint meetings were begun in 1917 with the Department of Superintendence and the National Council of Education of the National Education Association. At this time, the name of the organization became the National Council of State Normal School Presidents and Principals, later the National Council of Teachers Colleges. The American Association of Teachers Colleges had its first regular session in 1917, and in 1923 merged with the National Council. In 1925, the American Association of Teachers Colleges became a department of the National Education Association, with complete autonomy in matters of primary concern to the former.²² It is now the outstanding group of its particular kind among organizations of teacher-preparation institutions. In 1932-33, the membership list of the association included 190 institutions, and 146 institutions were on the accredited list for 1933-34.

Very little progress was made toward the development of standards for normal schools before the present century, and although discussion of this and related matters was undertaken from time to time, the adoption in 1926 by the association of a report by a committee of which President H. A. Brown was chairman was of greatest significance. Actual accrediting of institutions began in 1927. Each year thereafter until 1933, the standards were changed and refined, with the idea of perfecting their expression, caring for unforeseen conditions that inevitable arose in their application, and above all, stimulating the weaker or more individualistic institutions to elevate the general level of their work or direct it toward more commonly approved practices. Goals set in the standards were advancing, and not fixed. Illustrative changes in the standards between 1926 and 1932 include heightening of requirements for the staff, adoption of regulations in respect to the amount of work that may be taken for credit by students in extension and correspondence courses, improve-

²² History of the American Association of Teachers Colleges. In American Association of Teachers Colleges. Yearbooks, 1922, p. 14; 1923, pp. 9-17, 24, 27.

ment of library facilities, amount of student teaching to be provided, and methods of accrediting or listing member institutions.

Several other organizations of workers in the preparation of teachers have been established, some within the last few years. Outstanding among such groups are: The National Society of College Teachers of Education (1902), the National Association of Municipal Teachers Colleges, Normal Schools, and Training Schools (1915), Supervisors of Student Teaching (1920), Eastern-States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers, the National Association of Deans of Colleges of Education, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Training and Certification, and others. All of these bodies except the Eastern-States Association meet in conjunction with the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Increase in financial support.—An extraordinary increase in the receipts of teachers colleges and normal schools has occurred during the present century. The total receipts of all teacher-preparation institutions, public and private, increased from \$5,236,856 in 1899-1900 to \$69,983,932 in 1929-30. Between one-fourth and one-third of these amounts were for increase of plant.²³

There has been a moderate increase in student fees and occasionally in tuition rates in State institutions, but increases in fees have not much more than covered the added costs of special facilities provided as the institutions have grown in size. The greatest single amount of revenue, of course, has come from the State. Nineteen teachers colleges received Federal Smith-Hughes funds in 1929-30. The total amount of endowment funds in 1929-30 was \$24,392,741.²⁴

The total value of buildings and grounds as reported by the State normal schools and teachers colleges increased from \$23,061,077 in 1899-1900 to \$157,346,001 in 1929-30. This increase signifies much expansion and improvement of individual institutional plants. In 1890, the housing facilities of only the larger normal schools were beginning to include, in addition to the typical "main" building of previous years, a campus training school and sometimes dormitories and other types of buildings. Today, separate buildings found in 3 or more of 15 selected teachers colleges and normal schools are as follows, approximately in order of frequency: Administration, or main building; campus training school; dormitories for women, or for men; heating plant; gymnasium, or physical education and health unit; library; science building; industrial arts, or education, or home economics building; auditorium; music hall or conservatory; social center or student clubhouse or union; dining hall or cafeteria; and president's residence. The typical size of campus in these insti-

²³ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30.* U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. pp. 54-57. (Bulletin 1931, no. 20.)

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

tutions is from 30 to 35 acres, not including occasional farms. Taking into consideration the specialized nature and needs of the teachers colleges, it may now be said that they compare favorably in respect to plant with typical 4-year arts and science colleges.

LENGTHENING AND DIFFERENTIATION OF CURRICULA

Four-year curricula were not uncommon in 1890, but they began at a point typically not much above elementary-school graduation. Today, admission to the vast majority of curricula is based upon 4-year high-school graduation, and the majority of State-supported teacher-preparation institutions have 4-year curricula. Thus there has been a substantial and noteworthy elevation of normal-school curricula, made possible in part by the extraordinary development of the high school. A significant "lengthening" of curricula has come about in comparatively recent years as short 1-, 2-, and 3-year curricula beginning with high-school graduation have been successively eliminated, and 4-year curricula introduced.

Admission requirements to normal schools at the beginning of the period typically demanded little more than ability to pass simple examinations on elementary-school subject matter. Massachusetts in 1894 required high-school graduation or its equivalent for admission. Rapid advancement followed elsewhere as high schools grew in numbers, and as they duplicated more and more the secondary-school offerings in normal schools. By 1905, Gwinn found that only about half of 50 normal schools he studied admitted students with no high-school work to the regular normal-school curricula. Twenty-eight percent of the institutions required high-school graduation.²⁵

There was considerable flexibility, however, in the administration of entrance requirements, and admission in one way or another was denied to few applicants. By 1918, 108 out of 168 normal schools reported to the Bureau of Education that they required high-school graduation for entrance to teacher-preparation curricula, and a number of the other institutions had almost reached that standard. Within the past decade, practically all normal schools and teachers colleges have reached the standard of high-school graduation or equivalent for admission. The next question in the elevation of admission requirements, in a few States at least, is whether or not completion of the freshman and junior college years (junior college or lower division work) may not be required for admission to professional curricula or courses.

Studies made by Gwinn and by Walk show the steady disappearance in the period between 1895 and 1914 of 1-, 2-, and 3-year normal school courses of study beginning with graduation from elementary school.

²⁵ Gwinn, Joseph M. *Tendencies in the Entrance Requirements of State Normal Schools*. *Education*, 36: 223-237, December, 1907.

Such surprisingly low levels of work still persisted in a few institutions as late as 1914, and 4-year courses of study beginning with elementary-school graduation were quite common. However, courses of study of varying lengths based upon graduation from 3-year and 4-year high schools were established at a growing rate in the eighteen nineties and thereafter. Eventually graduation from 3-year high schools was eliminated as qualification for entering regular institutional curricula, and graduation from 4-year high schools was required, though sub-collegiate, prenormal, or preparatory courses of study of 4, 3, 2, or 1 year in length continued to be offered until comparatively recent years. Most of the normal schools have introduced 4-year curricula and become teachers colleges, though still retaining short collegiate curricula of 1 year, 2 years, or 3 years. Short curricula are now being rapidly eliminated as demands for teachers with 4 years of work increase and work above 4 years' college graduation is being introduced.

The great majority of elementary teachers, of course, still enter teaching with less than 4 years' work; hence it is not surprising to find that of 140 teachers colleges reporting in 1930, 61 retained 1-year curricula, one hundred and twenty one 2-year curricula, and fifty 3-year curricula. All the 65 normal schools offered short curricula of varying lengths. Only about a dozen teachers colleges did not report short curricula in 1930, but the number that has eliminated such curricula has increased since that time.²⁵

The growth of graduate work is still in its early stages in the teachers colleges, but its continuance appears certain. Ten teachers colleges conferred the master's degree in 1931 upon 170 men and 237 women. In 1933, 16 teachers colleges reported the offering of graduate work.

Differentiation of curricula has accompanied their elevation, lengthening, and enrichment. Ruediger, Walk, and Napier showed the numbers of curricula to average roughly, per institution, 3.3 in 1895, 4 in 1905, 5.5 in 1914, and 6.8 in 1926. The average per institution is undoubtedly greater today.

Differentiation of courses of study for elementary teachers has proceeded in certain special directions. In normal schools such curricula are relatively short. It is impossible to crowd into 2 years sufficient general and special work for all types of elementary grade teachers. Hence, specialization of work on the basis of kindergarten, primary, intermediate, upper grade or junior high school, and rural school work has been undertaken. Authoritative advocacy of this practice was made in the Missouri survey in 1914.²⁷ The influence of the pro-

²⁵ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30.* U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. pp. 50-53, 68. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

²⁷ Learned, William S., and Bagley, William C. *Curricula Designed for the Professional Preparation of Teachers for the American Public Schools.* Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. 1917. Unpagged. Sect. 3 and 4.

nouncements of authorities in this survey, notably by Bagley, has been felt in most of the teacher-preparation institutions of this country.

Special curricula for the preparation of rural teachers have been advocated with some vehemence in the past, and the necessity of genuine adaptation of normal school and teachers college courses and curricula to meet the special needs of rural teachers is still acknowledged.

In recent years, considerable interest has been manifested and some progress made in establishing programs of selective admission, especially in municipal normal schools and teachers colleges, and in some of the State institutions in the Eastern and Middle Atlantic States, where conditions of teacher oversupply have become especially marked. Some colleges and universities also require for admission to the school of education or to student teaching the attainment of scholarship marks above the usual minimum for college entrance.

ENRICHMENT OF CONTENT: DEVELOPMENT OF NEW COURSES

Throughout the entire period the ideal of a 4-year college education for all teachers has been increasingly set before employing officials. Further, a demand has arisen for the selection and organization of instructional materials presented to prospective teachers in college, to the end that the actual needs and capabilities of children may be given more recognition in the classroom. In addition, the results of the best among hundreds of careful investigations in professional education ought to be utilized in classroom teaching, and in the construction of curricula. Hence the use of what is termed "professionalized subject matter" has been more frequently advocated, and some gains have been made in this direction. The whole idea of selecting, vitalizing, reorganizing, and teaching subject matter with the needs of teachers in mind contains so many elements of sound intent that informed judgment and good instructional practice in the future can scarcely avoid approving and forwarding many characteristic features of the idea.

Fully as striking as the development of general academic and technical subject matter during the period is the growth in quality and quantity of courses in education and psychology. The embryonic courses listed during the preceding period have been greatly changed in content and terminology, and vastly enriched by scientific study of educational problems, by experimentation, by the contributions of educational philosophy and theory, and by the organization of materials as the result of careful study and collection of the results of promising classroom practices.

Ruediger found the professional subjects most commonly offered in 51 normal schools in 1895 and 1905 to be, in order of frequency in the

latter year: History of education, psychology, practice teaching, pedagogy, school management, methods and reviews, and child study. The amount of time given to practice teaching and the number of institutions offering it were increasing, and the number of institutions offering psychology, history of education, and school management was also increasing. The other subjects mentioned were decreasing in numbers or merely holding their own.

In 1914, the most common professional subjects found by Judd and Parker in 13 selected State normal schools in order of frequency were: Practice teaching or observation, history of education, psychology, school management, child study, principles of teaching, educational psychology, and general method.

For obvious reasons the above attempt to classify the wide variety of courses under subject heads is indicative only. The offerings of today are even more difficult to classify; but some indication of changing emphases may be given. The old omnibus courses entitled pedagogy or science and art of teaching have practically gone out of existence. Observation and student teaching are universally offered in the teachers colleges and normal schools, and quite commonly in other institutions that prepare teachers. Educational psychology is now probably the most frequently taught among the professional courses; and closely related courses, such as child study and tests and measurements, are common. General psychology, usually taught as a subject preparatory to educational psychology, still ranks high. History of education has changed considerably in nature and no longer occupies its previous high place in order of frequency. Courses in school administration and school supervision have been broken up somewhat into specialized courses under different titles. School management, principles of education, and principles of teaching, introduction to education or to teaching, educational philosophy, special methods courses in considerable variety, rural education, educational sociology, and the curriculum are among the other professional courses in modern teachers college and normal school curricula. Courses have become greatly specialized, particularly in large institutions; and there is much confusion in terminology and a great deal of overlapping among courses.

OBSERVATION, STUDENT TEACHING, AND THE TRAINING SCHOOL

Housing facilities for the training schools have greatly improved during the period. At the close of the past century, pupils in the training classes were housed typically either in a few rooms of the normal school main building or in nearby public schools. The rooms provided in the main building were rarely designed for the use of school children. Today, separate campus training school buildings are commonly provided. Attention is directed more and more to

planning and provision of classroom features that lend themselves most effectively to the purposes for which the training-school buildings are constructed.²⁸

In 1899-1900, the approximate average number of pupils reported enrolled in the campus and off-campus practice schools was 116 per normal school. In 1909-10, the average was 251 per normal school or teachers college, and in 1929-30, 274.²⁹ Thus the growth in the last 20 years has not been very great. Most of the teacher-preparation institutions are located in relatively small towns or cities. The provision of practice facilities proportionate in size to the number of student teachers has become increasingly expensive, and sometimes impossible. Normal schools and teachers colleges during the first half of the period maintained secondary school units, but they were used chiefly for preparation of students who desired admission to regular college-grade curricula. Later these units were used for practice. In 1927-28 nearly one-third of the practice pupils of teachers colleges were in high-school grades.³⁰

Ruediger, in a study of the 1895 and 1905 catalogs of 38 normal schools, found that the number of weeks devoted to student teaching increased from 27.5 to 30.2. Walk found that the median number of "hours" devoted to practice work in 23 institutions increased from 160.5 in 1905 to 180.3 in 1915. The older normal schools appear to have stressed student teaching more in proportion than the modern teachers colleges. At present, standards of the American Association of Teachers Colleges require a minimum of 90 clock-hours; the median amount actually offered is higher. The median number of clock-hours of student teaching in 1930-31 reported to the Office of Education was 135 in 4-year curricula, and 111 in 2-year curricula; the median amount reported for the State normal schools was 180 hours. City normal schools have led all other types of institutions throughout the period in amounts of student teaching required; in 1930-31, the median amount reported was 192 clock-hours.³¹

The extent of changes in progressive thinking relating to student teaching and the training school during the period may be deduced from a comparison of the ideas and proposals made in a report in 1899, a generation ago, by the committee on normal schools, appointed in 1895 by the department of normal schools of the National

²⁸ Altstetter, Michael L. *The Elementary Training School Building*. George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930. pp. 89-94. (Contributions to Education, no. 67.)

²⁹ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30*. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. pp. 1, 8. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.) See also preceding reports for the years indicated.

³⁰ U.S. Bureau of Education. *Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1927-28*. (Advance sheets.) Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1927-28. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1929. p. 12. (Bulletin, 1929, no. 14.)

³¹ U.S. Office of Education. Unpublished data compiled from returns to the Office of Education of teachers colleges and normal schools, 1930-31.

Educational Association. The section on training schools was prepared by Dr. Frank McMurry and President Z. X. Snyder.

2. In comparison with other lines of work in a normal school, actual teaching is capable of ranking as the most valuable course for the student, for it furnishes, at the same time, both theory and practice * * *
3. The training school in a State normal school should contain a kindergarten as well as the eight grades * * *
4. The number of children intrusted to a beginning student teacher should be small, approximately 10 to 12 * * *
5. The number of children in a grade might well be approximately 40, as in public schools, these being divided into 2 groups of different advancement * * *
6. The training school should be practically, under the control of the normal-school authorities to such an extent that the latter can formulate a curriculum, select textbooks, choose and dismiss teachers, determine methods, and in general administer the affairs of the school according to their own best judgment * * *
9. Heads of departments in the normal school should be supervisors, in fact, of their subjects in the training school * * *
11. There should be at least one critic teacher to each grade room * * *
12. This critic teacher should (a) instruct her children a considerable portion of the time; at least, no class should be turned over wholly to student teachers * * *
14. Presupposing good and close criticism on the part of the critic teacher, the minimum amount of instruction given by a student teacher should not be less than 1 recitation period per day for 1 year * * *
15. No normal school should accept so many students that it cannot give this minimum amount of student teaching. In other words, the size of the training school should be one of the most important factors in limiting the size of a normal school * * *
16. Some observation work should precede actual instruction on the part of any student teacher * * *
17. This observation, however, is comparatively worthless, unless it is supervised and discussed with the same care as the actual teaching of a student teacher * * *
19. The observation suggested in paragraph 17 is a regular course of study, aside from the observations that students may be called upon to make by professors in the normal school who illustrate their theories through classes of children from the training school. Of course, however, this latter work is highly desirable * * *
21. After a sufficient amount of observation students should be allowed to begin their practice teaching along lines of their greatest strength * * *
22. They should be allowed to specialize to some extent in kindergarten work, in primary or grammar grades, but not fully * * *
23. If possible, the student teacher should have full charge of a room for a few weeks, but usually not until he has somewhat accustomed himself to teaching and has proved his efficiency in some one study * * *
28. The training school should be the correlating center of any normal school * * *

29. * * * It is recommended that such relations with the city schools be sought as will enable those student teachers who have successfully completed the major part of their training to serve as unpaid assistants under conditions which will render such services mutually profitable * * *

Most authorities of today will probably take fundamental exception to only a few of the foregoing statements.

CHANGING THEORIES AND METHODOLOGY

From the beginning of the present period, educational theory and methodology, as well as teacher-preparation curricula, have been subject to new emphases. Early in the period, a new conception of the place of habit and drill in instruction was expressed or implied in the psychology of James, and by American disciples of Wundt. Herbartian methodology through its systematic teaching procedures, formal steps, and new theories concerning apperception, led to new emphases lasting well into the beginning of the present century. The social theories of Spencer, and most important of all, of Dewey, forwarded the conception of education for the activities of social life by participation of pupils in such activities during the period of schooling itself. Finally, the rise of scientific methods of research applied to education, illustrated by the work of Thorndike and his followers, has altered many aspects of classroom instruction, including the content of elementary subject matter and the methods of instruction. It has also led to new emphases in educational philosophy.

STAFF AND STUDENTS

Staff.—The average size of the institutional staff doubled between 1910 and 1930. In the latter year, the average number of faculty members in all types of teachers colleges and normal schools was 44.²³

The academic and professional preparation of the staff as a whole has increased with comparative rapidity. Ruediger found that, while the levels of preparation had risen during the decade of 1895-1905, more than half the staff in 1905 did not have degrees of any kind.²⁴ This fact throws some light upon the objection at that time to the transformation of normal schools into teachers colleges. In 1914, Judd and Parker found that in 32 normal schools reporting to the North Central Association, the average percent of faculty members with the doctor's degree was 7; with the master's degree, 31. In comparison, they found that in 63 colleges and universities, the aver-

²³ Snyder, Z. K., ch. Report of the Committee on Normal Schools. In National Educational Association. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses. pp. 848-854. The University of Chicago Press, 1899.

²⁴ Derived from U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1910, vol. 2, pp. 1080, 1082; U.S. Office of Education. Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. p. 9.

²⁵ Ruediger, William C. Tendencies in Normal Schools. Educational Review, 33: 273, March 1907.

age percent of doctors was 34, and of masters, 67.²⁵ Mosher in 1923, and Hendricks in a study covering the years 1917 and 1926, found a steady rise in staff qualifications. Cook (1930) in a study based upon transcripts of college credits of faculty members pointed out that preparation of staff members in a given institution differed materially, and that teachers of special subjects were particularly lacking in graduate education. However, it may now be fairly stated that the master's degree or equivalent represents roughly the preparation of the typical teachers college staff member, and that the number who possess the doctorate is rapidly increasing.

The increase until 1931 in staff salaries, the flood of young Ph.D.'s who are seeking teaching positions in higher institutions, the efforts made by normal schools to meet college standards, and the influence of rising standards of accrediting associations are some of the causes for the steady increase in staff qualifications.

In 1914, Judd and Parker found that the teaching load of staff members in most normal schools was more than 18 hours per week. Today, the standard does not exceed 16 hours for nonlaboratory work; and the actual number of hours taught is somewhat less.

Salaries of staff members increased materially between 1915 and 1931, and probably increases were under way before 1915. Presidents' salaries, on an average, increased from \$3,578 in 1915-16 to \$6,000 in 1930-31; professors, from \$1,938 to \$3,000 (9 months' work); and supervising teachers (critics) from \$1,075 to \$1,990 (9 months' work).²⁶ These figures would be lowered if the decreased purchasing power of the dollar were calculated; it must be remembered also that teachers at present must undergo more preparation to secure the salaries paid. Salaries of teachers college staff members now compare favorably with those in denominational and small private colleges, but do not equal those paid in the State universities. The salaries of critics or supervising teachers as a rule do not exceed the salaries of elementary teachers of comparable experience and training in large city school systems.

Students.—Trends since 1870 in the growth of numbers of students preparing to teach in all types of normal schools and teachers colleges are shown in table 10. This table does not include certain students in some of the institutions who definitely were not preparing to teach, such as those in premedical, and other courses. The number of such students, amounting at present to about 5 percent of the entire number, appears to be slowly decreasing. There has been a sevenfold or eightfold increase since 1890 in the total enrollment of all teacher-preparation institutions, although enrollments have tended to decrease in recent years. While the long-time increase is partially due to the

²⁵ Judd, Charles H., and Parker, Samuel O. *Problems Involved in Standardizing State Normal Schools*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1916. p. 17. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin 1916, no. 12.)

²⁶ U.S. Office (Bureau) of Education. *Mimeographed reports*.

establishment of new institutions, enrollments in each institution have also greatly expanded. Shifts in classifications of enrollments of teachers colleges and normal schools have been great, as the normal schools were transformed into teachers colleges. Nearly four-fifths of all the students are enrolled in teachers colleges, a striking commentary on the rapid increase in the relative importance of the 4-year institutions. The majority of teachers-college students, however, still enter upon teaching at the conclusion of short 1-, 2-, or 3-year curricula, although again the relative number of such curricula is rapidly decreasing. Enrollments of private normal schools have fluctuated considerably, but the number today is roughly the same as in 1889-90. The number of students in county normal schools has decreased since 1919-20, and the number of institutions likewise. The city normal school and teachers-college enrollments have increased slowly since 1919, despite a decrease in the number of institutions.

TABLE 10.—Distribution of regular-year and summer-session resident enrollments, by types of institutions and sex of students preparing for teaching in normal schools and teachers colleges.

Type of institutions	1869-70		1870-80		1880-90		1890-1900		1904-5		1900-10		1914-15		1919-20		1923-28		1929-30	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
All normal schools and teachers colleges																				
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	19	11	13	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Number of institutions.....	81		220		178		305		263		294		273		271		402		231	
Men.....	1,530	33	9,262	41	13,318	30	24,167	25	15,964	24	19,746	22	19,978	20	18,110	14	54,221	20	54,123	20
Women.....	3,176	67	13,291	59	21,122	61	44,394	55	40,345	76	68,815	78	50,347	80	116,308	86	215,985	80	210,134	80
Total.....	4,715	100	22,553	100	34,440	100	68,561	100	56,309	100	88,561	100	100,325	100	134,415	100	270,206	100	264,257	100
Teachers colleges																				
Number of institutions.....																				
Men.....																				
Women.....																				
Total.....																				
State normal schools																				
Number of institutions.....																				
Men.....																				
Women.....																				
Total.....																				
Private normal schools																				
Number of institutions.....																				
Men.....																				
Women.....																				
Total.....																				

County and city normal schools											
Number of institutions.....											
Men.....	20	31	40	60	128	133	73				
Women.....	146	92	241	319	708	1,032	916				
Total.....	4,444	5,046	7,423	7,794	11,788	14,065	11,409				
County normal schools											
Number of institutions.....											
Men.....											
Women.....											
Total.....											
City normal schools											
Number of institutions.....											
Men.....											
Women.....											
Total.....											

Derived from U. S. Bureau of Education (now Office of Education), Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Education, 1970, pp. 528-27; 1980, pp. 494-47; 472-26; 1989-90, pp. 1020-23; 1024-41; 1910, pp. 1075 ff. U. S. Office of Education, Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30. U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 8. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

* Includes teachers colleges before 1919-20.

* Includes 274 students not distributed by sex.

* Reports incomplete.

The percent of women students increased from 61 to 86 between 1890 and 1920; but the percent has decreased to 80 since 1920. Teaching has appealed to men to a greater extent as salaries have increased and as the teachers colleges have undertaken more and more the preparation of secondary teachers and school administrators, and have attained the prestige and provided the curriculum and extra-curricular activities characteristic of the colleges and universities.

At the present time, as throughout the history of teacher preparation, the economic and social background of teachers-college students represents a fair cross section of the entire population of the country that is gainfully employed.³⁷ Higher standards of living and better cultural opportunities have, of course, characterized American-middle-class life throughout the period. The selective admission of students has become somewhat more marked in recent years. Standards of admission to the institutions are higher, and the preparation demanded of teachers in relation to that of other workers has increased. Probably there has been a proportionate improvement in the social and economic background of students beyond the general improvement.³⁸ Nevertheless, the institutions have much to do to build up social and cultural deficiencies among a very considerable body of students whose home environment and early opportunities are measurably neglected. This is evident when one considers the fact that the income of the father of a typical teachers-college student was probably around \$2,305 in 1929.³⁹

About half the teachers-college students in six States studied by Whitney in 1925 came to the institutions from a distance of 50 to 100 miles.⁴⁰ The geographical area of service to students by a typical teachers college is therefore distinctly limited.

Coincident with the increase of student enrollments, the growing emphasis upon desirable personal traits in teaching and the increased ability of institutions to pay for the necessary housing facilities and staff personnel essential in advancing student welfare, improved facilities for the upbuilding of other than purely scholastic abilities have been provided more and more by the teachers colleges and normal schools. Dormitories have grown in numbers, although typically they still do not house a large proportion of the entire student body. Provisions for health and physical welfare have increasingly been provided. The offices of dean of men and dean of women have been established in a growing number of teachers colleges and normal

³⁷ Moffett, M' Ledge. *The Social Background and Activities of Teachers College Students*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. p. 19. (Contributions to Education No. 375.)

³⁸ Whitney, Frederick. *The Social and Economic Background of State Teachers College Students*. Colorado State Teachers College, 1925. p. 19. (Colorado State Teachers College Research Bulletin No. 11.)

³⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

schools, and are now to be found in most of the institutions. More and more, institutional provisions have been coordinated with the intent that the broader education of teachers may proceed effectively outside as well as inside the classroom.

TABLE 11.—*Enrollments and degrees conferred in universities, colleges, and professional schools, 1890-1930*¹

Item	1890	1900	1910	1920	1928	1930
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STUDENTS						
Preparatory departments:						
Men.....	29,530	34,814	42,616	38,398	30,206	27,766
Women.....	22,219	21,471	23,426	20,911	20,382	19,543
Total.....	51,749	56,285	66,042	59,309	50,588	47,309
Collegiate departments:						
Men.....	44,650	68,047	113,074	212,405	402,242	441,985
Women.....	20,624	36,061	61,139	128,677	292,977	311,842
Total.....	65,274	104,098	174,213	341,082	695,219	753,827
Graduate departments:						
Men.....	1,973	4,112	6,504	9,837	26,540	29,070
Women.....	409	1,719	2,866	5,775	17,625	18,185
Total.....	2,382	5,831	9,370	15,612	44,165	47,255
Professional departments:						
Men.....	32,034	55,926	68,569	53,295	93,639	92,786
Women.....	977	2,144	5,689	3,836	5,783	5,265
Total.....	33,011	58,070	74,257	57,131	99,424	98,041
Total number, excluding duplicates:						
Men.....	119,860	162,899	227,995	334,226	563,244	604,243
Women.....	53,831	61,385	104,701	187,528	356,137	367,341
Total.....	173,691	224,284	332,696	521,754	919,381	971,584
Students in certain engineering courses.....	1,195	11,416	23,241	38,908	44,209	47,020
DEGREES CONFERRED						
Baccalaureate:						
Men.....		9,547	15,267	23,272	45,912	51,160
Women.....		4,471	7,420	15,290	37,153	40,463
Total.....		14,018	22,687	38,562	83,065	91,623
Professional:						
Men.....				8,272	18,966	18,846
Women.....				502	951	942
Total.....				8,774	19,917	19,788
Graduate:						
Men.....		1,628	1,939	3,457	8,976	10,693
Women.....		324	602	1,396	4,858	6,139
Total.....		1,952	2,541	4,853	13,834	16,832
Honorary.....		735	679	989	1,245	1,347
Ph.D. degree, on examination:						
Men.....		332	365	439	1,249	1,692
Women.....		20	44	93	198	332
Total.....		352	409	532	1,447	2,024
	126					

¹ Taken from U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools, 1929-30*. pp. 18-19.

CHANGING STATUS OF SPECIAL-TYPE TEACHER-PREPARATION INSTITUTIONS

City normal schools.—City normal schools have decreased steadily in numbers during the period, as the States more and more have assumed the function of teacher preparation. The flood tide in numbers of city training schools and training classes was approaching its height in 1890, but the greatest ebb in numbers did not come until nearly a quarter of a century later. In 1914, Manny showed that all cities with a population of 300,000 or more, except one, and four-fifths of those having a population of more than 100,000 maintained normal or training schools in connection with their public-school systems.⁴¹ In 1930-31, only about one-fifth of the 94 cities of this country having a population of 100,000 or more maintained municipally supported teacher-preparation institutions. Only 12 of the 25 cities having a population of 300,000 or more maintained them. The total number of institutions had shrunk by 1934 to 19. Six of these were teachers colleges, all but one of which (Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Mo.) were legally established since 1920.

Chief causes for the decline in numbers of city normal schools include the growth of State and private teacher-preparation institutions, temporary lack of city school funds, decline in number of local teachers needed, and objections to local staff inbreeding.

Just as the State normal schools, which once operated more or less apart from the general scheme of higher education of the several States, have now become an integral part of such systems, so have the municipal institutions become subject to more than local forces. Occasional ebbs in the taxable income of the cities have led to many casualties among the city institutions, which are directly and immediately subject to city needs and ability to pay. In addition, they must now face not only local fluctuations in demand for new teachers, but also the broader fluctuations in the balance between State needs for teachers and the output of State and private institutions which prepare them.

High-school training classes and county normal schools.—The present century has witnessed a marked rise and decline in high-school training classes. The preparation of teachers as a subordinate function of the academies, and later of the high schools, has long accompanied the development of teacher preparation; but now that the education of teachers has become very largely a function of collegiate and not of secondary institutions, the high-school training classes are disappearing. Within the past decade or two more than half the States were preparing teachers in the secondary schools, but so rapidly have curriculum levels been heightened, that now only seven

⁴¹ Manny, Frank A. *City Training Schools for Teachers*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1914, pp. 145-149. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1914, no. 47.)

States maintain such units. Only two States—Michigan and Wisconsin—retain the county normal school, a unit that conducts work in teacher education usually for a year above high-school graduation.

Private and denominational normal schools.—Table 10 shows that the number of private normal schools reporting has decreased decidedly. Competition of State institutions has driven many of them out of existence. Only 9 private teachers colleges and 28 private normal schools reported to the Office of Education in 1934. Most of the institutions reported in table 10 are nonsectarian, and prepare teachers for specialized teaching positions only, such as kindergarten or physical education work. Nine of the institutions have become teachers colleges within comparatively recent years.

Teacher-preparation programs conducted by the church have been developed to the largest extent in recent years by the Roman Catholics.⁴² In addition to the usual difficulties encountered when only private support is available, these institutions have faced the twofold problem of enabling the Sisters to complete both their own prescribed religious work and the full normal school course. Since the Sisters may and often do teach for life, in-service education is particularly fruitful for them, and in-service preparation has accordingly assumed much importance in the church program.

The development of programs of teacher preparation by the individual dioceses has been outstanding in recent years. For example, Ohio with its establishment of a normal school for Catholic Sisters in each of its four dioceses, has done much to assist the State department of education in raising standards. Under direct control of the bishop, the diocesan teachers colleges function in organic unity with parish school systems, and are attended by members of the religious teaching communities and also by secular candidates for teaching positions in Catholic schools.

The preparation of 10,666 religious teachers in Catholic parochial elementary and high schools, about one-fifth the entire number in this country in 1927, was studied by Schmitz.⁴³ The teachers studied received their preparation in approximately 125 different institutions, many of which were not conducted by the church.

Normal schools for Negroes.—The Negro population of the United States grew from 7,488,676 in 1890 to 11,891,143 in 1930, a growth of a little more than a million per decade. The increases in public-school enrollments and enrollments in teacher-preparation institutions for Negroes proportionately have exceeded the increase in population. In 1933, there were 9 State teachers colleges for Negroes, 2 city

⁴² Hagan, John R. *The Diocesan Teachers College*. Doctor's dissertation. Catholic University of America, 1932. p. 11.

Blodgett, James H. *Parochial Schools*. In U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1894-95*. vol. 2. p. 1670. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1896.

⁴³ Schmitz, Sylvester. *The Adjustment of Teacher Training to Modern Educational Needs*. Doctor's dissertation. Catholic University of America, 1927. p. 18-20, 39.

teachers colleges, 1 private teachers college, 7 State normal schools, 2 city normal schools, and 2 private normal schools, a total of 23 institutions. It should be said that the classification of some of these institutions is very difficult, since most of the institutions have from their beginnings served many of the general purposes of colleges and secondary schools. Many among the total number of 82 higher institutions in this country primarily for Negroes also prepare candidates for teaching. Among these are 17 land-grant colleges for Negroes.

The number of Negro students reported to the Commissioner of Education by normal schools and teachers colleges for Negroes in 1895-96 was 3,793; in 1929-30, 16,577.⁴⁴ There were many other prospective teachers, of course, in colleges and universities.

While the States have taken over much of the work of teacher preparation for Negro schools, much credit is due church and private philanthropic endeavor throughout the period for the general up-building of Negro education in the South, and incidentally of teacher preparation. Among the important organizations or agencies engaged in such work have been the Freedmen's Aid Society, the American Missionary Association, the John F. Slater Fund, the Peabody Fund, the Board of Missions for Freedmen of the Presbyterian Church, and others. In recent years well-known groups such as the General Education Board, Rosenwald Fund, the Negro Rural School Fund established in 1907 by Anna T. Jeannes, the Phelps-Stokes Fund (1909), and a number of others have also contributed to the work.

On the whole, the period has been one of outstanding progress in Negro education, but its status still affords opportunities for much-needed advancement. In such advancement, the normal schools and teachers colleges must play an important part.

GROWTH OF TEACHER PREPARATION IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The entire number of colleges and universities reporting to the Bureau of Education in 1889-90 was 415. The number in 1933-34 was 654. In addition, 257 normal schools and teachers colleges, 352 2-year junior colleges, and 203 independent professional schools reported, a total of 1,466 institutions.⁴⁵

A very large growth of enrollments in practically every unit except the preparatory departments is shown in table 11. The total number of students enrolled in 1930 in the colleges and universities—

⁴⁴ U.S. Bureau of Education. (Now Office of Education.) Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1895-96. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1897. p. 1872, 1880.

U.S. Office of Education. Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-30. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. pp. 29, 46-49, 66-67, 74-75. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

⁴⁵ U.S. Office of Education. Educational Directory, 1934. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1934 pp. 76-111. (Bulletin, 1934, no. 1.)

971,584—was much greater than the number enrolled in the high schools in 1890.

At present, the ratio of public to private degree-granting colleges and universities is approximately 1 to 6, but the private institutions are smaller on the average than the public colleges and universities. Enrollments in publicly-supported institutions are increasing more rapidly than in private institutions, and the number of women is increasing much more rapidly than the number of men.⁴⁶

Growth of departments, schools, and colleges of education.—In 1889-90, 114 colleges and universities in a total of approximately 400 reported to the Commissioner of Education that they had students enrolled in courses primarily for teachers. Nearly 8 percent of the total enrollment of the 400 institutions were reported to be studying in the teachers courses, or in normal and pedagogical departments. Most of the students were enrolled in secondary or normal department work. It will be recalled that possibly less than a dozen regular college-grade teacher-preparation departments of education had been established in 1890. Within 6 years, at least 17 more had been established. Typically, these units were little more than 1-man departments, but they did not long remain so.

Graduate work in education was introduced at the University of the City of New York (New York University) in 1890, when a school of pedagogy was established "to give higher training to persons who may have devoted themselves to teaching as their calling." The degrees of master of pedagogy and doctor of pedagogy were conferred after the completion of a minimum of 1 year and 2 years of work, respectively. Courses of study and offerings announced for 1891-92 included history of education and philosophy, educational psychology, methodology, and applied pedagogy, the literature of education, pure psychology and ethics, and the thesis.⁴⁷

Teachers College, Columbia University, opened as the College for the Training of Teachers in 1887,⁴⁸ represented the confluence of two movements; the provision of means for instruction in, and the preparation of teachers for, work in manual training, domestic economy, and industrial arts; and the establishment of the study of education as a professional subject.⁴⁹ A single indication of the influence of this institution in teacher preparation is secured from the fact that roughly one-fifth of the staff members in normal schools and teachers

⁴⁶ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools, 1920-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-30.* U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 7. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

⁴⁷ University of the City of New York, New York, N.Y. *Catalog and announcements, 1890-91.* pp. 128-133.

⁴⁸ [Teachers College, Columbia University] Industrial Education Association. *College for the Training of Teachers.* p. 6. (Circular of information, 1888.)

⁴⁹ Hervey, Walter L. *Historical Sketch of Teachers College from its Foundation to 1897.* *Teachers College Record*, 1: 19-20. January 1900.

colleges have had at least a part of their preparation in Teachers College.⁵⁰

In 1899-1900, the number of pedagogical departments, using the term "departments" as employed by the institutions themselves, had grown to 24. Normal departments of secondary grade, while much more numerous, soon decreased in numbers. In 1910, 156 heads of departments, or professors of pedagogy, were listed in the Educational Directory. The college departments of pedagogy were enlarging their offerings, and were growing much larger in numbers, staffs, and enrollments. In 1932, 593 heads of departments of education and deans of schools or colleges of education were listed in the Educational Directory.

At first, the departments of education were largely appanages of older subject-matter departments, and were staffed largely by former teachers in regular college departments, or by former public-school officials who had achieved professional reputation. The increase in size of the departments of education and the growth of their influence in the universities and colleges continued despite indifference and some forthright opposition.

Schools and colleges of education began to evolve from departments of education early in the period, but their most marked growth has occurred during the past 2 decades. By 1905, Teachers College, Columbia University; the School of Education at the University of Chicago; Teachers College at the University of Missouri, and perhaps a College of Education at the University of Texas had been established.⁵¹ In 1933, the Educational Directory listed more than 100 schools or colleges of education.

Reasons for the growth of departments and schools of education are numerous. The demands for better-prepared high-school teachers in greater numbers; the phenomenal development of instructional material in professional education; rising State certification requirements; extension of the activities of the departments into research, extension, and other fields; increased material resources of the institutions; local leadership; demands of students and public-school authorities; and other causes may be mentioned. The local attitude of institutional authorities and faculties toward the place of such units in the organization of the institution has also been an important conditioning factor. In all but a very few cases, the departments or colleges are dependent units of the institution as a whole. Functioning as a part of the larger institution, the support and degree of freedom of such units vary greatly and their growth is often decidedly

⁵⁰ Russell, William F. Report of the Dean of Teachers College for the Academic Year Ending June 30, 1931. Teachers College Record, 32: 207-208. December 1931.

⁵¹ Holmes, Manfred J. The Present Provision for the Education and Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States. In National Society for the Scientific Study of Education. Fourth yearbook, 1905. Pt. 1, p. 69. University of Chicago Press, 1905.

limited. As a rule, the leading or most progressive teacher-preparation units have been accorded by general institutional officers increasing scope to work out their own programs. The idea that teacher preparation may be made merely an incident in the earning of an arts and science degree still prevails, but not to the extent that it did when the professional education of teachers was in its infancy. The feeling, too, is growing that those who prepare teachers in colleges should have more voice in determining the amount, nature, and treatment of the liberal or technical subjects taken by prospective teachers, as well as the strictly professional work.

The functions of the departments, schools, and colleges of education have become much wider than the preparation of secondary teachers and school administrators. Research in educational problems marks an area of service in which the large graduate schools of education are preeminent, and much of the general progress in education and in the development of strictly professional subject matter must be credited to them. Origination of new instructional procedures, careful formulation and organization of principles, the collection, compilation, interpretation, and publication of information on almost all phases of education, the development of educational leadership, and other undertakings have increasingly characterized the programs of such units during the present century.

Nearly all the courses of college grade in pedagogy or education offered in 1890 solely for prospective secondary teachers were listed on a single page in a preceding section. Today scores and even hundreds of such courses may be found in the catalogs of a single institution.

At first, the cultural possibilities of courses in education suggested by the values attached to antecedent general courses, as well as strictly professional functions, were stressed. More recently, the functional values of professional courses have been given increasing emphasis. As specialization extends to increasing lengths, there is more and more sensitivity among curriculum makers concerning duplication of content among courses, and concerning the presence of nonfunctional materials.

Development of observation and student teaching.—College departments of pedagogy before 1890 offered little or no student teaching, although mention of observation was sometimes made in the catalogs.

Frank McMurry in 1893-94 established a primary model school with two grades at the University of Illinois.⁴² The work was soon discontinued. In 1908-9, Bagley put into effect a more thorough and adequate practice-teaching program.⁴³ Meantime, student

⁴² University of Illinois. Catalog, 1893-94. p. 64.

⁴³ Morehouse, Frances. Practice Teaching in the School of Education, University of Illinois, 1903-1911. University of Illinois, 1912. pp. 3, 4-16. (Bulletin no. 7.)

teaching had been introduced into a number of other colleges and universities. In 1908, of 50 selected universities, 20 did not offer practice teaching, and in 14 it was optional.⁵⁴ Improvement, however, was steady and at the present time, practically all the State universities and the largest private universities with schools or colleges of education, all the land-grant colleges, and more than half the colleges and small universities with departments, schools, or colleges of education, offer some form of student teaching, participation, directed observation, or experimental school activities. The growth of experimental schools has also been marked in the universities that have engaged in any considerable amount of original investigation of instructional problems.

Improved preparation and status of staff.—Teachers of pedagogy or education at the beginning of the period were usually drawn from other instructional fields or from public-school work. The field they taught was characterized by rather scanty teaching material, a fact that the regular academic faculty members for a number of years took some pains to point out. Now that the field of professional education has been widely developed, former criticisms on this score are scarcely just. It may be fairly stated that the college teacher of professional education today is as well prepared in his field as the teachers of other subjects are in their own. There has been a marked tendency toward specialization within the field of education; and the larger institutions usually select new staff members whose qualifications enable them to undertake instruction or research in specific fields such as school administration, secondary education, educational psychology, and similar subjects.

The supply of teachers of education has grown rapidly, as graduate schools of education have been developed. The number of students in graduate work in the universities has increased fifteenfold during the period (table 11).

Salaries of teachers of education have risen along with the general institutional salary levels. In 1908, data presented by the Carnegie Foundation showed that the median annual salaries of teachers, without respect to fields taught, in 100 colleges and universities having the highest salary rolls were approximately as follows: Professors, \$2,200 (average, nearly \$2,500); associate professors, \$2,000–\$2,099; assistant professors, \$1,500–\$1,599; instructors, \$1,000–\$1,099. These figures were for selected institutions; the medians for all institutions would have been considerably less.⁵⁵

⁵⁴ Farrington, Frederic E. *Practice Work in University Departments of Education*. In Farrington, Frederic E., Strayer, George D., and Jacobs, Walter B. *Observation and Practice Teaching in College and University Departments of Education*. Table opp. p. 20. National Society of College Teachers of Education, 1909.

⁵⁵ Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. *The Financial Status of the Professor in America and in Germany*. p. 20. (Bulletin no. 2. May 1903.)

In 1932-33, approximate median or "most common" salaries in 39 land-grant colleges, 44 non-land-grant State universities and State colleges, and 94 private colleges and universities reporting on this item were respectively as follows: Professors, \$4,000, \$3,900, and \$2,870; associate professors, \$3,000, \$2,800, and \$2,550; assistant professors, \$2,550, \$2,400, and \$2,200; instructors, \$1,895, \$1,800, and \$1,700.⁵⁶ Consideration should be given the changed value of the dollar, but it is certain that there was a substantial increase until 1931 in college teachers' salaries. The level, however, still appears low when the amount of preparation necessary to attain college-teaching positions and the amount of experience necessary to attain the higher college ranks are considered.

As in other college fields, the reduction during the period in teaching load has been accompanied by an extension of institutional activities to include much wider areas of extramural service, in which the college teachers of education have participated, especially in field services to the public schools.

Growth in enrollments and student personnel.—Increases in total collegiate enrollments were shown in table 11. Exact data have never been compiled concerning the total number of college students preparing to teach. Meyer in 1928, however, showed in 156 small liberal arts colleges the following large increases in percentages of graduates who engaged in teaching: 5-year period 1900-1904, 18 percent; 1905-9, 19 percent; 1910-14, 21 percent; 1915-19, 24 percent; 1920-24, 36 percent; and 1925-29, 45 percent.⁵⁷ A committee headed by Withers, gives the figure of 45 percent as the proportion of college art and science graduates in 199 liberal arts college in 38 States and the District of Columbia that have entered teaching since 1923.⁵⁸

In 1895-96 the ratio of men students to women students who were preparing to teach was approximately 1: 1.2; 1909-10, 1: 1.7; and 1929-30, nearly 1: 3.

Teacher preparation more and more has been assumed by State institutions. In 1899-1900 the ratio of prospective teachers in publicly supported colleges to those in private institutions was roughly 1 to 3.7; in 1930, 1 to 1.5.⁵⁹

⁵⁶ Adapted from U.S. Office of Education. *College Salaries, 1932-33*. Rotaprinted material published Dec. 15, 1932.

⁵⁷ Meyer, Jacob G. *Small Colleges and Teacher Training*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co. (1928). pp. 39-41.

⁵⁸ Withers, John W., ch. *Articulation in the Field of Teacher Training*. In *National Education Association. Department of superintendence. Seventh yearbook, 1929*. p. 458.

⁵⁹ U.S. Bureau of Education. *Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1899-1900*. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1901. pp. 1885, 1892, 1894.

U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-30*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 7. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

There has been a steady rise of college tuition rates and fees throughout most of the period and it may be expected that this movement will continue.⁶⁰

Land-grant colleges; vocational education.—Of the 69 land-grant institutions in the United States, 52 are for whites and 17 are for Negroes. In about half the States the land-grant colleges are component parts of the State universities. Some of the latter are among the largest State institutions in the United States.

The passage of the act of 1862 donating lands for colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts (first Morrill Act), has been followed by much succeeding legislation designed to expand and forward in new channels the original work to which it gave impetus.⁶¹ Among the three major types of services developed in the land-grant institutions—instruction, extension, and experiment station work—preparation of students for vocational teaching has had a due place. While indirectly promoted by several acts, the first specific recognition of vocational teacher preparation was in the Nelson amendment of March 4, 1907, to the Morrill Act of 1890. However, the greatest progress came in such work after 1917, when the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act was passed by Congress. Increasing annual appropriations were made until a maximum of \$1,000,000 became available in 1921 and thereafter for the preparation of vocational teachers of agriculture, home economics, and trades and industries. In 1929 the George-Reed bill greatly increased the annual appropriations for the purpose, among others, of preparing teachers of agriculture and home economics. The number of vocational teacher-training institutions or other agencies Federally aided has increased from 94 in 1918 to 178 in 1932.⁶²

Emphasis upon a practical and vital type of work has characterized vocational teacher preparation in land-grant colleges. Thorough knowledge of the technical fields studied has been stressed, but the usual courses in professional education have also been required, and considerable emphasis has been placed upon supervised student teaching adapted to the needs of the several vocational fields.⁶³

Municipal colleges and universities.—Eleven municipally supported universities and colleges are in existence, including those at Charleston (1837); Louisville (1846); New York, including City College (1849), Hunter College (1870), and Brooklyn (1930); Cincinnati (1873),

⁶⁰ For tuition rates early in the century, see Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Tenth annual report of the president and of the treasurer. The foundation, 1915. pp. 28-43.

⁶¹ U.S. Department of Agriculture. Federal Legislation, Regulations, and Rulings, Affecting Land-Grant Colleges and Experiment Stations. Revised February 1930. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1930. pp. 1-60. (Department circular 251.)

⁶² Federal Board for Vocational Education. Sixteenth Annual Report, 1932. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. pp. 76, 88, 90, 95.

⁶³ Frazier, Benjamin W. Teacher Training. In U.S. Office of Education. Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. vol. 2. p. 112. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1930. (Bulletin, 1930, no. 9.)

Toledo (1884), Akron (1913), Detroit (1915), Wichita (1926), and Omaha (1931).⁶⁴ Unlike the city normal schools, no municipal university has ever been discontinued. Nearly all prepare teachers, and enter extensively into the in-service education of workers in the nearby city schools. Graduate work in education is offered in the majority of the municipal universities.

Colleges for women.—Colleges for women are most frequent in the Eastern and Southern States. Following the establishment of separate colleges for women during the middle decades of the past century, coordinate colleges for women conducted with men's colleges in the same institution were also established.

Of the independent women's colleges, there were in 1933-34, 8 State, 1 city, 29 private, and 90 denominational colleges. Such institutions have persisted despite the great growth in enrollments of women in coeducational institutions. Some of the larger private colleges for women rank high, especially in the East, among the endowed and well-equipped institutions of the country. In the South, a decided majority of the graduates of a number of the State women's colleges enter teaching. In many respects these institutions function as teachers colleges, but without the name.

Junior colleges.—While a number of the junior colleges prepare teachers in one way or another, especially in States with relatively low certification requirements, their major contribution in this respect is to provide preprofessional preparation of students who later finish their work in teachers colleges or in colleges and universities.

The growth of the junior college is one of the outstanding movements in higher education during the past 15 years. In 1900 there were 27 private junior colleges; in 1915, 15 public and 74 private institutions; and in 1930, 162 public and 268 private institutions, a total of 430.⁶⁵ The total in November 1933 was 514, with enrollments of 103,530.⁶⁶ This number includes all kinds of junior colleges, a few of which were not 2-year institutions. Like the State normal schools and teachers colleges, the junior colleges appear to grow in numbers in times of war and economic depression, although causal relationships cannot safely be implied from any data in hand. California, Texas, and Iowa lead in numbers of junior colleges.

Problems in teacher preparation that have arisen in connection with the rapid growth of junior colleges include the growing competition for State funds and for students, competition in teacher preparation in some places with normal schools and teachers colleges, and the necessity for integrating the work of the 2 years of the junior

⁶⁴ Eckelberry, R. H. *The History of the Municipal University in the United States*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. pp. 6-7. (Office of Education. Bulletin, 1932, no. 2.)

⁶⁵ Fells, Walter C. *The Junior College*. Boston, Mass., Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931. p. 74.

⁶⁶ Campbell, Doak S. *Directory of the Junior College, 1934*. *Junior College Journal*, 4: 205-230, January 1934.

college with the last 2 years of teachers colleges. Whether or not the junior colleges may eventually serve generally to push upward the professional and even the academic work in teachers colleges to new heights, somewhat as the high school did in the case of normal schools, remains to be seen.

Graduate work.—The majority of graduate students in universities enter college teaching. Betts and Kent in 1929 found in a study of 2,325 recipients of the Ph.D. in 32 universities, between 1915 and 1926, that 71 percent were engaged in teaching; 27 percent in research; and only 2 percent in other occupations. Of those engaged in teaching, 97 percent were located in colleges and universities, and only 3 percent in the public schools.⁶⁷ Public schools, however, are now absorbing an increasing number of teachers who have had graduate work.

The rate of increase in the number of graduate students far outstrips the increase in numbers of college-teaching positions. Women in graduate work have increased more rapidly in numbers than men (table 11), but the percentage of women in college teaching is not increasing at any significant rate.

The essential requirements for the Ph.D. degree have not changed very much during the period. The honorary Ph.D., however, is no longer common. In 1890, perhaps two-fifths of the Ph.D. degrees conferred were of this type.⁶⁸

In recent years a score or more universities have announced work leading to a new degree, that of doctor of education. This degree differs from the established Ph.D. chiefly in the greater flexibility in requirements for graduation, especially in respect to the nature of the thesis, and for the precise tools of research that must be acquired. The conventional 2-language requirement may be modified, if justified by the nature of the research undertaken.

An outgrowth of the preparation of an increasing number of candidates for the master's degree is greater integration of graduate and undergraduate work, as exemplified in the so-called "5-year plan." The universities of California, Washington, and Minnesota, and Oberlin College and Pomona College illustrate this tendency. The proper placement of strictly professional work, the selection of instructional material and its arrangement in the most effective sequence, illustrate some of the problems arising in the course of development of the 5-year course of undergraduate and graduate study.

One of the greatest contributions of graduate work in the higher institutions has been a development of new knowledge by research and systematic study. Research studies are now undertaken literally

⁶⁷ Betts, George H., and Kent, Raymond A. *Foreign Language Equipment of 2,325 Doctors of Philosophy*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co. [1929]. p. 135. (Northwestern University. Contributions to Education. School of education series, no. 2.)

⁶⁸ Perry, Edward D. *The American University*. In *Report*, Nicholas M., ed. *Monographs on Education in the United States*. No. 6. pp. 41-44. Albany, N.Y., J. B. Lyon Co. [1899] [1904].

by the thousands each year in the field of professional education alone. The increase in the number of doctors' theses in the field of teacher preparation and teachers' professional status since 1917 is illustrative of such growth. In 1917, one doctor's thesis was reported in this field; in 1922, 8; and in 1927, 20. During the same 10 years, the number of masters' theses increased from 13 to 100.⁶⁶

RAPID DEVELOPMENT OF IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Teachers institutes.—The teachers institute, the oldest of all major types of organized in-service teacher-preparation agencies, has continued its services with varying fortunes during the period. In 1897-98, there was a total of 251,768 teachers enrolled in 2,597 separate units, located in practically every State in the Union. More than 10,000 students were enrolled in each of the following States: Iowa, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Pennsylvania, and New York.⁶⁷ Institutes were conducted and financed by States, counties, districts, cities, and towns. Of these, the county institutes were probably the best organized and managed. The institute operated under several names, and at times was almost indistinguishable from short summer schools or unusually long teachers meetings.⁶⁸

Somewhat less emphasis appears to have been placed upon institute activities in 1921, although institutes were still to be found in some form in 44 States. The county was still the predominant unit of organization and administration. Twenty-six States required by law the attendance of teachers. Criticism of the institutes, which has existed from their beginnings, appeared to have had more justification than ever before, inasmuch as normal schools or teachers colleges were conveniently at hand for the great majority of teachers. The course of study of the institute was too short, the organization poor, the work superficial, continuity of work from year to year lacking, provision of specialized instruction appealing to the entire group of teachers extremely difficult; and facilities for instruction, including reference materials and housing were deplorably limited. However, 32 State school administrators thought the institute worthy of continuance; 7 did not.⁶⁹

At present, the institute appears to be losing ground slowly. The older objections have become intensified. The many teacher-preparation institutions and in-service educational agencies now existing are

⁶⁶ Illinois. University of Illinois, Urbana. Titles of masters' and doctors' theses in education accepted in colleges and universities in the United States. The University, 1917-27. 6 vols. (mimeographed).

⁶⁷ U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1898-99. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1900. p. 1842.

⁶⁸ For conditions in 1910-11, see Ruediger, William C. Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1911. pp. 10-41. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1911, no. 2.)

⁶⁹ The teachers' institute as an agency for training teachers in service. In National Education Association. Journal of Addresses and Proceedings, 1922. pp. 1141-49.

in a position to offer better and more extensive educational opportunities than the institute. Nevertheless, some local needs are apparently not met by the colleges and normal schools and the institute continues its activities on a very considerable scale in many States. For instance, Illinois in 1929 expended \$102,468 for teachers institutes, which were still held in the majority of the 102 counties of the State.⁷³

There are unmistakable tendencies to redirect the institute programs or to substitute for them other types of in-service programs. Class extension courses are growing in numbers. Better State supervision of institute work and differentiated long-time programs of study under competent teachers are now possible as State department staffs are strengthened and improved. Visiting teachers or State demonstrators, rural school supervisors, and State normal school staffs cooperating with State department staff members now assist in the in-service education of teachers. Most encouraging of all, the general levels of preparation of rural teachers are slowly becoming higher, and the unsatisfactory conditions that have led to the establishment and long-continued maintenance of the teachers institute are steadily being changed for the better.

Summer sessions.—By the summer of 1894, summer sessions were in operation in more than 100 higher educational institutions; and these, with perhaps twice as many more county, State, private, and other independent summer schools were distributed over at least 40 States. A total of 319 summer schools or sessions was reported in 1895.⁷⁴

In 1915, 674 summer schools reported to the Bureau of Education. The number of independent summer schools appears to have since decreased, but the number of institutional summer sessions has increased. The total number of summer sessions in 1931 was reported to be 654.⁷⁵ More than nine-tenths of the teachers colleges now conduct such units.

Length of sessions in 1894 varied from 8 to 16 weeks, with a mid-score of 5 weeks. In 1931, the length had increased materially. About two-fifths of the sessions were 6 weeks in length, and a little less than one-third were 12 weeks in length.

Summer session enrollments have increased rapidly during the past 20 years, from 118,307 in 1911, to 425,100 in 1931. In 1931, 273,148 summer-session students, a number equivalent to 28.6 percent of the total number of teachers in the United States, were enrolled in courses in education.⁷⁶

⁷³ Illinois. Department of public instruction. Illinois School Statistics, 1929. Springfield, Ill., Journal Printing Co., 1930. pp. 22-23.

⁷⁴ Weeks, Stephen B. A Check-List of American Summer Schools. In U.S. Bureau of Education. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1894-95. pp. 1488-1503. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1896.

⁷⁵ Growth of summer-school attendance. Prepared by the research division of the National Education Association. Journal of the National Education Association, 20: 293, November 1931.

⁷⁶ Ibid., p. 293.

The growth of the summer sessions has been due largely to the opportunities offered for teachers in service and others to secure combined recreation and college work during an otherwise idle vacation period, the opportunities for students to obtain work with noted teachers in great institutions not otherwise so readily available, the opportunity to visit and study in great cities or in the mountains or at the seashore, the necessity for many teachers to increase their preparation in order to meet rising certification or employment requirements, and the efforts of students to make up lost work or to add to their institutional credits and thus shorten their 4-year period of collegiate study. In recent years, the purposes of the regular session predominate in the summer sessions, which more and more become integral parts of the regular sessions of higher institutions. On the whole, therefore, differences between the summer sessions and regular sessions tend to become less and less.

Class extension courses.—In 1891, 28 States and territories offered some form of university extension work. The first State appropriation for extension work was made in New York in 1891. Fifty-four colleges, universities, and other agencies reported in 1910 that they conducted extension work, and numerous others were doubtless engaged in this activity.⁷⁷ Many features and activities of present-day extension work were initiated, including provision of short courses, demonstrations, traveling schools, agricultural extension, free lecture courses, correspondence work, and so on. The University of Chicago led other institutions in providing lecture courses accompanied by class work, written papers, and examinations. As early as 1907-8, the total attendance at extension lectures given by this institution reached 53,141. Nearly three-fourths of the State universities and colleges were offering general extension work in 1909. More than half their students were teachers. Relative ease of attendance and of instruction and the low expense to students encouraged the growth of class extension.

During the decade from 1919-20 to 1929-30, enrollments in extension courses in colleges and universities rose from 70,031 to 195,549, an increase of 179.2 percent. Correspondence courses grew even more rapidly.⁷⁸

In 1928-29, reports from more than 800 teachers colleges, normal schools, colleges, and universities in all parts of the country showed that 443 of these gave some extension service. Of the 443 institutions, about 109 were teachers colleges or normal schools. A great variety of activities were undertaken, including class extension courses, cor-

⁷⁷ Reber, Louis E. University Extension. In *The Association of American Universities. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1910. pp. 52-57. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1910.

⁷⁸ U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30.* U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. pp. 10-11. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

respondence work, instruction by radio, institutes, conferences, library services, lectures, home reading courses, visual instruction, promotion of community dramas and debates, club services, and many others.⁷⁹

Study by correspondence.—Following the important early correspondence study courses conducted through Chautauqua, the commercial possibilities of such work were quickly recognized, and a surprising growth of private correspondence schools began. These included in their enrollments many teachers, as well as students from other vocations.⁸⁰ Many millions of students in this country have enrolled in one or more courses by correspondence during the present period, and a comparable number have taken so-called reading courses.

Among the institutions of higher education, the first outstanding correspondence school work was done by the University of Chicago, under the direction of William Rainey Harper. Wisconsin also early assumed leadership in the field. Correspondence study among other universities appears to have received its chief impetus after 1906 or 1907. The normal schools were also beginning correspondence instruction about this time. Regularly organized departments of correspondence study were established in somewhat more than half the normal schools and teachers colleges in 1928.⁸¹

The enrollments in correspondence courses in colleges and universities have increased enormously during recent years. In 1919-20, the total reported was 9,343. The number of men and of women was about equal. In 1929-30, the total was 88,417, an increase of 846.3 percent. The number of men was then about one-fourth greater than the number of women.⁸² Commercial correspondence study work and reading courses are patronized by many times this number of students.

While in densely populated areas, such as Massachusetts, the services of resident and extension educational agencies possibly tend to supplant correspondence study, the extent of growth of correspondence work during the century beyond question foreshadows its continued development.

⁷⁹ Alderman, Lewis E. *College and University Extension Helps in Adult Education, 1928-29*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1930. pp. 8-17. (Office of Education. Bulletin, 1930, no. 10.)

⁸⁰ For accounts of correspondence schools early in the century, see U.S. Bureau of Education. *Reports of the Commissioner of Education, 1898-99*, vol. 1, pp. 908-907; *1900-1901*, vol. 1, pp. 232-234; and *1902*, vol. 1, pp. 1077-80.

Ruediger, William O. *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1911. pp. 38-65. (Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1911, no. 3.)

⁸¹ Maul, Ray O. *A Study of Administrative Practices in Correspondence-Study Departments of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools*. Kansas State printing plant, 1930. ch. 3. (Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia. *Studies in Education*. vol. 1, no. 1, January 1930.)

⁸² U.S. Office of Education. *Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools, 1929-30*. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1929-30*. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931. pp. 10-11. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 30.)

CONCLUSIONS

Among the important trends that have characterized the growth of teacher preparation in the past, and that will in all probability continue to have a bearing upon its future development, are the following:

1. Decrease in the rate of population growth, and the consequent decrease in the rate of growth in numbers of teachers to be prepared.
2. Increase in the economic wealth of the country, and of expenditures for education.
3. Increased control of the State over teacher preparation, including the application of such control in the raising of certification requirements.
4. Increased length of the period of general and professional education of teachers, and increased length of teaching life.
5. Growth in the number and enrollments of higher educational institutions, and expansion and enrichment of general cultural and technical fields of knowledge.
6. Growth in the professionalization of teaching, and in the number of institutions and units—teachers colleges and departments and schools of education—devoted primarily to the professional education of teachers.
7. Development of subject matter in professional education, including graduate and research work.
8. Establishment of norms of practice in teacher preparation based upon the application of the methods of scientific research and study to the problems of education.

The growth of education in a democratic form of government in which no national system of teacher preparation exists, has resulted in the evolution of a large variety of public and private teacher-preparation institutions and agencies. These in turn have evolved toward better practices at varying rates and in different directions.

Factors conditioning the development of teacher preparation in America have been such that not a little of its history is concerned with sheer growth in magnitude as the population of the country and its economic wealth increased, and as its cultural institutions were developed correspondingly.

A period of stabilization and of consolidation of gains made so laboriously during the past century now approaches. More and more, even within the present generation, current patterns of thought which formerly hinged around the problems of material growth must be recast to the end that search will be made for ways and means of perfecting existing teacher-preparation agencies, offerings, and modes of practice.

To solve the problems of a new era and to avoid the dangers that are ever recurring in education, namely, the crystallization of existing practices into set and lifeless patterns, it becomes increasingly important that the critical and constructive thought of research workers rather than the pronouncements of authority and the influence of tradition determine the objectives, organization, offerings, and practices of the institutions and agencies that prepare teachers. The establishment of norms of practice by careful, systematized study and research has been one of the outstanding trends in education and in teacher preparation; and it may well continue to be the means whereby unity is secured, present gains preserved, and future progress safeguarded and extended.

PART 2

PART II. THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS EVALUATED THROUGH MEASUREMENT OF TEACHING ABILITY¹

CHAPTER I

EVALUATION THROUGH RATINGS AND OTHER MEASURES OF SUCCESS

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers has made an extensive descriptive survey of the various phases of the education of teachers in the United States. One of the purposes of such a description was, if possible, to evaluate the effectiveness of current programs for educating teachers. Variation in the characteristics described implies variation in effectiveness.

Evaluation is based upon criteria. By what criteria is one program for the preparation of teachers better than another? Is it of longer length than another? Is it composed of a larger portion of professional courses than another? Is it offered in bigger and better buildings; or by an institution with a different name? Is it taught by a faculty holding a larger proportion of doctorates than another? Does one faculty do more research, write more books, receive more pay, or subscribe to a different philosophy than another? These questions and others suggest the framework for a description of current programs for the preparation of teachers.

What is the evidence concerning the validity of these described characteristics and what is the nature of the evidence? In what respect is one teacher better than another? Does he have a greater fund of professional information than another? Has he a greater number of cultural accomplishments than another? Does he have a more pleasing personality or voice than another? Is his intelligence or scholarship record superior to another? Did his father engage in one occupation or another? The answer to these and similar questions implies still another question: Why is a teacher of any given description better or worse than another? The teacher has certain educational functions to perform, and one teacher is better than another to the extent that he is functionally more effective than another. Perhaps the most direct method for evaluating the functional effectiveness of a teacher is to measure the changes wrought in pupils under his instruction.

¹ This part of the Survey was prepared by Gilbert L. Betts, senior specialist in research in teacher education.

Such a direct method of evaluating programs for the preparation of teachers by measuring pupil change and relating it to teacher preparation, teacher traits, and teacher ability, is very complex and requires the coordinated effort of many investigators over a period of years. Such evaluation awaits the solution of basic problems once or twice removed from the main problem. What changes does society desire to have wrought in pupils? When this question has been answered philosophically, then means for measuring these changes must be devised. Determining which changes are susceptible to teacher-influence is the next step. In this way, step by step, the investigation can be formulated. A survey, however, can seldom use direct-measurement methods but must resort to approximations through the use of indices. What indices are available as criteria of teaching merit so that current programs for the preparation of teachers can be evaluated?

Rated ability of teachers is one criterion which may be used as an indirect measure of teaching success. A rating may be based upon observations of the teacher at work. In such a case, his teaching activities are evaluated according to the judge's notion of their effectiveness in producing desirable changes in pupils. The rated ability of the teacher in service may be used to judge the worth of all or various parts of his preparation for teaching. The rated ability of a student teacher may be used to judge the worth of the program in preparation, in whole or by parts, which was completed prior to such teaching. Salary is a second criterion which may be used in an appraisal of the teacher's preparation. Professional information may constitute a third criterion or it may be used as an index representing preparation to be judged by the other criteria. A fourth criterion by which to judge the merit of preparation is the opinion of teachers themselves concerning the helpfulness of their preparatory study.

Ability ratings.—A search of the literature for studies utilizing teachers' ratings was undertaken in order to summarize what is already known concerning their adaptability for use in the evaluation of programs for the preparation of teachers. This section will present facts which have been gathered from selected investigations whose results were published at the time this study was made.

Table 1 presents a summary of correlations between rated success of teachers and their scholarship as recorded in studies reported by 11 different investigators. With the exception of the correlation with normal school marks reported by Somers, these are all low; more than half of them are not significantly different from zero. Yet the fact that 11 independent studies have shown positive correlations is good evidence that there is a relationship between scholarship and rated success; for if the true relationship were zero, half of these correlations should by chance have been negative. That the correlations

are low may be due to an actual lack of relationship between scholarship and teaching success or to the lack of reliability of one or both measures.

TABLE 1.—*Correlation between scholarship and rated success as a teacher in service*

Measure of scholarship:		Correlation with rating
Professional scholarship:		
Mark in psychology ¹4	0.42
Mark in education courses ²30
Mark in professional studies ³27
Average mark in education courses, normal schools ⁴14
Average mark in professional courses ⁵14
Academic scholarship:		
Mark in noneducational academic courses ⁶30
Average mark in academic courses, Meriam ⁷22
Average mark, normal-school subject-matter ⁸07
Average mark in academic courses ⁹06
General scholarship:		
Normal-school marks ¹⁰73
Senior grades ¹¹46
Composite predictive score (first observer) ¹²39
College scholarship ¹³19
Grade-point ratio, all college courses ¹⁴19
Composite predictive score (second observer) ¹⁵16
General normal-school scholarship. Knight ¹⁶15
Training-school scholarship marks ¹⁷05
Scholarship in college ¹⁸01

Table 2 shows the correlations obtained by three independent investigators studying the relationship between some measure of the amount of professional training and later rated success as a teacher-in-service. Again the correlations are small but positive.

¹ Meriam, Junius L. *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching*. New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906. 182 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 1.)

² Ullman, Roy R. *The Prognostic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success*. Ashland, Ohio, A. L. Garber Co., 1931. 123 pp.

³ Whitney, F. L. *The Prediction of Teaching Success*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1924. (Journal of Educational Research Monograph, no. 6.)

⁴ Kolstad, Arthur. How Shall We Judge Our Teachers? *School and Society*, 20: 609-670, Nov. 22, 1924.

⁵ Somers, G. T. *Pedagogical Prognosis*. New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 129 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 140.)

⁶ Jones, Edward S. *The Prediction of Teaching Success for the College Student*. *School and Society*, 18: 635-690, Dec. 8, 1923.

⁷ McAfee, L. O. Reliability of the Evidences of Teaching Efficiency Secured in Extension Visitation. *Elementary School Journal*, 30: 745-754, June 1930.

⁸ Anderson, H. J. Correlation Between Academic Achievement and Teaching Success. *The Elementary School Journal*, 32: 23-29, September 1931.

⁹ Brown, M. E. A Note on Predicting Teacher Success. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 18: 64-67, January 1932.

¹⁰ Hamrin, S. A. A Comparative Study of Ratings of Teachers-in-Training and Teachers-in-Service. *Elementary School Journal*, 32: 39-44, September 1932.

¹¹ Wagenhorst, Lewis Hoch. Relation Between Ratings of Student Teachers in College and Success in First Year of Teaching. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 249-253, April 1929.

TABLE 2.—*Correlation between amount of preparation for teaching and later rated success as a teacher-in-service*

Measure of amount of preparation:	Correlation with rating
Amount of professional training ¹⁰	0.41
College credits earned while in service; junior high school teachers ¹¹19
College credits earned while in service; elementary teachers ¹²16
Units taken in education courses ¹³01

Score on a test of professional information has been frequently studied in relation to teaching success. The findings of nine such studies are summarized in table 3. In the main these correlations are larger than those with either class marks or amount of training, and some of them are large enough to suggest that such a test may be worth further study. That all are positive indicates that the relationship between what teachers know and their rated success is more than a mere random one, although only one is large enough to have much predictive value.

TABLE 3.—*The correlation between professional information or interest and rated success as a student-teacher or teacher-in-service*

Measure of professional information:	Correlation with rating
Stanford educational aptitude test ¹⁴	¹⁵ 0.85
Bathurst, Knight, Ruch, Telford aptitude test; high-school teachers ¹⁶	¹⁷ .54
Morris test for "trait L" ¹⁸	¹⁹ .51
Examination concerning classroom procedure ²⁰	²¹ .46
Bathurst, Knight, Ruch, Telford aptitude test; elementary teachers ²²	²³ .41
Steele-Herring professional information ²⁴41
George Washington teaching-aptitude test ²⁵	²⁶ .40
Waples and Reavis procedures test ²⁷28

¹⁰ Broom, M. E. A Note on Predicting Teacher Success. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 18: 64-67, January 1932.

¹¹ Barthelme, Harriet M. and Boyer, Philip A. A Study of the Relation Between Teaching Efficiency and Amount of College Credit Earned While in Service. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 14: 521-535, November 1928. See also *Pennsylvania School Journal*, 77: 291, January 1929.

¹² Davis, S. B. and French, L. C. Teacher Rating. *University of Pittsburgh, School of Education Journal*, 3: 57, 60-64, January-February 1928.

¹³ Jensen, Ed. B. Objective Differentiation Between Three Groups in Education. Worcester, Mass., Clark University, 1928. (Genetic psychology monographs, vol. 3, no. 8. pp. 235-424.)

¹⁴ Approximation.

¹⁵ Bathurst, J. E. Do Teachers Improve With Experience? *Personnel Journal*, 7: 54-57, June 1928.

¹⁶ Multiple correlation with composite of all subtests.

¹⁷ Morris, Elizabeth H. Personal Traits and Success in Teaching. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 75 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 342.)

¹⁸ Student-teacher success.

¹⁹ Cahoon, G. P. Marks in College as a Factor in the Prediction of Practice Teaching Success. *The University High School Journal*, 10: 25-41, May 1930.

²⁰ Boasing, Nelson L. Teacher-Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection. In *Research in Higher Education*. pp. 117-123. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. 133 pp. (U.S. Office of Education. Bulletin, 1931, no. 12.)

²¹ Crabbe, Leah Mae. Measuring Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 98 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 178.)

²² Hunt, Thelma. Measuring Teaching Aptitude. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 18: 234-242, May 1930.

²³ Boardman, Charles W. Professional Tests as Measures of Teaching Efficiency in High School. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 85 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 337.)

TABLE 3.—*The correlation between professional information or interest and rated success as a student-teacher or teacher-in-service—Continued.*

Measure of professional information—Continued.		Correlation with rating
Weber, aims, functions, etc. ²²27
Boardman professional information ²³26
Odell, principles of teaching in high school ¹14
Odell, principles of teaching in high school ¹12
Strong, teaching interest ¹11
Weber, aims, functions, etc. ¹09
Strong, teaching interest ¹02

The relationship between success in practice teaching and later success as a teacher-in-service might be expected to be high, but the correlation coefficients presented in table 4 do not run any higher than the correlations with professional information in table 3. With the exception of three of them, these correlations are too small to have predictive value, and these studies do not indicate that success as a student-teacher assures later success as a teacher-in-service. It is, of course, an open question as to whether these correlations are low because the measures of success are unreliable or because successful student teaching is unrelated to successful in-service teaching.

TABLE 4.—*Correlation between success as a student-teacher and later success as a teacher-in-service*

Measure:	Correlation
Practice teaching and field success ¹	0.70
Cadet-teaching grades and 2-year average rating for success in the field ²²	.69
Practice-teaching grades and field success using 15 failing and 15 successful teachers ¹⁰	.57
Practice-teaching grades and field success ²	.44
Practice teaching and field success ³	.36
Practice teaching and rating by superintendents from appointment bureau credentials ²⁵	.31
Ratings by training teachers and by superintendents ²⁷	.29

¹ Meriam, Junius L. *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching*. New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1905. 183 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 1.)

² Ullman, Roy R. *The Prognostic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success*. Ashland, Ohio, A. L. Garber Co., 1931. 123 pp.

³ Somers, G. T. *Pedagogical Prognosis*. New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 129 pp. (Contributions to Education no. 140.)

¹⁰ Morris, Elizabeth H. *Personal Traits and Success in Teaching*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 75 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 342.)

²² Student-teacher success.

²⁵ Bessing, Nelson L. *Teacher-Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection*. In *Research in Higher Education*. pp. 117-123. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. 133 pp. (U.S. Office of Education. Bulletin 1931, no. 12.)

²⁷ Boardman, Charles W. *Professional Tests as Measures of Teaching Efficiency in High School*. New York, N. Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 85 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 327.)

²⁸ Wall, Wallace Theodore. *A Study of the Criteria for the Selection of High-School Teachers*. Master's thesis. Seattle, Wash., University of Washington, 1926. 79 pp. ms.

²⁹ Armistead, W. D. *The Rating of Teachers by Training Teachers and Superintendents*. *Elementary School Journal*, 23: 511-516, March 1923.

TABLE 4.—*Correlation between success as a student-teacher and later success as a teacher-in-service—Continued*

Measure—Continued.	Correlation
Average practice-teaching mark and first-semester success ⁴	0.24
Practice teaching and first-year success ¹²23
Ratings by first supervisor of practice teaching and superintendent after 6 months' teaching ¹¹23
Rating by supervisor of practice teaching and field success ⁵20
Critic teacher's rating and superintendent's rating ²³19
Practice-teaching skill and a 2-year average rating for success in the field ²²18
Practice-teaching grades and field success ⁵16
Last practice teaching and second-year success ²⁰15
Ratings by second supervisor of practice teaching and superintendent after 6 months' teaching ¹¹06
Practice-teaching grades and field success, Knight ⁵06

TABLE 5.—*Correlation between scholarship and success as a student teacher*

Measure of scholarship:	Correlation with success
Professional scholarship:	
Grades in education and psychology ²⁰	0.60
Marks in general methods courses ²¹57
Marks in education courses ³46
Marks in education and methods courses ²²32
Marks in educational psychology ²³30
Average mark in education courses ⁴27
Average grade points in education courses ²²21
Academic scholarship:	
Academic grades ²⁴69
Academic average ¹⁹54

³ Ullman, Roy B. *The Prognostic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success*. Ashland, Ohio, A. L. Garber Co., 1931. 133 pp.

⁴ Whitney, F. L. *The Prediction of Teaching Success*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1924. (*Journal of Educational Research Monograph*, no. 6.)

⁵ Kolstad, Arthur. How shall We Judge Our Teachers? *School and Society*, 20: 609-670, Nov. 22, 1924.

¹¹ Hamrin, S. A. A Comparative Study of Ratings of Teachers-in-Training and Teachers-in-Service. *Elementary School Journal*, 28: 39-44, September 1927.

¹² Wagenhorst, Lewis Hoch. Relation Between Ratings of Student Teachers in College and Success in First Year of Teaching. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 249-253, April 1920.

¹³ Morris, Elizabeth H. *Personal Traits and Success in Teaching*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 78 pp. (*Contributions to Education*, no. 342.)

²⁰ Boasing, Nelson L. Teacher-Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection. In *Research in Higher Education*. pp. 117-133. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. 133 pp. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, no. 12.)

²¹ Myers, Alonso F. and Beechel, Edith E. Successful Placement of Teachers. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12: 596-602, December 1926.

²² Pyle, W. H. The Relation Between Intelligence and Teaching Success. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 14: 257-267, April 1928.

²³ Kinder, J. S. A Rating Scale for Practice Teachers. *Education*, 46: 106-114, October 1925.

²⁴ Mend, A. B. and Holley, C. E. Forecasting Success in Practice Teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 7: 495-497, October 1916.

²⁵ Zant, James H. Predicting Success in Practice Teaching. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 14: 664-670, December 1928.

²⁶ Broom, M. E. The Predictive Value of Three Specified Factors for Success in Practice Teaching. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15: 25-29, January 1929.

²⁷ Almy, H. C. and Sorenson, Herbert. A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 179-186, 1930.

TABLE 5.—*Correlation between scholarship and success as a student teacher—Con.*

Measure of scholarship—Continued.		Correlation with success
Academic scholarship—Continued.		
Subject-matter achievement ²⁵	-----	0.49
Average mark in subject matter ⁴	-----	.39
Academic index, 1 group ²¹	-----	.27
Academic marks ²	-----	.26
Major subject marks ²	-----	.22
Major scholarship ²¹	-----	.19
Academic index, another group ²¹	-----	.065
General scholarship:		
Grades in all courses, 4 college years ²⁰	-----	.69
Last-semester marks ²⁴	-----	.45
Grade-point ratio, all college courses ²⁰	-----	.39
General scholastic average ²⁵	-----	.37
General scholarship ²¹	-----	.24

The correlation between success in student teaching and the professional preparation which precedes it, as reported in 10 different studies, is shown in table 5. As in table 1, the measures of scholarship have been classified as professional, academic, and general. While the correlations with general scholarship show a slight tendency to be larger than those in the other two groups, no generalization would be safe without careful examination of the conditions under which the various data were gathered and the nature of the populations studied. Again all of the correlations are positive and suggest a definite connection between scholastic success and student-teaching success. On the other hand, this relationship is apparently not high enough to render scholastic success a safe basis for prediction of probable success in student teaching.

Relation of preparation and teaching assignment.—Many studies, not all of which will be reviewed here, have shown striking lack of relationship between the preparation of a teacher and the duties he is called upon to perform. Three of these studies express the relationship in terms of correlation coefficients which are presented in table 6; the others employ a different statistical treatment.

¹ Ullman, Roy R. *The Prognastic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success.* Ashland, Ohio, A. L. Garber Co., 1931. 123 pp.

² Whitney, F. L. *The prediction of Teaching Success.* Bloomington, Ill. Public School Publishing Co., 1924. (Journal of Educational Research Monograph, no. 6.)

³ Cahoon, G. P. Marks in College as a Factor in the Prediction of Practice Teaching Success. *The University High School Journal*, 10: 25-41, May 1930.

⁴ Kinder, J. B. A Rating Scale for Practice Teachers. *Education*, 46: 109-114, October 1925.

⁵ Mead, A. R. and Holley, C. E. Forecasting Success in Practice Teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 7: 495-497, October 1916.

⁶ Broom, M. E. The Predictive Value of Three Specified Factors for Success in Practice Teaching. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15: 25-29, January 1929.

⁷ Almy, H. C. and Sorenson, Herbert. A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 179-193, March 1930.

⁸ Neel, Mary O. and Mead, A. R. Correlations Between Certain Group Factors in Preparation of Secondary School Teachers. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 17: 675-678, December 1931.

TABLE 6.—*Correlation between the preparation of a teacher and his teaching assignment.*

Measures correlated:	Correlation
Major and minor and subject taught, Colorado ³⁶	0.63
Semester-credits and number of periods taught in high school, median of 15 correlations ³⁷49
Major and minor subjects of preparation and subject taught, fre- quencies of each ³⁸14
Major and minor and subject taught, Ohio ³⁹14

Among studies which reveal a great discrepancy between a teacher's task and the preparation for that task, may be noted the following:

Kemp, in a study of high-school teachers, reported:

Of the total number of subjects taught by the 486 [California] teachers, more than one third represented subjects in which the teachers had little or no training * * * More than half of the subjects in which teachers had received (major or minor) training * * * were not being taught by them in the fall semester of 1922-23.³⁶

Ogden studied (through source material, not by a questionnaire) 370 teachers securing their first positions during the 10-year period, 1919-20 to 1929-30. Forty-six percent of the assignments made to these teachers were in subjects outside of their major or minor training and almost 20 percent were in subjects in which the teachers had had no preparation beyond high school.⁴⁰

Smith concluded, on the basis of test scores made by 78 junior high school teachers of experience from seven States, that:

Children who are fortunate may therefore study (literature) with a teacher who knows 10 times as much about juvenile books as another on the same faculty.⁴¹

Part of the disparity found between preparation and actual teaching may be due to inefficient placement of teachers. It is possible, however, that many of the majors and minors of the prospective and in-service teachers were in fields of knowledge not represented in the curriculum in which they are called upon to teach. Furthermore, many of the preservice courses may have been special aspects of a subject related only in a remote way to the subject as it must be taught in the public schools.

³⁶ Whitney, Frederick L. *Teacher Demand and Supply in the Public Schools*. Greeley, Colo., Colorado State Teachers College, 1930. 139 pp. (Educational Series, no. 8.)

³⁷ Marshall, Ernest. *The Preparation of Teachers for Their Subjects in Wyoming High Schools*, Master's thesis. Laramie, Wyo., University of Wyoming, 1927. 68 pp.

³⁸ Buckingham, B. R. *Supply and Demand in Teacher Training*. Columbus, Ohio, Ohio State University, 1926. 183 pp. (University Studies, vol. 2, no. 15. Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, no. 4.)

³⁹ Kemp, W. W. *Training of High School Teachers in Relation to the Subjects They Teach*. California Quarterly of Secondary Education, 1:409-412, June 1926.

⁴⁰ Ogden, G. L. *The Relation Between Major and Minor Training of Stanford Graduates and Teaching Position Held*. Master's thesis. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University, 1930.

⁴¹ Smith, Dora V. *Extensive Reading in Junior High School*. The English Journal, 19:449-452, June 1930.

Sharitz collected data concerning 861 college students and 258 high-school teachers in Virginia, covering a 5-year period. These data indicate that the preparation of the high-school teachers had little effect upon the quality of the college work of above-average students. For students who ranked below average, however, the amount of preparation of the teacher was significantly related to the grade of work done.⁴²

Hughes found that when the achievement of pupils in schools fairly homogeneous in size, intelligence of the pupils, equipment, experience of the teachers, content, and time allotment to different divisions, but not homogeneous with respect to the preparation of teachers in college physics, was compared on the basis of the last-named factor, the pupils who were taught by teachers who had majored in college physics excelled in average achievement the pupils who were taught by teachers who had not majored in college physics. This superiority was evident in every test, each of which covered a specific unit of the course, for example, "sound and light", "magnetism", and others.⁴³

These studies furnish evidence (albeit meager) that some preparation for teaching, when given opportunity to function, does influence pupil-achievement. However, the evidence is sufficient to arouse a certain wariness in the implicit acceptance of one or both of the two correlated measures (success and preparation) considered in variant forms thus far in this presentation.

Whitney studied the relation between six variables (student teaching, professional record, physique, academic record, intelligence, and record in the secondary school) and the rated teaching success of 1,200 graduates in their first semester under contract. The multiple correlation between all six factors and rated success was 0.288.⁴⁴

Ullman studied the relation between 10 factors and practice-teaching success. These 10 factors were: Score on George Washington social intelligence test, score on the Brown psychological examination, score on the Odell principles of teaching test, score on the Weber test of aims, functions, etc., Sims socio-economic status, self-rating on the Freyd graphic scale, teaching interest score on the Strong interest blank, academic scholarship, professional scholarship, and scholarship in the major subject. The multiple correlation between all these factors and success as a student teacher was 0.538.⁴⁵

⁴² Ullman, Roy R. *The Prognostic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success*. Ashland, Ohio, A. L. Garber Co., 1931. 133 pp.

⁴³ Sharitz, Horace, B. *Preparation of High School Teachers and Their Students' College Records*. Master's thesis. Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1928.

⁴⁴ Hughes, J. M. *A Study of Intelligence and of the Training of Teachers as Factors Conditioning the Achievement of Pupils*. *School Review*, 32:191-200, 292-302, March, April 1925.

⁴⁵ Whitney, Frederick L. *The Intelligence, Preparation, and Teaching Skill of Normal School Graduates in the United States*. Doctor's thesis. Minneapolis, Minn., University of Minnesota, 1922. 40 pp.

Odenweller studied the value of certain factors in predicting the success of 1,539 teachers in 69 buildings and concluded thus:

Two and one-fourth hours of practical arts have almost as high a relation to effectiveness in teaching as 21 hours of education, and higher than 10 hours of practice teaching or four and a quarter hours of psychology. As related to effectiveness in teaching, high-school marks are the same as height; experience, age, and psychology are about alike; with experienced teachers, height is as important as practice teaching; weight is as significant as intelligence; hand-writing quality is the same as the number of letters in the signature; and (97 cases) looking at the back of a photograph is as good as looking at the photograph. (From an advance sheet announcing the thesis.)⁴⁶

Jacobs studied the number of hours of preparation each teacher had in each of the most frequently reported courses. He selected the upper fourth and the lower fourth from the distribution of teaching ability. There were 406 teachers in the total distribution and they had attended educational institutions in 83 different States. The upper fourth had a significantly larger number of hours preparation in: Primary education, general methods, practice teaching, gymnasium, United States Constitution, manual training, and home economics. The lower fourth had a significantly larger number of hours preparation in: History of education, story telling and language, agriculture, drawing, and sociology.⁴⁸ Does the significantly different preparation of the lower fourth in the distribution have a negative value in determining later success? Bathurst reported that 67 out of 289 items in a professional test for teachers had negative discriminating values.⁴⁷

Salary.—As a supplementary criterion of the value of programs of preparation the salaries of teachers offer a comparative measure. Correlations between each of several measures of preparation and salary are given in table 7.

⁴⁶ Odenweller, Arthur Leonard. *The Predictive Value of Certain Traits for Effectiveness in Teaching*. Doctor's thesis. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.

⁴⁸ Jacobs, Charles Louis. *The Relation of the Teacher's Education to Her Effectiveness*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 97 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 277.)

⁴⁷ Bathurst, James Elmer. *A Diagnostic Study of Teaching Ability*. Doctor's thesis. Iowa City, Iowa, State University of Iowa, 1926. 48 pp.

TABLE 7.—*The correlation between the preparation of a teacher and her salary*

Measure of preparation:	Correlation with salary
Number of units of preparation ⁴⁸	0.60
Years of training, men ⁴⁹51
Cadet-teaching grades ⁵⁰41
Years of training, women ⁴⁹38
Scholarship ⁵⁰34
Average grade in normal school, sixth-year salary ⁵¹30
Composite achievement score:	
Women ⁴⁹18
Men ⁴⁹09
Years of training, one type of school ⁵²03

These correlations agree with those obtained when other criteria of success are employed. The smallest correlation in the table (0.03) represents the relationship in teacher populations which are homogeneous with respect to size of school and density of population in the neighboring area. Both salaries and amount of preparation increase with an increase in the size of the school and in the density of population.

Opinions of teachers.—The opinion of teachers themselves should be of worth in evaluating the programs for the education of teachers. On this assumption Peik analyzed prescribed courses in education into 814 topics and submitted these topics, in the form of a questionnaire check-list, to 100 alumni who were requested to evaluate each topic for its practical value in the classroom and for its theoretical value as a guide to thinking. On the basis of returns to the questionnaire, these 814 topics were reordered so that the first in the array represented that topic which the greatest number of teachers agreed was of great practical value in the classroom, and the last topic in the list represented that which received the smallest number of votes stating it to be of great practical value. Only 24 percent of the teachers appeared to consider that prescribed courses in education were of great value to them in their classroom activities. The evidence is clear, however, that some topics are judged to be of greater practical value than others. These teachers were not given an opportunity to say whether or not they considered some of the topics in

⁴⁸ Brubaker, Ara Weaver. *Teachers' Salaries and Professional Training*. Master's thesis. State college, Pa., Pennsylvania State College, 1934. 46 pp.

⁴⁹ Ivy, Horace Macaulay. *What Is the Relation of Academic Preparation, Experience, Intelligence, Achievement, and Sex of the Rural Teachers in Mississippi to Their Salary?* Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1922. 42 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 10.)

⁵⁰ Sattgast, Charles Richard. *Relation of Teachers' Qualifications to the Position Secured*. Master's thesis. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University, 1926.

⁵¹ Moody, Floyd E. *Correlation of Professional Training with Teaching Success of Normal School Graduates*. School review, 26:180-198, March 1918.

⁵² Approximate.

⁵³ Baer, Joseph A. *For What Is the Teacher Paid?* Educational Research Bulletin (Ohio State University), 7:223-230, May 30, 1926.

prescribed courses to be actually harmful to the best performance of classroom activities. This possibility exists, however. A similar analysis of votes concerning the theoretical value of the topics shows that 33 percent of the teachers in service consider required courses in education to be of great value as a guide to thinking. The correlation between these two kinds of value is 0.11. This shows them to be almost unrelated to each other.⁶⁴

These results are in contrast to the findings reported by Betts of a study in which approximately 1,000 students ranked their education courses well above the average of other university courses in interest and mental stimulus. They also ranked their instructors well above the average.⁶⁵ The author says:

When a similar form was used in another section of the university [other than in education] exactly the same tendency appeared. It seems likely that if the study were carried to all departments of the university, it would be found that most instructors and courses are ranked above the average of university instructors and courses—a manifest absurdity.⁶⁶

Another approach to the same question has been made by attempting to compile lists of the problems of which teachers are aware in the performance of their work and to analyze these in the light of the program of training the teachers had received. Certain logical fallacies are almost necessarily inherent in the classification and tabulation of "difficulties" which cannot be described in identifiable units. The results, however, are worthy of report as part of the general summary of studies which deal with the appropriateness of preservice preparation to the needs of teachers in service. Anderson and Kibbe collected and cataloged the field problems of rural teachers in Wisconsin. They state:

The summary table reveals the fact that 12,596, or 63.8 percent, of the total number of problems were questions of general technique in classroom teaching. Most, if not all, of these items have been considered in more or less detail in special methods classes.⁶⁷

Robinson collected a list of 1,873 difficulties from a 2-weeks diary of 118 classroom teachers. These were classified and found to be 44 percent instructional difficulties, 23 percent disciplinary, 18 percent moral-social, and 15 percent miscellaneous. These were further classified into those involving technique, psychology, administration,

⁶⁴ Felt, W. E. *The Professional Education of High-School Teachers*. Minneapolis, Minn., University of Minnesota press, 1930. 194 pp. See also *Journal of Educational Research*, 18:344-355, December 1928, and *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15:321-333, May 1929.

⁶⁵ Betts, George H. *Student Estimate of Instruction*. In Hoels, James F. ed. *Scientific Method in Supervision*. pp. 52-55. New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 307 pp. (National conference of supervisors and directors of instruction. Second yearbook.)

⁶⁶ *Ibid.*

⁶⁷ Anderson, C. J., and Kibbe, Della E. *Field Problems of Wisconsin Rural Teachers*. Madison, Wis., John Callahan, State superintendent, 1929. 74 pp.

or cooperation. About 87 percent of the difficulties fall in either or both of the first two classes.²³

Clement sent rating cards to the county, city, or district superintendent of schools in which beginning teachers were employed with a request that each new teacher be given a rating upon each of the three items on the card. Analysis of the first 1,500 returns indicated that " * * * 5 times as many teachers failed in discipline as in knowledge of subject matter and $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as many failed in techniques and method of instruction." Lack of adequate method was the most frequently mentioned defect due to poor preparation found in new teachers.²⁴ These studies of programs of preparation are representative of many similar ones and are consistent with evaluations using measured teaching success. The findings must, of course, be interpreted not as a statement of fact concerning causes of failure but as a statement of what superintendents and others think or say about causes of failure. If discipline is a trait receiving more attention from supervisors than instruction, then it is not difficult to see why supervisors' ratings failed to show a high correlation with scholarship.

THE RELATION OF TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS TO PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT

Criterion of teaching success.—One of the crucial problems in evaluating the education of teachers, if not indeed the crucial problem, is the discovery of a satisfactory criterion of teaching success. With such a criterion at hand, it would be possible immediately to make a scientific evaluation of the worth of various programs for the pre-service education of teachers through a study of the teaching efficiency of large groups of teachers prepared in accordance with those programs. It would be possible to determine what knowledge, skills, and attitudes are most commonly associated with good teaching, and thus to plan curricula definitely directed toward increasing these desirable assets. It would be possible to discover what capacities and personal traits are typical of good teachers, and thus to select for admission to institutions for the education of teachers the candidates most likely to become successful teachers. Scores of other problems relative to such matters as tenure, salary, methods of supervision, the value of practice teaching, age qualifications, requirements for certification, and the like, could be studied experimentally. In the absence of a valid and reliable criterion for teaching success, solutions for these urgent problems must be sought in the realm of expert opinion.

²³ Robinson, Clara L. *Psychology and the Preparation of the Teacher for the Elementary School*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. 121 pp. (Contributions to Education No. 418.)

²⁴ Clement, Evelyn A. *An Evaluation of Teacher Training*. Educational administration and supervision, 18:91-98, February 1952.

As already stated it became evident, early in the Survey, that satisfactory answers to many of the most troublesome controversial issues in the education of teachers could not be secured unless it was possible to measure teacher effectiveness with enough accuracy to distinguish between the work of a teacher with one type of preparation and that of another who had been educated by another method or for a different period of time. Accordingly, a 2-day conference of specialists in the measurement of personnel was called in November 1930, to discuss the possibilities of securing such measurements of teaching merit. Those present at this conference were: Dr. E. L. Thorndike, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dean M. E. Haggerty, University of Minnesota; Dr. Truman L. Kelley, professor of education, Harvard University; Dr. M. R. Trabue, professor of education and director of research division, University of North Carolina; Dr. Karl J. Holzinger, professor of education, University of Chicago; and members of the Survey staff.

As a result of the discussions of this conference, the following steps in an "evaluation program" were considered to be necessary: (1) The selection or development of satisfactory criteria of teaching merit. It was suggested that these criteria should fall in at least two fields, (a) the ratings of teachers by superintendents, principals, and supervisors, and (b) measures of the progress of children under the instruction of the teachers to be studied. (2) The discovery or development of some measure or measures of the teacher's ability which would distinguish varying degrees of teaching success. (3) The selection and measurement of groups of teachers, comparable in all respects except one which represents a controversial issue in the education of teachers, such as the length of professional preparation or the type of school in which it was secured. It was also considered necessary in the measurement of pupil progress to make sure that the classes were taught for the same length of time by the teachers who were being compared, that they should be equated as to intelligence, and that their progress should be measured not only by achievement tests in the regular school subjects (these it was thought would put a premium upon the drillmaster type of teacher) but also by tests of growth in such character traits as initiative, thoroughness, appreciation of art, health, and other elements not usually measured in achievement tests. It was further considered necessary to measure teachers with respect to intelligence, general information, especially in the fields in which they were teaching, professional information, and personality traits. These measures, in addition to making it possible to equate groups of teachers, might also indicate which phases of a teacher's equipment had the greatest effect upon his success and which gave the most accurate prediction during his preservice education of his later success as a teacher.

Such a program would have involved giving the battery of tests to the pupils before the teachers taught them and again at the completion of the year's instruction. This double testing involved so much time and expense that it became one of the most important reasons for the later abandonment of this plan. Even if the 1,000 teachers that were to be studied had classes averaging no more than 30 pupils in number, it would have meant testing 30,000 pupils on 2 different occasions. A number of other difficulties were considered by the specialists at this conference, for example, the difficulty of securing any pupil-achievement measure of teachers in the junior and senior high school where the pupils are under the instruction of a teacher for only one period a day and where progress in one subject may very easily be due in part to the inspiration or instruction of a teacher in an entirely different subject. It was, moreover, difficult to secure even 1,000 teachers in any one grade so distributed that they would represent adequate samples of teachers for more than 1 or 2 of the controversial issues, for example, those who had attended normal schools compared with those who had attended teachers colleges, or those who had attended teachers colleges compared with those who had attended liberal arts colleges, or those who had had much practice teaching compared with those who had had little, or those with 5 or more years of experience compared with those just beginning their work as teachers.

When all of the difficulties and limitations of such an evaluation program were presented to the Board of Consultants at a meeting in December 1930, it was decided not to undertake the program primarily for the following reasons: First, such a program would assume the nature of an extensive educational experiment instead of a survey, as was provided in the bill which authorized the Survey; second, to carry out the program for even 1,000 sixth-grade teachers would cost more money than the total sum appropriated for the Survey, and would therefore necessitate the abandonment of all other phases of the Survey; third, it would throw light upon (but probably not settle) only a few of the very troublesome questions now confronting those engaged in the education of teachers; and, fourth, there was a general lack of confidence in the available methods of rating and measurement which apply to the complex activity of teaching.

The desirability of such a measurement program, however, was conceded by the majority of the Board of Consultants, even though they did not feel that the Survey could undertake it. The recommendation was passed to attempt a few of the items in the larger program upon a much smaller and voluntary basis, using only data which were readily available in the immediate vicinity of Washington and which could be secured at little expense.

This substitute plan called for finding a convenient population of teachers such that certain measures of achievement were already available for their pupils and such that the teachers themselves could be asked to submit to a rather long testing program. The main task of the investigation now became the assembling of a series of tests for teachers, the selection from these of the most promising items, and the organizing of these into a battery, score on which would adequately discriminate between teachers who stimulate desirable changes in pupils to a large extent and teachers who stimulate such changes to a small extent. Subsidiary problems involved in this plan included: (1) The selection of a teacher group from which to secure the requisite data; (2) the definition of what is meant by "desirable change" in pupils and the decision as to how it should be measured; (3) a decision as to the method of allowing statistically for differences in the initial ability of pupils; (4) the statistical treatment of test items in the battery of teacher tests to secure maximum correlation of the total with a criterion—in this case with pupil change.

Several nearby cities and States were canvassed in order to find a pupil-teacher population meeting the following conditions:

1. Teachers of any one or all of grades 4 to 8, inclusive—
 - (a) Having at least 10 pupils.
 - (b) Having taught the same pupil-group throughout the school year 1930-31.
 - (c) Whose pupils were not taught any subject (i.e., any measured by the Stanford achievement test) by any other teacher (except an occasional substitute).
 - (d) Whose pupils were given the complete Stanford achievement test in the spring of 1930 and again in the spring of 1931.
 - (e) Whose official rating could be secured.
 - (f) Who were willing to take a 3-hour examination, under assurance of anonymity of results.
2. The following records available about the pupils of these teachers:
 - (a) Total or composite score on the Stanford achievement tests administered in the spring of 1930 and again in the spring of 1931.
 - (b) Highest and lowest subtest scores made by each pupil on this battery in the spring of 1930 and again in the spring of 1931.
 - (c) The date in the spring of 1930 and in the spring of 1931 on which the test was administered.
 - (d) The age of each pupil at the time either of the tests was administered.

These conditions were found to be partially met in the three cities, Washington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia. In each of these cities the Survey staff was able to secure some of the required data through the cooperation of Superintendents Frank W. Ballou, David E. Weglein, and Edwin C. Bröome, and their specialists in research and statistics. It was impossible, however, to get a large group of teachers for whom the foregoing conditions prevailed, because the same tests were not used in all three cities, and the testing was not done at the same time.

In the end it was necessary to depend almost entirely upon the scores on the Stanford reading test for the measure of pupil achievement. A number of studies have shown that reading correlates more highly with general ability and with achievement in the other subjects than any other single subject. It would, of course, have been highly desirable if test scores had been available in other subjects for the beginning and the end of the period under investigation. It would also have been desirable to have tests of character development and the other items mentioned in the original program. Since, however, these were not available in all the cities on comparable tests, nothing could be done to correct this limitation.

Method of measuring pupil achievement.—After it became evident that the reading subtest from the Stanford achievement test battery was the only available instrument for measuring pupil achievement, it was necessary to decide in what manner the scores should be treated to obtain a satisfactory measure of pupil progress. Since it had not been feasible to equate classes for intelligence and for initial ability in reading, it obviously became necessary to treat the scores in such a way as to allow for initial differences in ability.

The use of accomplishment quotients was decided to be undesirable on two counts. In the first place, a number of studies have shown such quotients to be unreliable. Coy, who studied the reliability of A.Q. changes for 26 teachers and 461 pupils over periods of 1 and 2 years, states: "The outstanding fact about the A.Q. changes for these 26 teachers is that only 2 are large enough to have satisfactory statistical reliability."⁶⁰ Odell reports: "A review of all known studies of the reliability of measures of achievement relative to capacity leads to the conclusion that their reliability is decidedly unsatisfactory. This is supported by original data obtained and presented by the writer."⁶¹ In the second place, to use gain in the mean accomplishment quotient of a class as a measure of the teacher would have introduced an error of measurement which might have caused serious attenuation in the correlations. Suppose that in the fall a class comes to teacher A with low mean A.Q. Thanks to the fact that her predecessor was not a highly successful teacher, Miss A is able to effect considerable improvement in the mean A.Q. of her class. Suppose that teacher B receives in the fall a class already working up to capacity. Thanks to the good work of her predecessor, their mean A.Q. is already so high that it is almost impossible for her to raise it further. The fact that Miss A's class makes a large gain in mean A.Q., while Miss B's class makes no gain at all, or at best a very small one, does

⁶⁰ Coy, Genevieve L. A Study of Various Factors Which Influence the Use of the Accomplishment Quotient as a Measure of Teaching Efficiency. *Journal of Educational Research*, 21: 29-42, January 1929.

⁶¹ Odell, C. W. A Critical Study of Measures of Achievement Relative to Capacity. Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois, 1922. 88 pp. (University of Illinois Bulletin, vol. 23, no. 23, Mar. 19, 1922. Bureau of Educational Research, Bulletin No. 45.)

not offer proof that Miss A is the better teacher. Since gain in mean A.Q. is a function not only of the competence of the present teacher but also of that of her predecessor, it is not a valid measure for use in studying teacher success.

The method decided upon was to utilize as basic data the scores of the pupils on the initial test as a measure of ability at that time and to correlate these with the gains made. Some of the studies in the psychology of learning have revealed a positive correlation between initial score and gain. Other studies involving school achievement have often shown a distinct tendency for those pupils who made high scores on the first test to make smaller gains than pupils who scored lower on the first test. To allow for the effect of whatever correlation, positive or negative, might exist between the score on the first test and the gain, it was decided to use partial correlation, holding score on the first test constant by this statistical means, thus in effect studying the relation between teacher traits and the gain made by the pupils above or below that amount of improvement which might be expected of them in the light of their ability as measured by the first test.

Six separate scores were computed for each pupil-group, as follows:

Mean score on Stanford reading test, first application.

Mean score on Stanford reading test, second application.

Variability (σ) of scores on Stanford reading test, first application.

Variability (σ) of scores on Stanford reading test, second application.

Mean age at beginning of investigation.

Variability (σ) of age at beginning of investigation.

These six scores furnished the measures of pupil achievement against which the various measurements of teachers were correlated.

It is a moot question whether good teaching should increase or decrease the variability of the class. There is some reason to believe that if every member of the class progresses at his optimum rate, the mean will increase and the distance between the two extremes of the group will also increase. However, an increase in both the mean and the variability of the class is not conclusive evidence that all members are progressing at their optimum rate, because these increases could be produced through neglect of the duller students and concentration of attention upon the brighter ones. On the other hand especial attention to removing the deficiencies of the duller pupils would tend to raise the mean score even if the brighter pupils made little or no progress, and in that case the variability would tend to decrease. The average gain will, therefore, be greatest when all members of the class are gaining, and when the brightest as well as the dullest are gaining to the full extent of their capacity. If the bright pupils learn the fastest under optimum conditions, the variability of the group will increase under such conditions. Consequently, using a *composite* of both measures of the group (mean and standard deviation) appears to

be more justifiable than using either alone as a criterion of teacher success. The philosophical implication is that in a democracy each pupil should have the opportunity to learn to the full extent of his capacity, and that neither dull nor bright pupils should be neglected.

THE TEST FOR TEACHERS

The primary purpose of the study is to select items which may be assembled into a short, highly reliable, easily administered test for teachers of such nature that score on it varies with the achievement of pupils under the tutelage of the teacher taking the test. In order to provide means for such selection of items, a large number must be tried out. In an unpublished study by G. L. Betts, a self-administering battery requiring from 3 to 5 hours of a teacher's time was tried, and a partial correlation of 0.413 ± 0.076 was found between the average achievement of pupils at the end of the experimental period and the score of the teacher, with age and pupil score at the beginning of the period held constant. This furnished one source of items. It was deemed desirable, however, to provide a supplementary source of items having a different nature. Consequently another 3-hour battery of tests was arranged. Subtests in this second battery could be grouped so that four rather distinct types of measures of a teacher could be secured. These were (1) professional information, (2) subject-matter vocabulary, (3) intelligence (Otis), and (4) vocabulary idiosyncrasy.

The subtests comprising the group measuring professional information were selected largely from two tests already available, but were supplemented by a few especially constructed for this battery. The construction of these tests was largely the work of the author of this part of the Survey. The Otis intelligence test was a separate unit in itself. The subject-matter vocabulary test was a series of five matching tests, covering the vocabulary of mathematics, science, history and government, grammar and language, English and American literature. Words were selected from the lists compiled by Pressey, definitions were obtained from the dictionary, and the two paralleled as a series of 5-minute matching tests.²² The words in these tests were designated by teachers as being important enough that pupils should know them. A composite score made by teachers on this battery is a measure of the extent to which teachers are acquainted with the vocabulary they say pupils should have in the subjects that teachers are teaching.

To measure the extent to which a teacher has a well-rounded, integrated mastery of subject matter or has interests and abilities

²² Pressey, Lucille C. *The Special Vocabularies of the Public-School Subjects*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co. 19 lists.

— *An Investigation of the Technical Vocabularies of the School Subjects*. *Educational Research Bulletin* (Ohio State University), 2: 122-124, Apr. 20, 1924.

in more special or narrow fields, a "vocabulary idiosyncrasy score" was devised. The former trait may be termed integration and the latter idiosyncrasy. The idiosyncrasy score is the extent to which a teacher scores high on some tests in this series of five and low on others. It is the exact opposite of an integration score, which would represent the tendency to make equivalent scores on all tests.

The subtests comprising the four measures which were obtained for all teachers were as follows:

A. Professional information.

1. National survey test concerning educational concepts.³³ A controlled completion test. 1 p. mimeographed. 10 minutes.
2. National survey test concerning books in education. Matching titles and authors.³⁴ 1 p. mimeographed. 5 minutes.
3. National survey test concerning educational periodicals. Identifying bona fide and fictitious titles. 1 p. mimeographed. 5 minutes.
4. Coxe-Orleans.³⁵ General information. p. 2. Short answer. 1 p. 4 minutes.
5. Coxe-Orleans. General information. pp. 3-5. Single choice, multiple response. 2½ pp. 5 minutes.
6. Coxe-Orleans. Comprehension. "The aim of education." p. 14. Alternate response. 1 p. 5 minutes.
7. Coxe-Orleans. Comprehension. "The laws of learning." p. 15. Matching. 1 p. 5 minutes.
8. Coxe-Orleans. Comprehension. "Instincts." p. 16. Mixed (matching and alternate response). 1 p. 5 minutes.
9. Carnegie.³⁶ Educational psychology. pp. 2-5. Alternate response. 4 pp. 2½ minutes per page.
10. Carnegie. Educational psychology. pp. 6-7. Multiple response, single choice. 2 pp. 2½ minutes per page.
11. Carnegie. Educational psychology. pp. 8-9. Matching 8 vs. 5 items in each of five groups. 1 minute per group.
12. Carnegie. Educational measurements. pp. 10-13. Alternate response. 4 pp. 2½ minutes per page.
13. Carnegie. Educational measurements. pp. 14-15. Multiple response, single choice. 2 pp. 2½ minutes per page.
14. Carnegie. Educational measurements. p. 16. Matching eight vs. five items in each of five groups. 1 minute per group.
15. Carnegie. Professional information. pp. 17-22. Alternate response. 6 pp. 2½ minutes per page.
16. Carnegie. Professional information. pp. 23-24. Multiple response, single choice. 2 pp. 2½ minutes per page.

³³ Concepts were selected from a list derived by Earle U. Rugg and lent to the writer. The development of this series of tests termed "National survey tests" was made possible by the kind assistance rendered by instructors, students, and teachers at Teachers College, Columbia University; Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.; Hanover, Pa. (extension class of Pennsylvania State College); and George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

³⁴ Coxe, Warren W., and Orleans, Jacob S. Coxe-Orleans Prognosis Test of Teaching Ability. Yonkers, N.Y., World Book Co., 1930. 30 pp.

³⁵ Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Professional education test. New York, N.Y., The Foundation, 1930. 35 pp.

- B. National survey test of subject-matter vocabulary. Matching 38 words with 34 definitions each in four groups. 1 p. mimeographed. 5 minutes.
1. Mathematics.
 2. Science.
 3. History and government.
 4. Grammar and language.
 5. English and American literature.
- C. Otis self-administering test of mental ability. Higher examination. Form A.²² 20 minutes.
- D. Vocabulary idiosyncrasy. Derived from group 2.

Hereafter, when reference is made to these subtests, the numbers given here will be used for brevity.

METHOD OF WEIGHTING ITEMS IN THE TEST FOR TEACHERS

It was hoped that it would be possible to select significant items from this list of tests and assemble them into a short, easily and rapidly administered test for teachers, score on which could be used to measure the expected achievement of pupils. Obviously the correlation between teacher score on the abbreviated test and pupil achievement may approach but may not exceed the correlation between pupil achievement and teacher score on the whole 3-hour battery, if scoring is adjusted to make the algebraic average inter-correlation a maximum. Consequently, a satisfactory set of items could not be selected for an abbreviated test unless there was a fair correlation between pupil achievement and teacher score on the total battery, with the subtests combined in the optimum manner.

The method employed for weighting the various subtests of the composite test was substantially that developed by Kelley in his *Interpretation of Educational Measurement* (p. 68). His method takes into account four factors: The variability (σ) of a test, its reliability, its importance, and its independence of the other tests in the battery.

As one step in the weighting of these tests, the teachers who took them were divided into two groups according to the ratings given them by supervisors and principals. One group consisted of those rated above average and the other those below average for the respective city groups. This gave two groups, 54 in the upper and 71 in the lower. The average scores made by these two groups on the different test elements were very similar, so similar in fact that in half of the cases the scores could for all practical purposes be called identical between the two groups. Of the slight differences which were found, the lower group made the higher score in 11 of the 21 subtests. The immediate inference is that these tests do not discriminate between teachers considered good and teachers considered poor

²² Otis, Arthur S. *Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability. Higher Examination: Form A.* Yonkers, N.Y., World Book Co., 1922. 4 pp.

by their supervisors. Examination of the circumstances under which these data were gathered, however, reveals certain factors which make this influence less certain. In the first place, the 125 teachers were not rated by a single judge but by a number of different supervisors and principals. The inevitable diversity of their standards of excellence would make an attenuating factor tending to obscure whatever relationship exists between score on these tests and supervisor's opinion of success. In the second place, judges were asked to rate the teachers on a 4-point scale in two cities and a 5-point scale in the third. None of them used the lowest category, and not many used the category second from the bottom. The teachers in the upper group were those rated "superior" and "good" by their judges. To get enough teachers to fill out the lower group, it was necessary to use not only those in the category "fair" but also some of those in the category "good", a procedure which made for a certain amount of overlapping in the groups. Consequently, the distance in judge's opinion between the upper and lower group is really not great enough to insure large differences in the means of related traits. It is evident that either (a) the tests did not distinguish between the above-average group and the below-average group as rated in these cities or (b) the two groups were uniformly superior, or at least so rated, and there was therefore practically no difference between them. There remained the possibility, however, that the scores made by teachers on these tests would be related to the progress of pupils under their instruction. The teachers' scores were therefore treated statistically in order to establish as accurately as possible any differences in reliability, importance, independence, and idiosyncrasy.⁶⁷ These differences were then weighted in order to secure a composite for each teacher upon certain groups of tests which were selected as measures of professional information, knowledge of subject matter, general intelligence, and specialization (indicated by vocabulary idiosyncrasy). These weighted scores were then compared with the measures of pupil progress obtained from the two scores on the Stanford reading test—at the beginning of the term taught by each teacher and at beginning of the next school year (the intervening vacation period was a constant factor in all cases).

Among the 125 teachers participating in the study, only 61 were found who taught all of the regular elementary school subjects to a group of pupils throughout the school year. Initial and final scores

⁶⁷ In reliability, the 16 tests ranged from 0.808 to 0.844 with an average reliability of 0.822 (intercorrelations between the subtests ranged from 0.06 to 0.60 with an average intercorrelation of 0.270). The reliability of the 5 vocabulary subtests ranged from 0.813 to 0.881, with an average of 0.841 (average intercorrelation of these 5 tests was 0.573). The index of importance for the 16 subtests as computed ranged from -5.9 to 5.2, and for the 5 vocabulary subtests, from -1.9 to 1.9. The index of independence for the 16 subtests ranged from 7.3 to 44.7, and for the 5 vocabulary subtests from 7.5 to 16.

on the Stanford reading test and age were known for each pupil included in the study. A number of variables with respect to the teachers persisted which tended seriously to destroy the possibility of securing significant measures. The 61 teachers were distributed through grades 4 to 8, inclusive. The pupil-groups ranged in size from 5 pupils to 72 pupils. Several teachers were teaching more than one grade with the resulting shorter periods of instruction. These variations must not be overlooked in drawing conclusions from the numerical results. It must also be remembered that a sampling of 61 individuals is smaller than would be desirable as the basis for generalizations, particularly when this sampling is far from homogeneous with respect to grades taught and other essential factors. Attempts were made to compare sixth-grade teachers with sixth-grade teachers or fourth-grade teachers with teachers having only fourth-grade pupils in their rooms. For such comparisons it was possible to secure groups of only 5, 7, and 8 teachers, which precluded any statistical reliability of the findings. Since, however, the study had been undertaken with these limitations, it seemed best to analyze the data which had been secured and to present the findings, recognizing their incompleteness but hoping that the method of treatment might be of value in further studies of this problem.

The method employed for studying the relationship between teacher score and pupil achievement was to correlate teacher score with a given measure of pupil achievement on the second test, holding constant the corresponding measure of the pupil group on the first test by the statistical device of partial correlation.

Two measures of the achievement of pupil-groups were selected: The average achievement of each group and the variability of each group. Both initial and final measures of each must be secured. In addition to these two initial measures of ability, two others were added: Average age of the pupil-group and the variability of the group in age. It was suspected that age might influence achievement and that variability in age might influence variability in achievement. These four initial measures in combination ought to account for the major portion of initial pupil ability regardless of whether the final average achievement or the variability of a pupil-group is used as a criterion measure. There are 10 factors involved in this phase of the study. They are given in table 8, together with the zero-order intercorrelations between them.

TABLE 8.—Zero-order intercorrelations between the 10 factors involved in a study of pupil-teacher relationship

Factor	r	s	y	x	w	v	t	u	z
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Professional information.....	0.196	0.240	-0.263	-0.012	0.0001	0.253	0.192	0.661	0.770
2. Subject-matter vocabulary.....	.214	.328	-.077	.083	.118	.286	.239	.659
3. Otis intelligence.....	.108	.240	-.069	-.176	.111	.088	.218
4. Vocabulary idiosyncrasy.....	.064	.0003	.136	-.086	-.106	-.046
5. Initial pupil reading (mean).....	-.225	.888	.117	.412	-.071
6. Initial reading variability (σ).....	.702	-.068	.091	.089
7. Initial pupil age (mean).....	.083	.184	.430
8. Initial age variability (σ).....	-.057	-.041
9. Final pupil reading (mean).....	-.248
10. Final reading variability (σ).....

The correlations among scores on the teacher tests merit special attention. The various intercorrelations between professional information, subject-matter vocabulary, and Otis intelligence test score are so high (0.770, 0.661, and 0.659) as to suggest considerable community of function among the three tests. On the other hand, the scores for vocabulary idiosyncrasy show low correlations (0.192, 0.239, and 0.218) with each of the first three. Not one of these last three correlations is statistically reliable, and any one of them might conceivably be a sampling variation drawn from a population in which the true correlation was zero or even negative. The test in vocabulary idiosyncrasy was found to have the lowest reliability of the four tests ($r_{11}=0.65$) and the question arises as to whether the intercorrelations with scores on this test are low merely because of its unreliability. If the largest of the intercorrelations between this test and any other, namely $r=0.239$ between vocabulary idiosyncrasy and subject-matter vocabulary, is corrected for attenuation, the result is only 0.30. Hence it must be concluded that the measure of vocabulary idiosyncrasy and also of its opposite, vocabulary integration, is relatively independent of such other measures as the Otis intelligence test score, professional information and subject-matter vocabulary.⁶⁸ In the weighting of these tests, vocabulary idiosyncrasy was found to possess a high degree of independence from the other measures.

A relatively close relationship is apparent between first and second measures of reading ability, the correlation between the means being 0.888 and between the sigmas 0.702. It is obvious that pupil score on the second test is more closely related to pupil score on the first test than to any measure of the teacher obtained in this study.

When the relationship between measures of the pupil and measures of the teacher is studied, we see at once that the scores of vocabulary idiosyncrasy do not exhibit a significant correlation with any pupil-

⁶⁸ It is, of course, possible that the lack of correlation is due to lack of linearity in the distribution of idiosyncrasy scores, rather than to independence.

measure. The other three tests show uniformly larger correlations with the mean pupil score on the second test than with the mean pupil score on the first test, which is probably one of the most interesting facts shown in the table of correlations. The largest increase in correlation from first test to second is that with the Otis intelligence test (first test, 0.095; second test, 0.240). The largest of these six correlations, however, is only 0.34 ± 0.08 , which has a low predictive value, the coefficient of alienation being 0.94. The Otis intelligence test scores appear equally unrelated to the variability of the pupil group whether on the first or second test, but the other two teacher measures show a positive relationship to variability on the second test. Thus there seems to be a slight—a very slight—tendency for pupil groups to show more variability on second tests when their teachers have high scores in professional information and subject-matter vocabulary.

The correlations with pupil-age are worthy of attention. The correlation of 0.412 between mean pupil-age and mean initial reading test seems reasonable, as does the correlation of 0.430 between mean pupil-age and variability in age. It is reasonable to expect that both mean pupil-age and variability in age would be independent of any teacher measure, as there seems to be no rational explanation of any cause and effect relationship. However, there is a correlation of -0.263 ± 0.09 between professional information of the teacher and variability in the age of her pupils. If this is interpreted as a sampling variation from a correlation which is really zero in the total population, there are left only nine correlations which can be clearly asserted to be different from zero. These are: The 3 correlations between pairs of teacher tests; the 2 correlations between first and second reading means, first and second reading sigmas; the 2 correlations between mean age and first reading test, mean age, and sigma age; and the 2 correlations between mean of the second reading test and the teacher tests on professional information and subject-matter vocabulary.

These zero-order coefficients of correlation fail to give any clear picture of the relation between a teacher trait and pupil progress in reading because for each of them the relationship between any two variates is complicated by the presence of extraneous factors. It would be desirable to have a large number of teachers working under uniform conditions, with classes all of which have at the beginning of the study the same mean chronological age, mean mental age, and mean score on a first test in the subject in which improvement is to be measured, and also the same variability in these factors. Such a teacher-pupil group would yield a multiple regression equation to predict subject-matter progress of the pupils on the basis of measures of the teacher. A correlation between predicted measures of pupil progress

and actual measures would then reveal with what success such a prediction could be made irrespective of the initial status of the pupils. This solution is out of the question in the present study. The nearest statistical approach to it is by a partial multiple correlation coefficient, where the factors of mean age, mean reading score, sigma of age, and sigma of reading score at beginning of the experiment are held constant as in partial correlation, and the multiple correlation is found between second-reading test and the measures of teacher traits within the universe defined by the variates partialled out.²⁰ By this method one of the criterion measures of pupil achievement can be correlated with the composite of all the teacher measures, each being given the optimum weight in that composite, and at the same time the extraneous influence of pupil scores on the initial test can be eliminated.

It is necessary to calculate the zero-order correlations between each of these 2 composite criterion measures and the other 8 variables. These values are given in table 9. Tables 10 and 11 contain partial beta regression coefficients and multiple correlation coefficients.

TABLE 9.—Zero-order correlation coefficients between each of 4 criterion measures of pupil achievement and the other 8 variables

Criterion	Measure of the teacher				Initial measure of pupil-groups			
	1	2	3	4	v	w	x	y
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
r_{12}	0.340	0.328	0.340	0.0002	0.368	-0.068	0.194	-0.041
r_{13}	.196	.214	.108	.054	-.235	.702	.083	-.057
r_{14}	.461	.456	.330	.048	.880	.489	.183	-.004
r_{15}	.098	.084	.088	-.004	.707	-.478	.110	.017

TABLE 10.—Partial beta regression coefficients (for predicting each criterion) and multiple correlation coefficients

Criterion	Measure of the teacher				Initial measure of pupil-groups				Multiple correlation r_{12}
	1	2	3	4	v	w	x	y	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
r_{12}	0.028	-0.068	0.129	0.027	0.368	0.013	-0.147	-0.083	0.92
r_{13}	.312	.075	-.210	.100	-.284	.708	.101	-.072	.79
r_{14}	.123	-.010	-.008	.006	.342	.272	-.008	.007	.96
r_{15}	-.015	-.008	.022	.002	.550	.208	-.015	-.0001	.98

²⁰ Tappan, M. On Partial Multiple Correlation Coefficients in a Universe of Manifest Characteristics. *Biometrika*, 19: 39-44, July 1927.

TABLE 11.—Partial beta regression coefficients (for predicting each of the 4 criteria without reference to measures of the teacher) and the multiple correlation coefficients

Criterion	Initial measures of pupil-groups				Multiple correlation
	v	w	x	y	
1	2	3	4	5	6
o	0.975	0.021	-0.196	-0.077	0.913
i	-.216	.601	.141	-.156	.729
oz	.093	.555	-.057	-.167	.810
oz'	.751	-.416	-.192	.050	.842

The correlation between oz and oz' is 0.082. The multiple correlations in tables 10 and 11 reveal again the fact that the final achievement of pupils is quite closely related to the ability of pupils a year previous and that a prediction is only slightly improved by the addition of measures of the teacher to the group of predictive factors.

Each of the four criterion measures (second measures of pupil achievement) may be examined and a general notion of the final results of the study obtained. Is the teacher-pupil relationship likely to be closer in relation to the average achievement scores of the pupil-groups or in relation to the variability of the pupil-groups? If the size of the correlations in table 11 (between first and second pupil-achievement scores) is indicative, the answer is that the pupil-teacher relationship is closer with relation to the variability of his pupil-groups. What combination of the two measures of final pupil achievement yields closer measures of pupil-teacher relationship? From table 11, the answer is that such relationship is closer when it is assumed that a high-scoring teacher increases both the average achievement and the variability of his pupil-group than when it is assumed that he increases average achievement but at the same time makes pupils in the group more alike. This accords with a common belief that superior pupils should achieve at a faster rate than dull pupils, but is in conflict with data yielded by research studies which show that the initially dull make the greater gains. However, these observations are based upon a casual inspection of the coefficients in table 11. The values given by the partial-multiple correlation treatment⁷⁰ are shown in table 12.

⁷⁰ A symbol appropriate for such a measure would be $R_{c(1234)xyz}$ where c represents the criterion variate, the numbers in parentheses, (1234), represent the variates included in the multiple-regression equation from which the criterion is predicted, and the numbers following the raised point, .5678, represent those variates which are held constant statistically by partial correlation. Thus the numbers after the point represent variates which are held constant to define the universe of discourse within which the relationship is to be found between the criterion and a composite of the variates named by the numbers in the parentheses.

Tappan gives the formula $R_{c(1234)xyz} = \frac{R_{c(1234)xy} - R_{c(1234)z}}{1 - R_{c(1234)z}^2}$. (Tappan, M. On Partial-Multiple Correlation Coefficients in a Universe of Manifold Characteristics. *Biometrika*, 19: 30-44, July 1927.)

TABLE 12.—Partial-multiple correlation coefficient showing pupil-teacher relationships

The criterion name	Correlation
<i>o</i> . Pupil achievement.....	R_o (1234). $v_{wxy} = 0.289$.
<i>s</i> . Heterogeneity of achievement ¹¹	R_s (1234). $v_{wxy} = 0.422$.
<i>os</i> . Hetero'-achievement ¹²	R_{os} (1234). $v_{wxy} = 0.485$.
<i>os'</i> . Homo'-achievement ¹³	$R_{os'}$ (1234). $v_{wxy} = 0.333$.

The correlation between heterogeneity-plus-achievement and teacher-measures (0.485) is higher than that between either of these criteria alone and teacher-measures. This is some slight evidence that a single criterion of teaching ability is inadequate and that a composite of several will increase the likelihood of finding significant pupil-teacher relationships. In this case, the apparent teacher influence increases when two separate measures of pupil achievement are combined into a single criterion. Are these two measures of pupil achievement independent of each other? Correlations reported in table 8 show that they are almost completely independent at the beginning of the year, the correlation being -0.07 ; but that this small negative correlation became negative to a more pronounced degree during the year's instruction, being -0.248 at the end of the year. All in all, the data in this study indicate that there is a general tendency for both the achievement and homogeneity of pupil-groups to increase under school influences but that teachers scoring high on the tests applied induce an increase in achievement and also in heterogeneity (which means decreased homogeneity). This latter state of affairs is desirable if it means that superior pupils make gains more commensurate with ability.

Heterogeneity in the pupil-group should not be used as a single measure of achievement, because it can be secured by causing dull pupils to forget some of the things they knew initially and by inducing superior pupils to learn. If both average achievement and heterogeneity of pupil-groups are taken in combination, such an influence serves to reduce the composite score because a maximum composite can be attained only by increasing both concurrently.

This leads again to the consideration of a multiple criterion. Another aspect of pupil achievement should be included; this is idiosyncrasy. It seems reasonable to assume that rather independent traits, abilities, or special factors exist. Should school influence tend to stimulate development in these special abilities? Or should it tend to emphasize special weaknesses? Are special weaknesses eliminated best by direct attack? Or do they become eliminated more completely as an incident in the stimulation of special abilities? Does the development of special abilities, with an apparent neglect of

¹¹ The standard deviation of achievement scores in a pupil group.

¹² Measures *o* and *s* made comparable and summed. By formula $o-s + \frac{(o-M_o)}{\sigma_o}$ and $s-s + \frac{(s-M_s)}{\sigma_s}$.

¹³ Inverted *s*-measures added to comparable *o*-measures, by formula $o-s - \frac{(s-M_s)}{\sigma_s}$.

special weaknesses, inhibit success in life? This study yielded some slight evidence pertinent to the last question.

When final pupil achievement (either the mean of the group or its heterogeneity) is assumed to be a criterion of a teacher's success, reference to the coefficients in table 8 shows very low but positive correlation between the idiosyncrasy of the teacher and this measure, whereas the correlation was slightly negative between initial pupil ability and the teacher's vocabulary idiosyncrasy score. However, none of the correlations is high enough to be considered statistically reliable. Whatever this measure is worth, it suggests that idiosyncrasy has not been proved a liability. If the other three measures of the teacher be taken as criterion measures, this suggestion is strengthened because all three correlations are positive. Insofar as these data furnish evidence concerning the relation between success in life and idiosyncrasy, the relation seems to be positive.

The preliminary problem which the Survey set itself to solve, in order to evaluate different programs for the preparation of teachers by measuring the ability of teachers produced by each, was to create a source from which to select items to be assembled into an abbreviated test for teachers which would predict or indicate the probable achievement of their pupils. It was assumed that if the score on such a test and the achievement of pupils correlated to the extent of 0.45, differences of the kind being studied between 2 groups of 100 teachers each could be measured with a certainty of 5 to 1.⁷⁴ It was recognized that the abbreviated test would not exceed but would only approach the reliability of a composite score on all the items contained in the 3-hour battery of tests. The correlation of 0.485 reported in table 12 (correlation between the composited pupil achievement plus heterogeneity and the composited measures of teachers, holding the initial measures of pupils constant) exceeds the agreed upon requirements for the abbreviated test (a correlation of 0.45), although by such a small margin that the selection of the smaller test on the basis of the data available did not seem warranted. Other considerations such as the reduced appropriation and the limited amount of time available prevented any further attempt to secure the necessary additional data and led to the decision to terminate at this point the attempt to evaluate different programs for the preparation of teachers through the measurement of the ability of graduates to stimulate pupil achievement.

CONCLUSIONS

Although the investigations reviewed were made under a variety of conditions which have not been described here in detail, and with various sizes of samples, from different populations, they present a

⁷⁴ Kelley, T. H. *Interpretation of Educational Measurements*. Chicago, Ill., World Book Co., 1927, p. 210.

fairly consistent picture of the relationship between teaching success as indicated by ratings and such measures as scholastic marks, amount of professional training, score on tests of professional information or interest, or success in practice teaching. To draw detailed conclusions from a single one of these studies would require more careful analysis of the conditions under which it was made and the procedure followed, but the general picture provided by the totality of the studies has meaning.

All of the measures which have been here related to teaching success show a positive relationship to it, but no one of them alone shows a relationship sufficiently large to warrant using it as a predictive measure. This suggests the possibility that teaching success may be a function of a very large number of variates each of which contributes a small influence upon the trait, but from which it has not thus far been possible to isolate any small group whose influence is predominant to the exclusion of the others. It is conceivable that the failure to date to isolate a small group of measures with high predictive value for teaching success is due to faulty technique on the part of research workers. It is also conceivable that it is due, not to inadequate research methods, but to the fact that many different factors of preparation, of administration, of curriculum, of teacher personality all work together, no. 1 or 2 or 3 assuming outstanding importance. The most probable reason, however, is that a criterion measure of teaching success having adequate reliability has not yet been discovered.

CHAPTER II

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF MEASURES OF TEACHING ABILITY OR TEACHING SUCCESS

In all attempts to date, some insuperable and unknown difficulty has prevented finding a close relation between the preparation of teachers and their ability to teach. It appears quite probable that a major source of difficulty lies in the measures of teaching ability employed. This chapter contains a critical analysis of the various measures heretofore employed. It is an attempt to show wherein such measures are imperfect and to clear the way for future studies.

ASPECTS OF RELIABILITY

There are 3 sources of possible unreliability in any study in which a judgment of 1 person, or 1 situation, is recorded by another person. These are: (1) The person making the judgment or observation, (2) the person or situation of whom the judgment is made or the observation taken, and (3) the instrument employed.

In the first place, to the extent that the record in question depends upon such factors as the discrimination, alertness, interest, sense of value, feeling tone, physical or emotional condition, or enthusiasm of the judge, insofar will that record be affected by uncontrollable fluctuations. It is well known that if a teacher ranks 50 compositions in order of merit and, after a passage of time in which he has forgotten the ranks assigned he again arranges them in order of merit, the two rankings will show discrepancies. Such discrepancies cannot be due to changes in the objects judged, for the compositions have not been altered. They cannot be ascribed to the use of different instruments if the same rating scale has been used on both occasions. Whatever lack of agreement there may be in the two sets of ranks must be attributed to fluctuations in the person making the judgment. The correlation between two such series may quite appropriately be called a measure of *consistency*.

The observer is subject not only to day-by-day and hour-by-hour fluctuations which introduce unreliability into his estimates, but also to general bias which causes him to overemphasize certain aspects of the situation and to neglect others, to rate consistently too high or too low, to rate a person high in one trait because he has a favorable opinion of him in another respect, to rate techniques too high or too low because he approves or disapproves of the underlying philosophy

and vice versa. A rater may be highly consistent in judgment and yet be a poor rater because of failure to discriminate the essentials. It is generally assumed that a rater is "good" when his ratings of the same product are consistent, and agree well with the consensus of other experts. Agreement with other experts, when expressed as a correlation coefficient, may quite appropriately be called *objectivity*, since the agreement becomes closer as the thing in question becomes more object-like. The correlation with some independent criterion measure is called *validity*.

Not all the investigations which have used teacher-rating devices have taken into account the unreliability of the rater. It should be laid down as a fundamental principle for such studies that they should always include some measure of the extent of agreement between at least 2 judges observing simultaneously, or in case of trait ratings, of 2 judges making independent estimates. Wide reading of research studies reveals a regrettably large number which have used the estimate of a single judge unquestioningly, as though it were an objective fact not subject to errors of measurement. Careful workers investigate the competence of their judges before they make the major investigation, and undertake the actual gathering of data only after they are assured of the ability of the judges.

Thorndike's advice¹ given in 1920, is still too often disregarded. He wrote, " . . . in all work on ratings for qualities the observer should report the evidence, not a rating, and the rating should be given on the evidence pertaining to each quality separately without knowledge of the evidence concerning any other quality in the same individual."

In the second place, the instrument used—test, scale, rating device, scheme of observations—is not entirely reliable, and not entirely valid. Out of a vast number of possible items, a certain number are selected for inclusion in form A of a test or scale, and others for form B. If scores on form A show high correlation with scores on form B the test or scale is said to be reliable. If scores on both forms show high correlation with an independent criterion, the test or scale is said to be valid. Few investigators today neglect to study this aspect of reliability, for it is now quite generally recognized that the reliability of the instrument itself conditions the size of correlations between measurements made with that instrument and any criterion.

The correlation between scores of the same persons on two comparable forms of the same test is called the *reliability coefficient* of that test. The correlation between scores on a test and any other measure whatever cannot be, except for chance errors, larger than the square root of the reliability coefficient of that test. Then if the reliability

¹ Thorndike, Edward L. A Constant Error in Psychological Rating. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 4:25-29, March 1920.

coefficient of a test is 0.64, we shall not expect it to show a correlation higher than $\sqrt{0.64} = 0.80$ with any other measure. The correlation between scores on two tests cannot be expected to exceed the square root of the product of their reliability coefficients. Then if two tests have reliability coefficients of 0.75 and 0.90, the limit of the correlation between them, in case of complete community of function, would be $\sqrt{0.75 \times 0.90} = 0.82$. These relations do not, of course, refer merely to the reliability of the instrument, but to the reliability of the final measurement, whether that be affected by unreliability of the user, the instrument, the person measured, or all three.²

Although the three terms, *reliability*, *objectivity*, and *consistency*, appear in the literature, the discussion will use loosely the word *reliability* to cover all three.

In the third place the object of observation or measurement is not always a static unvarying quantity. If the object of observation is a person, he exhibits both (a) consistent changes in behavior which may be studied as trends over a period of time and (b) more or less random fluctuations from day to day and hour to hour. Thus when the same persons take the same objective test on 2 occasions, and when the amount of change is not constant from person to person, the correlation between the 2 sets of scores is not perfect. When the object of study is a complex situation such as a class, it is even more strikingly true that two different observations almost inevitably show discrepant results. Given the same pupils, the same teacher, and the same subject matter, the quality of the recitation is affected by a multitude of subtle and variable factors, such as the physical condition of the teacher and of each individual pupil; or domestic incidents in their lives which condition their preparation, attention, freshness, and their tempers; or all the climatic, human, educational, economic, and physical environment which makes human beings differ from day to day in their reaction to similar stimuli. When the criterion of teaching ability is a rating or score based upon classroom observation it is therefore essential that at least two observations be made of the same teacher. Ideally these should be made on different days so that they are affected by different factors of physical condition and extraschool happenings, and they should be made when he is teaching different pupils or different subject matter to obtain as wide a sampling of his range of activities as possible. Then the necessary measure of the *consistency* of his performance under variable conditions should be found.

Despite the considerations described above the correlation between pupil achievement (as usually measured) on two occasions is very high. Pupil gain is thus an inadequate criterion of teaching ability.

² Euck, G. M. and Stoddard, George D. *Tests and Measurements in High-School Instruction*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, World Book Co., 1927.

Kelley, Truman L. *Statistical Method*. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1923.

Three recent studies have made contributions to the problem of establishing the reliability of such measures. These were made by Cureton, Dunlap, and Thorndike.³

Ruch made a study of 2 of these 3 variables in relationship to State diploma examinations. He found a reliability of 0.62 when the scorer was the main variable, 0.43 when the scorer was constant and the examination varied, and 0.38 when both scorer and examination were variable.⁴ What would he have found if the examinees had taken a second examination after the lapse of a year and it had been scored by a second judge, as is sometimes done when rating teachers?

The consistency of two sets of ratings by the same judge is shown by Walton⁵ who had 50 business men rearrange 25 letters of application for a position as bookkeeper in order of merit regarding each of 4 traits after an interval long enough to rule out the factor of memory. The correlations obtained are shown in table 13. Although these judges were ranking the identically same letters on the two occasions, and the only source of unreliability was in the judges themselves, some of the correlations between the two ratings were little above zero.

TABLE 13.—*Lowest and highest correlation between order of merit ranking and reranking of 25 letters of application by 50 business men*

Trait	Correlations	
	Lowest	Highest
Intelligence	0.08	0.72
Tact	.18	.72
Reliability	.20	.73
Neatness	.14	.91

Judges vary also among themselves. Zerbe had students grade a series of lap-joint specimens for merit on 5 different days with a week intervening between each. He reported that, " * * * the judgments of an individual vary as much from time to time as do the judgments of different individuals."

Agreement between 2 judges or 2 groups of judges.—Other data concerning the variability of judges are given in table 14, showing that

³ Cureton, Edward E. Errors of Measurement and Correlation. Archives of Psychology, no. 125. May 1921.

Dunlap, Jack W. Comparable Tests and Reliability. Journal of Educational Psychology, 24:442-453, 1933.

Thorndike, Robert L. The Effect of the Interval Between Test and Re-Test in the Constancy of the I.Q. Journal of Educational Psychology, 24:543-549, October 1933.

⁴ Ruch, G. M. Investigations of Tests and Examinations in the Social Studies. In Studies in Education, yearbook 15:108-119. The National Society of College Teachers of Education. Chicago, Ill., The University of Chicago press, 1927. 205 pp.

⁵ Walton. On the Reliability of Judgments Regarding Letters of Application. Master's thesis. New York, N.Y., Columbia University, psychology department. (Cited by Poffenberger and Vartanian, p. 74.)

when the ratings of 1 judge are correlated with the ratings of a second and of a third, 2 entirely different coefficients would be obtained.

TABLE 14.—*Lowest and highest correlation between different pairs of judges among a group*

Description of judge and trait	Correlation.	
	Lowest	Highest
1 judge vs. the group ¹	0.28	0.70
1 teacher's guess concerning final grade of a student vs. another teacher's guess ²	.30	.58
Pairs of instructors rating students ³	.20	.64

¹ Hollingworth, H. L. Experimental Studies in Judgment. *Psychological Review*, 18: 132-156, March 1911.

² Kaulfers, W. V. A Guessing Experiment in Foreign-Language Prognosis. *School and society*, 32: 535-538, October 18, 1930.

³ Kornhauser, Arthur W. A Comparison of Raters. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 5: 338-344, January 1927.

Barr and Emans examined 209 rating scales and listed 6,939 items. The items descriptive of the personal characteristics of teachers were fitted into the list of 25 traits derived by Charters and Waples and rank order was determined by frequency of mention. The authors report a rank order correlation between these two independently derived lists to be approximately 0.40. Byrd secured data from superintendents and students from which to rank qualities of successful teachers. The correlation between these two group judgments was reported to be 0.92. Charters and Waples report a correlation of 0.73 between the translation of trait actions into traits by one judge, and translation by another judge. They estimated a correlation of 0.97 between the average opinion of five translators and the average opinion of an infinite number. (The correlation between five versus five would be less.) Tildsley secured written sketches concerning their best teacher from 1,604 pupils and from 423 administrators. Two lists of characteristics were derived and reported with the frequency of mention of each item. The correlation (not reported by the author) between the items common to the two lists is 0.35. Trow and McLouth presented three lists of traits found in three independent studies of rating cards. The average correlation between the ranking of traits common to any 2 of the 3 lists is found (not by authors) to be 0.27. Three similarly derived lists of causes of failure are reported from which an average intercorrelation of 0.75 may be derived. Tyler reported correlations ranging from 0.38 to 0.76 between various rankings of teaching activities by a group of educator-philosophers and a group of teachers. Shannon evolved a list of 73

teacher traits and arrayed them in importance by the following nine different techniques:

1. Interview with 97 supervisors regarding (a) traits possessed by the best teacher and (b) traits absent in the worst teacher.
2. Studies concerning student-estimates of teachers.
3. Analysis of rating scales.
4. Analysis of recommendations and recommendation blanks.
5. Studies concerning reasons for failure.
6. Certification and tenure laws.
7. Questionnaire returns from critic teachers.
8. Analysis of a collection of supervisory notes.
9. Massed opinion of 75 interviewers.

The average intercorrelation between these nine rankings was 0.42. Stepping this up by means of the Spearman-Brown formula yields an estimated reliability coefficient of 0.87 for the composite ranking. These data are summarized in table 15.

TABLE 15.—*Correlation between the ranking of a list of traits or activities by one judge or group of judges and by another judge or group of judges*

Items ranked:	Correlation
Translation of trait actions into traits by 5 judges and an infinite number. (Theoretical value) ⁶	0.97
Teacher qualities ranked by superintendents and students ⁷92
Ranking of teachers' activities by educator-philosophers for importance and by teachers for importance ⁸76
Causes of failure derived and ranked from 3 independent studies ⁹75
Translation of trait actions into traits by 1 translator and by another. Average ⁶73
Ranking of teachers' activities by educator-philosophers for importance and by teachers for desirability of training ⁸57
Ranking of teachers' activities by educator-philosophers for importance and by teachers for frequency of performance ⁸49
73 traits ranked by importance by 9 different techniques. Average intercorrelation ¹⁰42
Teacher characteristics from rating scales correlated with Charters and Waples list ¹¹40
Ranking of teachers' activities by educator-philosophers for importance and by teachers for difficulty of learning ⁸38
Traits derived and ranked from written sketches by pupils and administrators ¹²35
Traits derived and ranked from 3 independent studies of rating cards ⁹27

⁶ Charters, W. W., and Waples, Douglas. *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*. Chicago: Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1929. 666 pp.

⁷ Byrd, Bessie I. *Analysis of Teaching Efficiency*. Master's thesis. Columbia, S.C., University of South Carolina, 1924. 37 pp.

⁸ Tyler, R. W. *Evaluating the Importance of Teachers' Activities*. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 287-292, April 1930.

⁹ Trow, William O., and McLeuth, Florence. *An Improvement Card for Student-Teachers*. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 18: 1-10, 127-133, January-February 1929.

¹⁰ Shannon, John Raymond. *Personal and Social Traits Requisite for High-Grade Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Terre Haute, Ind., State Normal Press, 1928. 112 pp.

¹¹ Barr, A. S., and Emans, Lester M. *What Qualities are Prerequisite to Success in Teaching?* *Nation's Schools*, 6: 60-64, September 1930.

¹² Tildesley, John L. *Better Teaching in the High Schools of New York City*. New York, N.Y., Board of Education. *Bulletin of high points*, 9: 1-148, October 1927.

The only one of the correlations which appears large enough to warrant the individual use of the list represented is an estimated coefficient and consequently is not available for predictive purposes.¹²

Table 16 summarizes the findings of 11 studies concerning the agreement between the ratings of one judge or group of judges with another judge or group of judges concerning the merit of teachers in service. These and the other studies previously quoted indicate that accurate judging of any individual by means of a rating scale requires that a number of judges rate the teacher independently and on different occasions, preferably on a number of different scales, in order to secure his accurate placement upon a true scale.

TABLE 16.—*Correlation between the rating of teachers in service by one judge or group of judges and by another judge or group of judges*

Description of judges and kind of rating:	Correlation
Median rating on separate traits by 4 observers ¹⁴	0.96
Ratings by supervisors and by teachers ¹⁵96
Rating by each of 2 groups of supervisors ¹⁶92
Mutual ratings by 2 teacher-groups ¹⁶90
Rating by principal and by vice principal ¹⁷82
Ranking by superintendent and by supervisor ¹⁸80
2 rankings by 1 judge and 2 rankings by another judge ¹⁹75
Rating by independent raters ²⁰72
Rating by each of 2 groups of teachers ¹⁸72
Graphic rating by 21 principals and by two supervisors ²¹70
Rating by teachers and by supervisors ¹⁶68
Graphic rating by eight supervisors, minimum ²²65

¹² It may be argued that these correlations represent agreement between judges concerning the relative value of each trait and not their agreement concerning the desirability of inclusion or exclusion in the list, and that this latter is the crucial consideration. Empirical verification of this hypothesis would make an interesting study.

¹⁴ Collings, Ellsworth. A Conduct Scale for the Measurement of Teaching. *Journal of Educational Method*, 6: 97-108, November 1926.

¹⁵ Knight, F. B. *Qualities Related to Success in Teaching*. New York, N.Y. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922. (Contributions to Education, no. 120)

¹⁶ Boardman, Charles W. An Analysis of Pupil Ratings of High-School Teachers. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 440-446, September 1920.

¹⁷ Nanninga, S. P. Estimates of Teachers in Service made by Graduate Students as Compared with Estimates Made by Principal and Assistant Principal. *School Review*, 36: 622-626, October 1928.

¹⁸ Bathurst, James Elmer. A Diagnostic Study of Teaching Ability. Doctor's thesis. Iowa City, Iowa, State University of Iowa, 1926. 43 pp.

¹⁹ French, William O. An Analysis of the Correlation Between Teaching Ability and 13 Measurable Classroom Activities. Master's thesis. Chicago, Ill., department of education, University of Chicago, 1924. 112 pp.

²⁰ Almy, H. C., and Sorenson, Herbert. A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 179-186, March 1920.

²¹ Ties, Ernest Walter. An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1928. p. 108.

²² Hays, M. S., and Paterson, Donald G. Experimental Development of the Graphic Rating Method. *Psychological Bulletin*, 18: 96-99, February 1921.

TABLE 16.—*Correlation between the rating of teachers in service by one judge or group of judges and by another judge or group of judges—Continued*

Description of judges and kind of rating—Continued.	Correlation
Rating on a card by 1 group and by another group ²³	0.46
Rating by teachers and by executives ²⁴43
Superintendents' rating and average rating by other judges on a rating card ²⁵32

Two authors report group judgments concerning the merit of student teachers. Coefficients of correlation are given in table 17.

TABLE 17.—*Correlation between the average opinion of critic teachers concerning the merit of a student teacher and the average opinion of other specified groups of judges*

Form of score and description of judges:	Correlation
Rating on a 38-page scale by critic teachers vs. rating by board of supervisors ²⁶	0.78
Composite rating on 7 traits by critic teachers vs. college instructors rating on general merit ²⁶54
General merit rating by critic teachers vs. general merit rating by college instructors ²⁶50

According to these data, critic teachers agreed to some extent with supervisors, both were probably rating teachers upon teaching skills. The correlation is lower between critic teachers and college instructors, who probably were rating teachers upon their proficiency in the various college subjects.

Graduate students sometimes observe and rate teachers. Nannings reported the data in table 18.²⁷

TABLE 18.—*Correlation between the average rating given by 9 graduate students to each of 15 teachers in service and the rating given each by other specified judges*

Description of judges:	Correlation
Graduates' rating vs. rating by vice principal.....	0.76
Graduates' rating vs. composite by principal and vice principal.....	.56
Average rating given by 9 graduate students vs. rating by principal.....	.47

Fritz studied the variability of judgment in the rating of teachers by students and concluded that "The score that any individual may give a particular item seems to be of little value [but] * * * student ratings are of value when the combined estimate of a group is taken."²⁸

²³ Johnston, J. H. An Investigation into the Elements Which Constitute Good Teaching in the Elementary School. In Gregg, Russell T., and Hamilton, Thomas T. Annotated Bibliography of Graduate Theses in Education at the University of Illinois. p. 40. Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois. 1931.

²⁴ Slawson, John. The Reliability of Judgements of Personal Traits. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 6:161-171, June 1922.

²⁵ Adams, Edwin W. A Qualitative Analysis of Certain Teaching Traits. Philadelphia, Pa., Temple University, 1930. 96 pp.

²⁶ Mercereau, Edward B. A Study of the Virtues and Faults of Practice Teachers. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 13:467-475, October 1927.

²⁷ Nannings, S. P. Estimates of Teachers in Service Made by Graduate Students as Compared with Estimates Made by Principal and Assistant Principal. *School Review*, 36:622-626, October 1928.

²⁸ Fritz, M. F. The Variability of Judgment in the Rating of Teachers by Students. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12:630-634, December 1921.

Judging from the data given by Nanninga, a combined estimate of more than nine students is required before a judgment concerning the merit of an individual teacher can be accepted safely.

College students sometimes are requested to rate their instructors. Guthrie found, when 87 college instructors each were ranked among others by 5 or more (the average number being 16.5) of their students, that the average correlation between pairs of student rankings was 0.26. When the rankings were divided into 2 random halves, the correlation between the 2 group averages was 0.79.²⁹ Wilson constructed a rating blank containing 35 topics in the form of questions, each having 5 tentative answers, 1 of which was to be selected by the judge. A scoring scheme was devised and students in each section of 97 instructors' classes were instructed to rate their instructors by means of this device. Correlations between class averages in the two sections gave coefficients ranging between 0.65 and 0.88 on a dozen topics selected at random.³⁰ The average opinion of each section concerning the instructor, expressed as a composite of all 35 topics, can be taken safely as the opinion of the other section, even when the trait having the smallest coefficient (0.65) is considered the average.

Boardman studied the ratings given to high-school teachers by their pupils and reported the coefficients given in table 19.¹⁶ There was not sufficient agreement found between the two pupil-groups or between pupil-groups and other judges to warrant accepting unreservedly their opinion concerning the merit of an individual teacher.

TABLE 19.—*The objectivity of merit ratings given to high-school teachers by pupils*

Description of judges:	Correlation
1 pupil-group vs. another pupil-group.....	0.78
A pupil-group vs. a teacher-group.....	.66
A pupil-group vs. the supervisor.....	.56

It may be asked whether satisfactory agreement between judges is harder to obtain in the case of teaching ability than in the case of other traits. Table 20 presents a summary of studies showing correlations between the estimates of different judges for traits other than teaching ability, and these may be compared with the correlations in tables 16, 17, 18, and 19. These coefficients in table 20 range from 0.19 to 0.89. It is noteworthy that of the 6 largest coefficients ranging from 0.75 to 0.89, 5 are correlations between the combined ratings of groups of judges, and the sixth coefficient, which happens to be the largest of all, is a correlation between the ratings of 2 judges

¹⁶ Boardman, Charles W. An Analysis of Pupil Ratings of High-School Teachers. Educational Administration and Supervision, 16:440-446, September 1930.

²⁹ Guthrie, E. R. Measuring Student Opinion of Teachers. School and Society, 25:175-176, Feb. 5, 1927.

³⁰ Wilson, William R. Students Rating Teachers. The Journal of Higher Education, 3:75-82, February 1932.

upon a scale with 18 subtraits. Among the 5 lowest correlations, ranging from 0.19 to 0.32, the following three are apparently affected by such factors as closeness of acquaintance or self-interest: (1) Ratings by mother and by another observer of behavior responses of children ($r=0.19$); (2) character judgments of 10 close associates and of 35 casual observers ($r=0.23$); and (3) ratings by principal, teacher, and friend (average $r=0.32$).

TABLE 20.—Correlation between the estimate of 1 judge or group of judges and the estimate of another judge or group of judges concerning traits other than teaching ability

Description of trait and judges:	Correlation
Composite rating on 18 subtraits in developmental age by 1 judge and by another judge ²¹	0.89
Character judgments rendered by 35 casual observers and by 35 other casual observers. Average trait ²²86
Character rating. Votes of other pupils on a "guess who" test and estimates of teachers ²³80
Emotional trait rated by 1 group of judges and by another group of judges. Average trait ²⁴80
Character judgments rendered by 10 close associates and by 10 other close associates. Average trait ²⁵78
General ability of student. Combined rating by faculty members and combined rating by administrative officers ²⁶75
Average trait in developmental age rated by 1 judge and by another judge ²¹70
Ability of retail sales people rated on a graphic scale and by the educational director ²⁶66
Ranking students for general ability by 1 faculty member and by another faculty member. Second student population ²⁷57
Ranking students for general ability by 1 faculty member and by another faculty member ²⁸53
General intelligence of school children estimated by 1 teacher and by another teacher. Second population of children ²⁷50
Personal traits of pupils rated by 2 teachers and by 2 other teachers ²⁹49
Personal trait rated by an individual and by a group ³⁰48
General intelligence of school children estimated by 1 teacher and by another teacher ²⁷47

²¹ Furfey, Paul H. An Improved Rating Scale Technique. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 17: 45-48, January 1926.

²² Cleston, Glen U. and Knight, F. B. Validity of Character Judgments Based on External Criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 8: 215-231, June 1924.

²³ Hartshorne, H. and others. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York, N.Y., Macmillan Co., 1929. 569 pp. (Studies in the nature of character, no. 2.)

²⁴ Landis, Carney. The Justification of Judgments. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 4: 7-19, May 1925.

²⁵ Miner, J. B. Evaluation of a Method for Finely Graded Estimates of Abilities. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1: 123-133, March 1917.

²⁶ Gallup, G. H. Traits of Successful Retail People. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 4: 474-482, April 1925.

²⁷ Waite, H. The Teacher's Estimation of the General Intelligence of School Children. *Biometrika*, 8: 79-93, July 1911.

²⁸ Nannings, S. P. A Critical Study of Rating Traits. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12: 114-119, February 1926.

²⁹ Hollingworth, H. L. Experimental Studies in Judgment. *Psychological Review*, 18: 234-264, July 1911.

TABLE 20.—Correlation between the estimate of 1 judge or group of judges and the estimate of another judge or group of judges concerning traits other than teaching ability—Continued

Description of trait and judges—Continued.	Correlation
Final grade of student guessed on third day of school by 1 instructor and by another instructor ^a	0.44
Rating on 64 introversion traits by 200 pairs of associates chosen by the subjects ^a40
Composite rating on 7 traits by 1 college instructor and by another ^a38
Average intercorrelation between ratings made by principal, teacher, and friend. Average trait. Women ^a37
Average intercorrelation between ratings made by principal, teacher, and friend. Average trait. Men ^a33
Pupil trait (oral expression) estimated by 1 teacher and by another teacher. Average trait ^a32
Scholastic ability estimated from an oral examination by 1 committee and by another committee ^a30
Character judgments rendered by 10 close associates and by 35 casual observers. Average trait ^a23
Behavior responses of children (148 items) rated by mother and by an observer ^a19

FACTORS WHICH CONDITION THE RELIABILITY OF OPINIONS OF JUDGES—

1. *Training of the judges.*—Cady has shown that a period of systematic observation increases slightly the correlation between the ratings of different judges, and that this increase is greater in the case of judgments rendered with great self-confidence.⁴⁷ He reported that the reliability of ratings increased in general with the confidence of the rater in his judgments. Henmon conducted a laboratory experiment concerning accuracy of judgments and reported, “* * * while there is a positive correlation on the whole between degree of confidence and accuracy, the degree of confidence is not a reliable index of accuracy.”⁴⁸ These and previously reported findings indicate

^a Cleeton, Glen U. and Knight, F. B. Validity of Character Judgments Based on External Criteria. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 8: 215-231, June 1924.

^a Kaulfers, W. V. A Guessing Experiment in Foreign-Language Prognosis. *School and Society*, 32: 535-538, Oct. 18, 1930.

^a Heildbreder, Edna. Measuring Introversion and Extroversion. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 21: 120-134, July 1926.

^a Kornhauser, Arthur W. A Comparison of Raters. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 5: 328-344, January 1927.

^a Hartson, L. D. The Validation of Scales Used for Rating Candidates for Admission to College. In Humphreys, J. Anthony, ed. *College Personnel Officers. Conference proceedings.* pp. 11-23. Oberlin, Ohio, Oberlin College, 1930. 60 pp. ms.

^a Kelley, Truman Lea. *Educational Guidance.* New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1915. 116 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 71.)

^a Barnes, Elinor J., and Pressay, S. L. The Reliability and Validity of Oral Examinations. *School and Society*, 30: 719-723, Nov. 23, 1928.

^a Laws, Gertrude. *Parent-Child Relationships.* New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 57 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 233.)

^a Cady, Vernon M. The Estimation of Juvenile Incurability, Whittier, Calif. California Bureau of Juvenile Research. Whittier State School, 1928. 140 pp. (Journal of Delinquency Monograph, no. 2.)

^a Henmon, V. A. O. The Relation of the Time of a Judgment to Its Accuracy. *Psychological Review*, 18: 186-201, May 1911.

that even though a self-confident rater may convince an audience of his ability, measurements in the laboratory will not support his claims.

However, judges are more confident of extreme ratings and they do tend to agree better among themselves on these extreme ratings.⁵⁰ This may account, in large part, for the increase in the correlation between different judges with an increase in self-confidence. Judges also tend to overrate the inferior and to underrate the superior.⁵¹ This results in a spuriously narrow range of ability which, in turn, has a tendency to result in a spuriously small reliability coefficient. Removing the intermediate measures has the same effect on the data as widening the range of ability: It tends to produce a spurious increase in the measures of reliability.

If training increases facility in rating, trained judges should agree among themselves better than untrained judges. Barr found the agreement between judges to depend partly on the amount of training of the observers.⁵² Bowman derived a checking form and found a decreased agreement between judges when they were untrained.⁵³ Brueckner and Courtis developed a technique for rating teachers which yielded a high degree of agreement between judges after a period of careful training and study.⁵⁴ Johnson reported greater uniformity in the use of a rating card after a period of training for the evaluators.⁵⁵ Paterson noted that reliability of ratings improved as foremen became accustomed to rating.⁵⁶

2. *Acquaintance*.—Knight found that ratings increased regularly for each trait with the amount of acquaintance.⁵⁷ Slawson found

⁵⁰ Cady, Vernon M. *The Estimation of Juvenile Incurability*. Whittier, Calif., California Bureau of Juvenile Research, Whittier State School, 1923. 140 pp. (*Journal of Delinquency Monograph*, no. 2.)

Cattell, J. McKeen. *American Men of Science*. Appendix. (Second edition.) New York, N.Y., The Science Press, 1910. 506 pp.

Henmon, V. A. C. *The Relation of the Time of a Judgment to its Accuracy*. *Psychological Review*, 18: 196-201, May 1911.

Hollingworth, H. L. *Experimental Studies in Judgment*. In *Archives of Psychology*, no. 29, December 1913. p. 116. New York, N.Y., The Science Press, 1913. 119 pp.

Snow, A. J. *An Experiment in the Validity of Judging Human Ability*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 8: 339-346, September 1924.

Wells, F. L. *On the Variability of Individual Judgments*. In *Essays, Philosophical and Psychological, in Honor of William James*. p. 511. New York, N.Y., Longmans, Green & Co., 1908.

⁵¹ Hollingworth, H. L. *Experimental Studies in Judgment*. In *Archives of Psychology*, no. 29, December 1913. p. 116. New York, N.Y., The Science Press, 1913. 119 pp.

⁵² Barr, A. S. *Data on the Reliability of Activities Analyses of Teaching*. In *Hosie, James F., ed. Scientific Method in Supervision*. pp. 205-217. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922. 207 pp. (National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instructors. Second yearbook.)

⁵³ Bowman, Earl C. *A Plan for Evaluating Teaching in Terms of Pupil Activities*. Doctor's thesis. Columbus, Ohio. Ohio State University, 1923. 302 pp. ms.

⁵⁴ Brueckner, L. J. *An Objective Procedure for Evaluating Classroom Practice*. In *Hosie, James F., ed. Educational Supervision*. pp. 176-196. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 270 pp. (National Conference on Educational Method. First yearbook.)

⁵⁵ Courtis, S. A. *The Influence of the Philosophy of the Rater Upon Teacher-Training*. In yearbook no. 16, National Society of College Teachers of Education. *Studies in Education*. pp. 42-57. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1923. 117 pp.

⁵⁶ Johnson, F. W. *Supervision of Instruction*. *School Review*, 30: 742-754, December 1922.

⁵⁷ Paterson, Donald G. *The Graphic Rating Scale*. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 1: 361-370, December 1922.

⁵⁸ Knight, F. B. *The Effect of the "Acquaintance Factor" Upon Personal Judgments*. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 14: 129-142, March 1923.

that both lack of acquaintance and intimate acquaintance lowered the agreement among judges.⁵⁴ Arlett and Dowd, and Rugg concluded that even trained judges who know the subjects intimately, vary widely in their estimates.⁵⁷ Shen concluded that intimate friendship does not render knowledge of one another more accurate but there seems to be a consistent relation between friendship and tendency toward overestimation on every trait studied except impulsiveness.⁵⁸ Acquaintance apparently produces a bias. Hollingworth studied the mutual ratings of 2 groups of 25 associates on 9 traits and found the greatest overestimation to be on the most desirable traits.⁵⁹ Magson secured the estimates of judges concerning the intelligence of subjects with whom they had been in daily contact for at least a year. Three years after having rendered these mature opinions, the judges were asked in a letter to write a short concise character sketch of each person named in an enclosed list. The persons named were those they had either systematically overrated or systematically underrated 3 years previously. In each of these cases, the disparity of estimates was accompanied after 3 years by a strong personal attitude toward the subject. The character of this bias seemed to be determined by the judge's notion of how the subject rated affected the personal welfare of the judge.⁶⁰

3. *Halo*.—Wells found in 1907, through introspective studies, a phenomenon later named the "halo effect." He judged it to be especially prominent in those traits that were ill-defined.⁶¹ In 1915, Webb noted that estimates of general intelligence are biased in various manners and in varying degrees for different judges in favor of other desirable traits, and that they contain systematic errors due to a common bias in the minds of all the observers.⁶² In 1920, Thorndike cited many examples of the existence of the halo effect.⁶³ In 1925, Symonds reported having measured the halo through the partial correlation technique. He concluded, "Seven *trait* ratings have their correlations raised by 0.245 by the halo effect. Seven *habit*

⁵⁴ Slawson, John. The Reliability of Judgments of Personal Traits. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 6: 161-171, June 1922.

⁵⁷ Arlett, Ada H., and Dowd, Constance E. Variability Among a Group of Judges in Rating Character Traits in Children. *Psychological Bulletin*, 23: 617-619, November 1926.

⁵⁸ Rugg, Harold O. Is the Rating of Human Character Practicable? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 13: 30-42, January; 13: 81-93, February 1922.

⁵⁹ Shen, Eugene. The Influence of Friendship Upon Personal Ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 9: 66-68, March 1925.

⁶⁰ Hollingworth, H. L. Judging Human Character. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1922, 268 pp.

⁶¹ Magson, E. H. How We Judge Intelligence. Cambridge, England, Cambridge University Press, 1928. (*British Journal of Psychology*, monograph supplements, no. 9.)

⁶² Wells, Frederic L. A Statistical Study of Literary Merit. New York, N.Y., The Science Press, 1907. 20 pp. (*Archives of Psychology*, no. 7.)

⁶³ Webb, Edward. Character and Intelligence. Cambridge, England, Cambridge University Press, 1915. 99 pp. (*British Journal of Psychology*, Monographs, no. 3.)

⁶⁴ Thorndike, Edward L. A Constant Error in Psychological Rating. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 4: 25-29, March 1920.

ratings have their correlations raised by 0.177 by the halo effect."⁶⁴ This may be regarded as a general tendency but undoubtedly there is variation and, in cases of a pronounced bias, the halo is larger.

Rugg described a case in which Captain X was so well known that he was used by 13 different officers to exemplify "the poorest man I ever knew" in 20 different man-to-man rating scales for such traits as physical qualities, intelligence, leadership, and others. Captain X, however, was a Rhodes scholar and stood first among 151 officers on 3 different psychological tests. His associates described him in such terms as "knocker", "rotter", "yellow", and "conceited."⁶⁵ In such manner does an emotional bias, both favorable and unfavorable, influence judgments concerning an individual, irrespective of the trait under consideration. This common influence is called the halo of general estimate.

4. *Philosophy of rater.*—Personal affinities and antagonisms are only one kind of bias. Courtis showed that the philosophy of the rater, or personal preference for a specific kind of teaching, operated to produce great disagreement among a group, and experienced teachers agreed no better than the inexperienced. When students were furnished with descriptions of type methods of teaching and asked to classify rather than to evaluate, 85 percent of the inexperienced students could be counted upon to describe the teachers correctly as to method, and approximately 70 percent would rate the teacher as to skill within one place from the average.⁶⁶

Haviland had students observe teachers and rate them on an itemized score card. They also made written reports concerning each teacher rated. The author noted that different students assigned very different values to teachers described by all in their written reports as very poor, and that "all the teachers except a few hopelessly poor ones were given some marks of 20, which is perfect, on this section [class control]."⁶⁷

5. *Rationalization.*—If ratings quite largely represent bias, one might expect the reason given by a judge for the judgment rendered to have little validity. The items on the rating scale represent an ideally convenient method for rationalization. Wells found little difference in the quality of judgment whether or not a reason could be given. He asserted that judgments for which we can give no reason are often as good as those for which we can give a reason.⁶⁸

⁶⁴ Symonds, Percival. Notes on Rating. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 9: 188-195, June 1923.

⁶⁵ Rugg, Harold O. Is the Rating of Human Character Practicable? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 13: 30-43, January; 51-63, February 1922.

⁶⁶ Courtis, S. A. The Influence of the Philosophy of the Rater Upon Teacher Training. In yearbook no. 16, National Society of College Teachers of Education. *Studies in Education*. pp. 42-57. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1923. 117 pp.

⁶⁷ Haviland, Elizabeth Edge. A Rating Scale for Use of College Students in Evaluating Observations of Teachers in Service. Master's thesis. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University, 1926. 125 pp.

⁶⁸ Wells, Frederic L. A Statistical Study of Literary Merit. New York, N.Y. The Science Press, 1907. 39 pp. (Archives of Psychology, no. 7.)

Landis found, when the correlations between the ranking of subjects by judges giving definite reasons and the ranking by those giving indefinite or no reasons were corrected for attenuation, the reason given is a negligible influence.⁶⁶

6. *First impression.*—Whence arises the bias involved in ratings? Landis found that superficial physical characteristics influence judgment of deeper character qualities, and that ratings for emotionality and stability do not differ materially whether made by intimate associates or general acquaintances. This suggests that first impressions may persist. Webb had teachers rate four groups of boys in four elementary schools on character. Two external judges in each school interviewed each boy not longer than 1 minute and gave a character rating. The correlation between the two character ratings was 0.63. Corrected for attenuation, this becomes 0.88.⁶⁷ Kaulfers had 17 foreign-language teachers, during roll call on the third day of the spring semester, guess the final grade their new pupils would make. The guesses were immediately sealed and sent to the experimenter who, upon receipt of the final grades at the end of the semester, found the correlation between predicted grade and final grade received to be 0.44.⁶⁸ Two teachers guessed independently of each other the final grades that 195 students would receive. The correlation between them was 0.44.

7. *Self-interest.*—It has already been noted that a judge's rating is subtly affected by the way in which the person rated affects his own personal welfare.⁶⁹ The effect of this factor of self-interest is easily detected in self-ratings. Stoke and Lehman report that students who most need to have higher grades are most inclined to overestimate the amount of reference reading they have done.⁷⁰ Hoffman reported that a person possessing a desirable trait to a high degree usually underestimates his possession of it, whereas a person deficient in a desirable trait overestimates his possession of it to an even greater extent.⁷¹ Cogan found a constant tendency toward overestimation of the self in desirable traits and underestimation in undesirable traits.⁷² Shen concluded that "The apparent inaccuracy of self-estimate is largely due to a systematic error of the individual—a

⁶⁶ Landis, Carney. *The Justification of Judgments*. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 4: 7-19, May 1926.

⁶⁷ Webb, Edward. *Character and Intelligence*. Cambridge, England, Cambridge University Press, 1914. 99 pp. (*British Journal of Psychology*, Monographs, no. 2.)

⁶⁸ Kaulfers, W. V. *A Guessing Experiment in Foreign-Language Prognosis*. *School and Society*, 32: 535-538, Oct. 18, 1930.

⁶⁹ Magnus, E. H. *How We Judge Intelligence*. Cambridge, England, Cambridge University Press, 1924. (*British Journal of Psychology*, Monograph Supplements, no. 2.)

⁷⁰ Stoke, S. M., and Lehman, H. C. *The Influence of Self-Interest upon Questionable Replies*. *School and Society*, 32: 435-438, Sept. 27, 1930.

⁷¹ Hoffman, G. J. *An Experiment in Self-Estimation*. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 18: 43-48, April-June 1920.

⁷² Cogan, L. C., and others. *An Experimental Study of Self-Analyses, Estimates of Associates, and Results of Tests*. *School and Society*, 2: 171-179, July 31, 1914.

systematic tendency to overestimate or underestimate himself in all traits according to the kind of delusion that he has about himself."⁶⁶

Yoakum and Manson believe that the tendency to overrate the self on desirable traits is so important that this can serve as a criterion of desirability.⁶⁷ There is a tendency to overrate others as well as to overrate the self. Hollingworth called a person's tendency to overrate the quality of his own successive performances, optimism. He found that witnesses exhibit an even greater tendency to overrate the successive performances of the one observed, and called it altruism.⁶⁸

Cogan found the rank-order correlation between ability to judge the self and ability to judge others to be 0.44.⁶⁹ He states further that in the case of desirable traits, the possession of the trait accompanies the ability to judge it in the self and in others. Hollingworth found that the more admirable a trait, the closer was the relation between possession of it and ability to judge it.⁷⁰ Rugg, however, states that Army officers of outstandingly superior intelligence discriminated intelligence in others very little better than do those of average intelligence.⁷¹ The possession of an undesirable trait unfits one to judge it in oneself or in others. Jackson found that the ability to judge oneself correlates negatively (-0.62) with conceit.⁷² Apparently, the reputation of a person depends somewhat upon the personality of the judge. Judges with different personalities could not be expected to agree in their opinions concerning another person. In theory, these differences in personality are nullified to some extent when the average opinion of a large group of judges is compared with the average opinion of another. However, Kornhauser concluded that the correlation between average ratings increases steadily with an increase in the number of different raters entering into the averages up to four; beyond four no considerable further change in reliability occurs.⁷³

Hartshorne found a significant correlation between the extent to which a person possesses a desirable quality in one situation and in other situations.⁷⁴ Hollingworth reported (in 1911) that he could find

⁶⁶ Shen, Eugene. The Validity of Self-Estimate. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 16: 104-107, February 1923.

⁶⁷ Yoakum, C. S., and Manson, G. E. Self-Ratings as a Means of Determining Trait Relationships and Relative Desirability of Traits. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 21: 53-64, April 1926.

⁶⁸ Hollingworth, H. L. *Vocational psychology*. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1917. 308 pp.

⁶⁹ Cogan, L. O., and others. An Experimental Study of Self-Analyses, Estimates of Associates, and Results of Tests. *School and Society*, 2: 171-179, July 31, 1915.

⁷⁰ Hollingworth, H. L. *Judging Human Character*. New York, N.Y., D. Appleton & Co., 1922.

⁷¹ Rugg, Harold O. Is the Rating of Human Character Practicable? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 12: 30-42, January; 51-63, February 1922.

⁷² Jackson, J. A. Errors of Self-Judgment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 12: 372-377, August 1926.

⁷³ Kornhauser, Arthur W. Reliability of Average Ratings. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 5: 309-317, December 1923.

⁷⁴ Hartshorne, H., and others. *Studies in the Organization of Character*. New York, N.Y., Macmillan Co., 1930. 503 pp. (Studies in the Nature of Character, no. 3.)

no indication of a general judicial capacity making a judge better in all situations. His correlation with the group average might be high in one trait and low in another.⁸⁵ However, Slawson found (in 1922) indications that if a person is reliable regarding one trait he will be equally so regarding another.⁸⁶ Slawson and Hollingworth disagree concerning the relation between agreement with other judges and agreement with the self in a second rating. Slawson found no relationship and Hollingworth found a correlation of 0.49, although he says consistency in rating is no criterion of ability in rating. He found a correlation of 0.72 between the first and second judgments of an individual, and 0.48 between the judgment of an individual and the judgment of a group. He also found individuals in a group to agree most in their likes and in their positive judgments and to differ most in their antipathies and in their negative judgments.⁸⁷

TABLE 21.—*Correlation between self-ratings and ratings by others concerning teaching merit*

Description of measure or judges:	Correlation
Rating on 75 trait actions representing 25 traits possessed by superior teachers and not possessed by poor teachers, population A ⁸⁸	0.56
Rating on 75 trait actions representing 25 traits possessed by superior teachers and not possessed by poor teachers, population B ⁸⁹49
Self-rating and practice teaching ⁹⁰30
Self-rating and immediate supervisor's rating ⁹¹18
Self-rating and department supervisors ⁹²11
Self-rating and field success ⁹³09
Self-rating and principal's rating ⁹⁴005

Table 21 presents coefficients of correlation indicating the amount of agreement which has been found between self-ratings of teaching merit and the ratings by others. Comparison with the preceding tables suggests that there is in general considerably less agreement between a teacher's own estimate of his teaching skill and the estimate of another observer than there is between the estimates of two or more observers.

Shaw gives data concerning the consistency of self-ratings.⁹¹ Students were asked to estimate their success on each section of a college-entrance examination as they completed it and to estimate at

⁸⁵ Hollingworth, H. L. *Experimental Studies in Judgment*. *Psychological Review*, 18: 132-156, March 1911; 18: 234-256, July 1911.

⁸⁶ Slawson, John. *The Reliability of Judgments of Personal Traits*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 6: 161-171, June 1922.

⁸⁷ Hollingworth, op. cit.

⁸⁸ Flory, Charles D. *Personality Rating of Prospective Teachers*. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16: 125-142, February 1930.

⁸⁹ Ullman, Roy E. *The Prognostic Value of Certain Factors Related to Teaching Success*. Ashland, Ohio, A. L. Garber Co., 1931. 123 pp.

⁹⁰ Taylor, Howard Rice. *Some Factors Involved in the Prediction of Teaching Success*. Master's thesis. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University, 1923.

⁹¹ Shaw, Robert W. *Some Aspects of Insight*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. 78 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 448.)

different times academic term marks to be received. Two scores were given, one representing the arithmetic and the other the algebraic sum of errors. The split-test technique for determining reliability was used. These students were asked to fill out two questionnaires, one relating to their awareness of self-adjustment mechanisms and the other relating to their social behavior. Finally they rated themselves on a battery of social scales. The reliability of these self-judgments is given in table 22.

TABLE 22.—*Reliability of self-judgments of normal school students concerning specified abilities or behavior (Shaw)*

Ability or behavior:

	Correlations ^a
Achievement on entrance test:	
Arithmetical score.....	0.72
Algebraic score.....	.78
Academic term marks:	
Mid-term estimate:	
Arithmetical score.....	.48
Algebraic score.....	.73
End-of-term estimate:	
Arithmetical score.....	.38
Algebraic score.....	.71
Awareness of self-adjustment mechanisms, 14 questions.....	.69
Self-report on social behavior, 19 questions.....	.67
Self-rating on a battery of social scales.....	.53

Apparently the scoring scheme affects the reliability of self-judgments. The arithmetical score represents the error regardless of sign and the algebraic score keeps the sign. Keeping the sign results in a score representing a tendency to overestimate or underestimate. These self-judgments represent a composite of several separate estimates; therefore the reliabilities reported are higher than the reliability of a single self-judgment. Laws found a correlation of 0.15 between the self-ratings of 50 mothers on 7 positive and 7 negative traits. If the Spearman-Brown formula can be properly applied here, the estimated reliability of the composite rating on all 14 traits is 0.26. The comparable reliability of observer-ratings on the same 14 traits was 0.85. This finding and a comparison of the data given in table 22 with data given in the three preceding tables warrant the general conclusion that self-ratings are not as reliable as are observer-ratings.

Factors which affect the reliability and validity of trait ratings.—Because ratings on a miscellany of traits seem to exhibit, in a general way, the same tendencies that are exhibited in merit ratings of teachers, all these studies may be drawn upon in an attempt to isolate conditioning factors. The data in table 23 indicate trait differences in rerating coefficients.

^a Obtained by applying the Spearman-Brown formula to the correlation between random halves of the test.

TABLE 23.—*Lowest and highest correlations (among different traits) between a first rating and a second rating of subjects by individuals or groups*

Description of judges, subjects, and traits	Correlations	
	Lowest	Highest
Pooled ratings of 4 instructor by students, interval of 3 days ¹	0.14	0.92
Pooled ratings of another instructor by students, interval of 3 days ¹	.47	.90
Pooled ratings of pupils by 5 teachers, interval 2 weeks ¹	.22	.90
Rating of pupils by one teacher, interval 2 weeks ¹	-.02	.89
Pooled ratings of a third instructor by students, interval 3 days ¹	.43	.80
Teachers rated in 2 successive years on the same rating scale; some judges were different, other the same ²	.00	.79
Teacher rated twice by 60 judges on each of 12 items typical of a conventional rating scale ³	-.16	.77
Pooled ratings of pupils by teachers in 2 successive years, pupil-group constant ⁴	.47	.64

¹ Rammers, H. H., and Brandenburg, G. C. Experimental Data on the Purdue Rating Scale for Instructors. Educational Administration and Supervision, 13: 519-527, November 1927.

² Nannings, S. P. A Critical Study of Rating Traits. Educational Administration and Supervision, 12: 114-119, February 1926.

³ Boring, Nelson L. Teacher-Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection. In Research in Higher Education, pp. 117-133. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1932. 133 pp. (Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, no. 12.)

⁴ Barr, A. S. Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies. Bloomington, Ill. Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 127 pp.

⁵ Hughes, W. Hardin. General Principles and Results of Rating Trait Characteristics. Journal of Educational Method (now Educational Method), 4: 421-431, June 1925.

These coefficients of correlation between first rating and second rating both by individual raters and by groups of raters indicate clearly that judges are more consistent (from time to time) in rating some traits than in rating others. One may generalize by saying that one criterion for the inclusion of traits in a rating scale should be the extent to which judges can render similar judgments concerning the specified trait of an individual on different occasions.

It is probable, also, that subtraits presumed to indicate a phase of a general or complex trait or ability do not correlate uniformly with other subtraits presumed to be indicative of this general ability.

TABLE 24.—*Lowest and highest correlations between pairs of subtraits in a group presumed to indicate general merit*

Description of judges, subjects, and traits	Correlations	
	Lowest	Highest
Character judgments, each trait with remaining; close associates ¹	-0.16	0.93
Character judgments, each trait with remaining; casual observers ¹	.14	.90
Pupils' ratings of teachers on 5 subtraits ²	.39	.89
Personal traits of pupils ³	.41	.83
Personal and mental traits of pupils ⁴	.55	.83
Composite score on several tests ⁵	.51	.83
Personal and mental traits of pupils ⁶	.45	.83
Personal traits, associates' ratings ⁷	-.37	.75
College marks in different college courses ⁸	.25	.71
Traits of 1 college instructor, 52 students ⁹	-.02	.62
Traits of another college instructor ⁹	-.18	.51

¹ Cleston, Glen U., and Knight, F. B. Validity of Character Judgments Based on External Criteria. Journal of Applied Psychology, 5: 215-231, June 1924.

² Boardman, Charles W. An Analysis of Pupil Ratings of High-school Teachers. Educational Administration and Supervision, 16: 440-445, September 1930.

³ Hughes, W. Hardin. General Principles and Results of Rating Trait Characteristics. Journal of Educational Method (now Educational Method), 4: 421-431, June 1925.

⁴ Kelley, Truman Lee. Educational Guidance. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916. 116 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 71).

⁵ Kornhauser, Arthur W. A Comparison of Ratings on Different Traits. Journal of Personnel Research, 5: 440-445, March 1927.

⁶ Cogan, L. O., and others. An Experimental Study of Self-Analyses, Estimates of Associates, and Results of Tests. School and Society, 2: 171-179, July 31, 1915.

⁷ Rammers, H. H., and Brandenburg, G. C. Experimental Data on the Purdue Rating Scale for Instructors. Educational Administration and Supervision, 13: 519-527, November 1927.

Table 24 gives the coefficients of correlation between pairs of subtraits reported in seven different studies. Apparently some subtraits are much more closely related to the general trait than others.

The intercorrelations between subtraits ought, from one point of view at least, to be uniform and rather high. The situation is somewhat analogous to a test of spelling ability, each word in the test representing a subtrait. This variation among subtraits in their agreement with the general trait or ability is shown specifically in the data in table 25.

TABLE 25.—*Lowest and highest correlation between the subtraits of a group and a general or criterion measure*

Description of general and subtraits	Correlations	
	Lowest	Highest
General merit and teacher-traits ¹	0.18	0.80
General teaching merit and 7 subtraits ²	.67	.88
Pupil reaction and 3 teacher-traits ³	.58	.81
General teaching power and 5 specific teaching qualities ⁴	.59	.70
Campus leadership and 5 other traits ⁵	.36	.60
Attention score of pupils and 13 activity scores ⁶	-.13	.66
Mental test score and associates' ratings on each of 9 personal traits ⁷	.25	.62
Teaching ability and 13 activity scores ⁸	-.20	.58
General merit and teacher-traits ⁹	.04	.56
Academic record and associates' rating on each of 9 personal traits ¹	-.31	.52
First-term grades and 5 other traits ¹¹	.03	.50
American Council test and 5 other traits ¹²	.06	.36
Teaching ability and factors in will-temperament ¹³	-.20	.27
General teaching merit and frequency of several types of teachers' questions ¹⁴	-.46	.27
Intelligence and self-estimates of personal traits, 1 group ¹⁵	-.08	.22
Intelligence and self-estimates of personal traits, another group ¹⁶	-.14	.21

¹ Boyce, Arthur C. *Methods for Measuring Teachers' Efficiency*. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1915. 83 pp. National Society for the Study of Education, Fourteenth Yearbook, pt. 2.

² Baird, James, and Bates, Guy. *The Basis of Teacher Rating*. Educational Administration and Supervision, 15: 175-183, March 1920.

³ Morton, Robert L. *Qualities of Merit in Secondary Teachers*. Educational Administration and Supervision, 8: 226-238, May 1919.

⁴ Fordyce, Charles. Note on the Correlations Between General Teaching Power and Some Specific Teaching Qualities. In National Society for the Study of Education, Eighteenth Yearbook, pt. 1, pp. 349-351. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1919. 372 pp.

⁵ Bradshaw, Francis Foster. *The American Council of Education Rating Scale*. New York, N.Y., Columbia University, 1930. 80 pp. (Archives of Psychology, no. 119.)

⁶ French, William C. *An Analysis of the Correlation between Teaching Ability and 13 Measurable Classroom Activities*. Master's Thesis. Chicago, Ill., Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1924. 112 pp.

⁷ Cogan, L. O., and others. *An Experimental Study of Self-Analyses, Estimates of Associates, and Results of Tests*. School and Society, 2: 171-179, July 31, 1915.

⁸ Ruediger, W. O., and Strayer, G. D. *Qualities of Merit in Teachers*. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1: 272-278, May 1910.

⁹ Koistad, Arthur. *How Shall We Judge Our Teachers?* School and Society, 20: 669-670, Nov. 22, 1924.

¹⁰ Barr, A. S. *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 127 pp.

¹¹ Sweet, Lennig. *The Measurement of Personal Attitudes in Younger Boys*. New York, N.Y., Association Press, 1929. 58 pp. (Y.M.C.A. Occasional Studies, no. 9.)

In general, the variation among subtraits in their relation to the general trait is equally great, whether one considers the lowest and highest intercorrelation between subtraits or the lowest and highest correlation between a criterion measure and subtraits.

Judges agree on some traits better than on others. Data showing variation among traits in this respect are given in table 26.

TABLE 26.—Lowest and highest correlation between 1 judge or group of judges and another judge or group of judges when they rate several traits

Description of judge-pairs and traits	Correlations	
	Lowest	Highest
3 vs. 3 judges, behaviorgrams ¹	0.82	0.93
Average class judgment concerning instructor, 12 topics ¹65	.88
2 judges rated 18 subtraits, developmental age ²54	.82
3 vs. 3 judges, other behaviorgrams ¹26	.81
2 judges vs. 2 other judges, 6 traits ⁴62	.78
3 vs. 3 judges, 5 traits ¹40	.72
13 judges vs. 13 judges, 8 traits ⁴34	.71
Superintendents vs. school of education, four sections of teacher-rating card ⁴18	.62
Average pair of judges, 11 traits ¹25	.60
2 judges, 5 traits, women students ⁴12	.57
2 judges, 5 traits, men students ⁴11	.45

¹ Bradshaw, Francis Foster. *The American Council of Education Rating Scale*. New York, N.Y., Columbia University, 1930. 80 pp. (Archives of psychology, no. 119.)

² Wilson, William R. *Students Rating Teachers*. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 3: 75-82, February 1932.

³ Fursley, Paul H. *An Improved Rating Scale Technique*. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 17: 45-48, January 1926.

⁴ Miner, J. B. *Evaluation of a Method for Finely Graded Estimates of Abilities*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1: 123-124, March 1917.

⁵ Shan, Eugene. *The Reliability Coefficient of Personal Ratings*. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 16: 66-68, March 1925.

⁶ Boasing, Nelson L. *Teacher-Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection*. In *Research in Higher Education*, p. 117-133. Washington, D.C., Government Printing Office, 1932. 133 pp. (Office of Education bulletin 1931, no. 12.)

⁷ Shawson, John. *The Reliability of Judgments of Personal Traits*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 6: 161-171, June 1922.

⁸ Hartson, L. D. *The Validation of Scales Used for Rating Candidates for Admission to College*. In *Humphreys, J. Anthony, ed. College Personnel Officers. Conference Proceedings*. pp. 11-23. Oberlin, Ohio, Oberlin College, 1930. 60 pp. ms.

Not only do judges agree better on some traits than on others when rating other individuals but the error of self-rating is greater in some traits than in others. Shaw found the intercorrelations between self-ratings (as a deviation from actual performance in some cases) to range between -0.25 and 0.67 .⁸³ The gross range from the lowest to the highest correlation between each of these self-estimates and three other measures (intelligence, term marks, and teaching grade) was -0.05 to 0.54 .

Reliability as a function of the form of the instrument used.—Different techniques and rating scale forms have been devised and used in an effort to circumvent some of the disadvantages inherent in ratings. Symonds showed from statistical considerations that the pertinent factor in varying the number of scale intervals in a rating scale is the loss of reliability as the number is decreased. He estimated that a rating scale having a reliability requisite for making judgments concerning an individual ($r_{11}=0.95$) should have no less than 17 intervals on the scale. A smaller number produces an undesirable loss in reliability.⁸⁴ Marsh and Perrin experimented with three

⁸³ Shaw, Robert W. *Some Aspects of Insight*. New York, N.Y. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. 78 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 448.)

⁸⁴ Symonds, Percival M. *On the Loss of Reliability in Ratings Due to Coarseness of the Scale*. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 7: 456-460, December 1924.

scale forms (graphic, percentage, and man-to-man) and concluded that no one form demonstrates superiority over the others.⁶⁶

Symonds had two teachers both rate and rank a group of pupils. The average correlation between the ratings by the two teachers was 0.438 and between rankings 0.445. The two methods gave nearly identical correlations.⁶⁶ Guthrie reported that when 101 men were judged by both rating and ranking, the correlation between pairs of ratings was 0.30 and between pairs of rankings, 0.26. The difference is small.⁶⁷ Conklin and Sutherland compared the scale of values method with the order-of-merit method. Each of 10 subjects once a week for 5 weeks rated 40 jokes. The average correlation between first rating and each successive one was 0.79 for the scale of values method and 0.73 for the order-of-merit method. The authors concluded that rating (scale of values method) is better than ranking (order-of-merit) for recording immediate affective impressions and the latter is the better method for recording mature or pondered judgment.⁶⁸ Snyder described a preliminary experiment as follows:

Each evaluator rated each teacher 5 times, the first rating being a purely subjective one and the other ratings made with the help of 5 representative rating cards. The results showed that no greater uniformity of rating of the same teachers by different evaluators was secured with the aid of rating cards than was secured on a purely subjective rating.⁶⁹

Adams analyzed the rating scales used in 36 city and State teachers colleges and normal schools. The separate items were classified in a scheme containing 30 subdivisions. The items served as aids in preparing running descriptions of each step in a five-point scale following each of the 30 items. The final form occupies 38 printed pages. The correlation between scores assigned to student teachers by training teachers using this scale and by the board of supervisors who did not use the scale was 0.78.¹

May and Hartshorne report some recent improvements in trait-rating devices for the use of teachers in rating pupils.² Two check-lists of 80 descriptive adjectives were arranged in 2 forms, 1 containing the antonyms of the other. From 600 cases, where teachers checked a second form a week after checking the first, a reliability of 0.88, for a single form, was secured. Another device consisted

⁶⁶ March, S. E., and Perrin, F. A. C. An Experimental Study of the Rating Scale Technique. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology and Social Psychology*, 19: 383-399, March-April 1925.

⁶⁷ Symonds, Percival M. Notes on Rating. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 9: 188-195, June 1925.

⁶⁸ Guthrie, E. R. Measuring Students Opinion of Teachers. *School and Society*, 25: 175-176, Feb. 5 1927.

⁶⁹ Conklin, Edmund S., and Sutherland, John W. A Comparison of the Scale of Values Method with the Order-of-Merit Method. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 6: 44-57, February 1923.

¹ Snyder, Agnes. *The Value of Certain Measurements in the Training of Teachers*. Baltimore, Md., Johns Hopkins Press, 1928. 146 pp.

² Adams, Edwin W. *A Qualitative Analysis of Certain Teaching Traits*. Philadelphia, Pa., Temple University, 1930. 98 pp.

³ May, Mark A., and Hartshorne, Hugh. Recent Improvements in Devices for Rating Character. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 1: 66-77, February 1930.

of a series of 10 descriptive paragraphs, already carefully scaled. Judges received the series in random order and were instructed to match the person being rated with the appropriate paragraph-portrait. The reliability of the series was 0.84. A third device, called a "guess who" test, consisted of 26 very short positive and negative word sketches (sometimes but a single sentence). These were presented to pupils with instructions to guess whom each word-sketch represented. The number of positive minus the number of negative mentions received by a pupil constituted his score. The reliability of this series was 0.95. This is adequate for making a generalized judgment concerning an individual pupil.

Winifred Bain constructed an analytical scale of procedures in the nursery school, kindergarten, and first grade. The items were specific acts which teachers have been observed to perform. The author says that " * * * the scale was designedly made to conform with a list of principles of education generally agreed upon by educational experts to be philosophic bases of good teaching [after which] * * * the original scale was submitted for use to 40 people trained and experienced in methods of teaching and supervision and was revised on the basis of their criticism." Success in the use of the scale depends upon the ability of the judge to match the procedures observed with the scaled samples. The scale was divided into two parts that seemed to the author to be comparable. The correlations between these 2 parts for 3 groups of raters were 0.97, 0.94, and 0.94. The scale contains 27 items and occupies 24 pages. May and Hartshorne report having used a modification of a conduct-rating scale developed by L. N. Yepsen.² The 14 items represent observable modes of conduct. Yepsen reported the correlation between form A and form B to be 0.77.

Hartshorne and others report using a standardized series of paragraph-portraits in rating pupils in the same way that handwriting scales are used. The average correlation between first and second ratings by five teachers was 0.84.³ Mention has been made of the use of type descriptions for the classification of teachers according to the method of teaching by Brueckner and Curtis.⁴ After the method of teaching has been identified, the judge rates the teacher on the skill displayed in the use of the method.

² Ibid.

³ Hartshorne, H. and others. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York, N.Y., Macmillan Co., 1929. 549 pp. (Studies in the Nature of Character, no. 2.)

⁴ Brueckner, L. J. An Objective Procedure for Evaluating Classroom Practice. In Hsieh, James F. ed. *Educational Supervision*. pp. 176-94. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 270 pp. (National Conference on Educational Method. First yearbook.)

Curtis, S. A. The Influence of the Philosophy of the Rater upon Teacher Training. In yearbook no. 10, National Society of College Teachers of Education. *Studies in Education*, pp. 42-57. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1928. 117 pp.

Shiels prepared separate descriptions of 10 hypothetical cases and submitted them to various principals for a rating on instructional skill and discipline. He received 110 returns from which he concluded " * * * even in the distinction between satisfactory and unsatisfactory there is considerable disagreement shown."⁵

Wait submitted 16 complete sets of credentials from the appointment bureau of the University of Washington to 14 superintendents for rating. The 16 sets were ranked according to the average judgment of 7 judges and 7 other judges. The correlation between these two rankings was 0.95.⁶ This is requisite for making acceptable judgments concerning an individual. Nothing is known concerning the extent to which bias influenced the nature of the appointment bureau credentials. It is very likely that they represent a very specific description of a reputation.

Root formulated some 50 specific questions, answerable by "yes" or "no" from returns to a check-list questionnaire to students and faculty members. Eliminating those having a reliability less than 0.85 yielded a list of 42 questions concerning desirable traits of college teachers. The retest reliability of this list was 0.95, and a second study gave practically the same results.⁷ Wilson constructed a rating blank containing 35 questions having five tentative answers. Ninety-seven instructors had two sections of the same subject. Correlations between class averages in the two sections gave coefficients of correlation ranging between 0.65 and 0.88 on a dozen topics selected at random.⁸ Judging from this, the reliability of the composite score was quite high.

From these studies one may conclude that scale form or rating technique may make little difference in some cases but that in other cases special forms and techniques yield correlation coefficients higher than is usually found although direct comparisons were not made. A technique used by Sweet⁹ appears promising as a means of increasing the reliability of self-ratings. Sweet secured the self-judgments of younger boys on a special kind of like-dislike questionnaire by means of the self-ordinary-ideal technique. The reliability coefficients which he reported for each of eight different scores are shown in table 27.

⁵ Shiels, Albert. Rating of Teachers in the New York City Public Schools. *School and Society*, 2:753-754, November 1915.

⁶ Wait, Wallace Theodore. A Study of the Criteria for the Selection of High-School Teachers. Master's thesis. Seattle, Wash., University of Washington, 1926. 79 pp. ma.

⁷ Root, Alfred R. Student Rating of Teachers. *Journal of Higher Education*, 2:311-315, June 1931.

⁸ Wilson, William R. Students Rating Teachers. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 3:75-82, February 1932.

⁹ Sweet, Lennig. The Measurement of Personal Attitudes in Younger Boys. New York, N.Y. Associated Press, 1929. 56 pp. (Y.M.C.A. Occasional studies, no. 9.)

TABLE 27.—*Reliability of self-judgments secured from younger boys by means of the self-ordinary-ideal technique*

Description of measure secured:	Correlation
Social insight.....	0.942
Criticism of others.....	.939
Superiority.....	.936
Feeling of difference.....	.935
Self-criticism.....	.914
Deviation from accepted idea of right.....	.885
Peculiarity of interest.....	.872
Inferiority.....	.785

Struck studied the reliability of an activity check-list and concluded:

- (1) The performance of teachers is not uniform from day to day;
- (2) an observer cannot accept the performance viewed in one observation as being typical of a teacher's work; (3) the greater the number of visits, the more reliable are the observations made; and (4) the check-list is reliable for some items but not for all.¹⁰

The last conclusion by Struck, that judgments concerning some items in a check-list are more reliable than judgments concerning others, may be explained by reference to a laboratory study by Wells. He found that when making very subjective judgments (preference for pictures) the individual varies less from the mean of his own judgments than he does from the mean of a group, but when making very objective judgments (estimating weight differences) the variability of an individual's judgments is greater than that of a group of judges. The author suggests that this phenomenon be utilized as a measure of subjectivity.¹¹

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHER RATINGS AND OTHER RELATED MEASURES

In an earlier section it was shown that the relationship between different measures of the success of student teachers is usually not high. The correlation between rated ability in practice teaching as measured by 2 different parts of the same scale or by 2 similar scales is usually higher, particularly if the scales are employed by the same judge. This may, of course, indicate merely the presence of a large halo effect, rendering all judgments similar. In table 28 the first item, namely, the correlation between the sum of general ratings on 3 traits and the sum of the ratings on the 38 subdivisions of these 3 traits, is 0.98. If this can be considered a genuine reliability coefficient between two parts of the same test, the test can be held to be reliable enough to serve as the basis for individual judgments. More probably,

¹⁰ Struck, L. A. A Study of the Reliability of an Activity Check-List for the Study and Improvement of Teaching. Master's thesis. Madison, Wis., University of Wisconsin, 1928. ms.

¹¹ Wells, F. L. On the Variability of Individual Judgments. In *Essays, Philosophical and Psychological, in Honor of William James*. p. 511. New York, N.Y., Longmans, Green & Co., 1908.

however, it means that whatever item the judge is considering, the score is dominated by his general opinion of the teacher.

The correlation between somewhat comparable measures of success in practice teaching has been studied by several authors. Their findings are given in table 28.

TABLE 28.—*Correlation between rated practice-teaching success and other specified comparable measures*

Comparable measure:	Correlation
Composite score ¹² on 38 subdivisions of the scale ¹³	0.98
Composite score ¹² on 38 subdivisions of the scale in a second population ¹⁴96
Composite score ¹² on 38 subdivisions of the scale in a third population ¹⁵94
Other half of the scale ¹⁶92
Average rating on 7 traits ¹⁷745
Practice-teaching grade ¹⁸74
Revised rating scale ¹⁹66
Rating by teacher in cooperating school ²⁰51

French measured a variety of classroom activities and correlated each with a rating of teaching ability, and the results are shown in table 29.²¹

TABLE 29.—*Correlation between each of 18 measurable classroom activities and rated teaching ability*

Classroom activity:	Correlation
Attention of the class	0.82
Time lost in getting ready for work	-.13
Time taken to make assignment38
Time taken by pupils in making response25
Number of thought-provoking questions58
Number of pupils offering to respond to questions38
Number of pupils responding successfully31
Elapsed time between question and designation of pupil44
Number of questions requiring response07
Frequency in designating pupil before completion of question	-.20
Frequency with which teacher interrupts pupils	-.07
Frequency of repetition of pupils' responses02
Amount of time the teacher talks06

¹² Correlation between sum of general ratings on 3 traits and sum of 38 subdivisions of these 3 traits.

¹³ Cahoon, G. P. The Rating of Student Teachers. *University High School Journal*, 9:290-306, February 1930.

¹⁴ Almy, H. C. and Sorenson, Herbert. A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16:179-86, March 1930.

¹⁵ Mersereau, Edward B. A Study of the Virtues and Faults of Practice Teachers. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 13:467-475, October 1927.

¹⁶ Cahoon, G. P. Intelligence Test Scores as a Factor in the Prediction of Practice-Teaching Success. *University High School Journal*, 9:205-227, November 1929.

¹⁷ Kinder, J. S. A Rating Scale for Practice Teachers. *Education*, 46:109-14, October 1925.

¹⁸ French, William C. An Analysis of the Correlation Between Teaching Ability and 13 Measurable Classroom Activities. Master's thesis. Chicago, Ill., Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1924. 112 pp.

Bursch collected data incidentally in developing a technique by which "to record the various teacher and pupil activities that go to make up the instructional and learning activities performed in high-school English and social science classes." In his summary concerning time allotments he says, " * * * the most noticeable feature of the data is the great variability in time allotments in successive periods taught by the same person, and in the averages of different teachers and of different schools." In the case of frequency of activities, he says, " * * * the most noticeable feature is the great variation among teachers and schools."¹⁹

Hickok studied the reliability of the time chart in supervision, and said:

A wide range of variability in teaching performance is shown by the data. The amount of time spent by the same teacher on the same activity varies from day to day. * * * The time spent in any activity seems to vary with the teacher, the method used, the type of lesson, and the personnel of the class * * *. This study * * * proves that one observation is not a reliable measure of teaching performance. The reliability of the time chart as a measure of teaching performance increases with the number of records made.²⁰

Professional reputation as a measure of teaching ability.—The professional reputation of a teacher may be considered as a generalized characterization of her professional behavior in different situations and on different occasions. By means of it her future professional behavior in different situations on different occasions is predicted. The underlying assumptions are that her behavior is somewhat uniform in different situations and on different occasions, and that a relatively few observations furnish sufficient evidence to warrant making a generalization. To what extent are these assumptions sound?

May and Hartshorne²¹ utilized some of the most refined of current techniques in obtaining a series of reputation scores for pupils and a parallel series of conduct scores in life situations. They report that the correlation between these reputation scores and conduct scores range from 0.10 to 0.30. In another publication they report that although the average correlation between judgments and objective tests was only 0.35, by taking the sum of ratings obtained in different ways and the sum of tests on various characteristics, it is possible to obtain correlations between 0.50 and 0.60.²² Even this is far below that requisite for judging an individual.

¹⁹ May, Mark A., and Hartshorne, Hugh. Recent Improvements in Devices for Rating Character. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 1: 66-77, February 1930.

²⁰ Bursch, Charles W. The Technique and Results of an Analysis of the Teaching Process in High-School English and Social Science Classes. Doctor's thesis. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University, 1930.

²¹ Hickok, K. C. A Study of the Reliability of the Time Chart in Supervision. Master's thesis. Madison, Wisc., University of Wisconsin, 1927.

²² Hartshorne, H., and others. Studies in the Organization of Character. New York, N. Y., Macmillan Co., 1930. 503 p. (Studies in the Nature of Character, no. 2.)

Several studies report the relation between reputed teaching ability and various other measures of performance. Results of these studies are given in table 30.

TABLE 30.—*Correlation between reputed teaching ability and specified measure of performance*

Measure of performance	Correlation
Composite of 13 measurable classroom activities ¹⁸	0.84
Paucity of undesirable questions and frequency of "real judgment" questions ¹⁹75
Participation in campus activities ²⁰66
Pupil progress (accomplishment quotient technique); Rural teachers ²¹32
Pupil gains in reading ²²24
Test scores of pupils, ability constant ²³14
Pupil gains in arithmetic ²⁴02
Pupil progress (accomplishment quotient technique); urban teachers ²⁵	-.26

Johnston reported a high negative correlation between reputed teaching ability and the improvement of the pupils as measured by the Courtis tests.²⁵ Courtis arranged a standardized impersonal teaching procedure by means of which he determined the basic rate of learning for both the control and experimental groups of teachers. He found that teachers reputed to be good or poor produced remarkable changes in the rate of learning.²⁶ This study stands almost alone in justification of a reputation score for teachers. The measure of pupil-achievement was the number of equally difficult words that pupils learned to spell in a unit of time.

Data showing the relation between reputed teaching ability and score on a professional test were given previously. May and Harts-horne assembled data showing the correlation between character ratings and score on instruments for the measurement of the trait.

¹⁸ French, William C. *An Analysis of the Correlation Between Teaching Ability and 13 Measurable Classroom Activities*. Master's thesis. Chicago, Ill., Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1924. 112 pp.

¹⁹ Hickok, K. C. *A Study of the Reliability of the Time Chart in Supervision*. Master's thesis, Madison, Wis., University of Wisconsin, 1927.

²⁰ Estimated from the published data.

²¹ Barr, A. S. *Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 127 pp.

²² Bradshaw, Francis Foster. *The American Council of Education Rating Scale*. New York, N.Y., Columbia University, 1930. 80 pp. (*Archives of Psychology*, no. 119.)

²³ Crabbe, Lelah Mae. *Measuring Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 98 pp. (*Contributions to Education*, no. 175.)

²⁴ Taylor, Howard Rice. *Teacher Influence on Class Achievement*. *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 7: 81-173, February 1930.

²⁵ Baird, James, and Bates, Guy. *The Basis of Teacher Rating*. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15: 175-183, March 1929.

²⁶ Johnston, J. H. *An Investigation into the Elements Which Constitute Good Teaching in the Elementary School*. In Gregg, Russell T., and Hamilton, Thomas T. *Annotated Bibliography of Graduate Theses in Education at the University of Illinois*. pp. 40. Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois, 1931. 80 pp. (*University of Illinois bulletin*, vol. 23, no. 40, June 2, 1931. Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, Bulletin No. 55.)

²⁷ Courtis, Stuart A. *The Measurement of the Effect of Teaching*. *School and Society*, 23: 53-54, July 14; 84-88 July 21, 1923.

These correlations are given in table 31.³⁰ In general they are slightly smaller than those concerning the trait, teaching ability. In neither case can a reputation score be taken to represent a measured score; that is, they are not, to any great extent, measures of the same thing. However, if these correlated measures could be corrected for lack of reliability, they would become larger.

TABLE 31.—*Correlation between character ratings and score on instruments for measuring character traits*

Character trait and author:	Correlation
Conformity (Deutch).....	0.88
Trustworthiness (Voelker).....	.75
Ascendance—submission (Allport).....	" .60
Emotional stability (Mathews).....	" .58
Strength of instincts (Moore).....	" .49
Incorrigibility (Cady).....	" .40
Expansion—reclusion (Allport).....	.34
Self-confidence (Trow).....	" .32
Perseveration (Bernstein).....	" .30
Interest (Burt).....	" .00
Perseveration (Lankes).....	— .26
Insight or self-estimation (Allport).....	— .67

TABLE 32.—*Correlation between scholarship marks and other specified factors*

Factors correlated with scholarship:	Correlation
Inflection of voice in reading ³¹	" 0.52
Intelligence test score ³²	" .48
Guessed final grade, third day of semester ³³	" .44
Marks in deportment ³⁴43
Monroe reading scores (vs. grade in reading) ³⁵	" .34

It is of interest to compare the correlations between reputed teaching ability and measured performance (table 30) and the correlations between character ratings and score on a character test (table 31) with similar correlations relative to scholarship. Correlations between various other traits and scholarship as reported by four different

³⁰ May, Mark A., and Hartsborne, Hugh. Objective Methods of Measuring Character. Pedagogical Seminary, 32: 45-67, March 1925.

³¹ Mid-point between upper and lower limits given.

³² Michael, William, and Crawford, C.C. An Experiment in Judging Intelligence by the Voice. Journal of Educational Psychology, 18: 107-114, February 1927.

³³ Average of 2 or more values.

³⁴ Kaulfers, W. V. A Guessing Experiment in Foreign-Language Prognosis. School and Society, 32: 535-538, Oct. 18, 1930.

³⁵ Morton, R. L. The Influence of Pupil Conduct on Teachers' Marks. Educational Research Bulletin, 11: 57-60, Feb. 3, 1932. (Ohio State University.)

³⁶ Rosenberry, B. Frank L. A Correlation of Comprehension Scores Derived from the Monroe Silent Reading Tests and Teachers' Grades. In University of Pennsylvania Sixth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. pp. 143-146. Philadelphia, Pa., University of Pennsylvania, 1919.

authors are presented in table 32. These correlations and those in table 33 lead to the inference that reputation for such a trait as scholarship may be as much a matter of persisting first impression, inflection of voice, deportment, and other things as it is a matter of intelligence. Do these factors influence the scholarship ratings assigned to prospective teachers? Do they influence later success as a teacher in service?

TABLE 33.—*Correlation at different universities between Thorndike intelligence test score and college success*²⁷

University:	Correlation
Columbia University.....	0.60
Brown University.....	.53
Stanford University.....	.53
University of Chicago.....	.41
University of California.....	.38
Brown University.....	.37
University of Wisconsin.....	.36
University of South Dakota.....	.27

Evidence has been presented in the foregoing paragraphs indicating that the professional reputation of a teacher may not be an index of her technical ability as a teacher. However, there was some slight evidence in table 12 that a multiple criterion is better than a single criterion. This reinforces a belief that some measure of professional reputation should be included in a composite criterion of teaching merit.

Teaching is an occupation involving personal relationships. One person is but a unit in an educational organization. An integrated organization of persons must contain cooperative persons; it must function with a minimum of friction. Reciprocating effort and lack of friction between persons is termed "rapport." The professional reputation of a teacher is an expression of the extent to which she has been able to create and maintain a professional rapport, and a prediction of the extent to which she can do it in the future. What is the nature of this "professional rapport"?

Teachers must maintain such working relationships between themselves and administrative and supervisory officers, other teachers, the pupils, and the parents that influences inhibiting the learning of pupils do not develop. Professional rapport, therefore, is complex and must be maintained throughout a changing pattern of personal relationships. What are some of the causes of failure to maintain professional rapport?

The philosophy of the rater, his acquaintance with the one being rated, his own possession or nonpossession of the traits being rated, his personal system of biases, delusions, likes, and antipathies all

²⁷ Nelson, M. J., and Denny, E. C. The Terman and Thurstone Group Tests as Criteria for Predicting College Success. *School and Society*, 25:501-502, Oct. 15, 1927.

influence the rating he gives to another person. The teacher has a similar set of factors in his own personal make-up, and these may be in conflict with the personality characteristics of others. They may be the source of conflict not only between the teacher and administrative and supervisory officers but also between the teacher and other teachers, the pupils, and the parents.

If the professional reputation of the teacher is of significance, a measure of it should be a composite including the judgments of all groups—administrative and supervisory officers, other teachers, the pupils, and the parents. Such statistical evidence as exists indicates that this is feasible; there are significant intercorrelations between the judgments of all groups except the parents. A study of the ratings given to teachers by parents has not been reported in the literature examined. It is likely, however, that the verbal reports that pupils make to their parents and the subsequent contacts of parents with teachers and with administrative and supervisory officers would elicit parental judgments which would yield a significant correlation with the judgments of the other groups.

Such a composite professional reputation score might be quite reliable but the evidence that exists indicates that it would not be highly objective. This means that such a professional reputation score may represent the judgments of the groups rendering them but would probably not adequately represent the judgments of similar groups were the teacher in a different teaching situation; that is, in a different school system. What are the implications of these considerations for institutions which prepare teachers?

Does there exist a generalized ability, which enables a teacher to create and maintain a high professional reputation score in a variety of situations? Can this ability be acquired by means of study, and practice under systematic instruction? If evidence accumulates so that both these questions must be answered in the negative, then the professional reputation score of the teacher is largely a function of placement. Undoubtedly, even at present, a teacher may be so placed that either success or failure (in terms of reputation) is almost sure to follow. Placement officers and bureaus need much more accurate descriptions of the significant factors in each situation in which they place teachers. If a corresponding description of each teacher to be placed were secured, profiles of teachers and teaching situations could be matched and sources of conflict made sources of rapport.

Students wishing to make further studies leading toward the measurement of teaching ability should include a measure of professional reputation as one of the factors in the criterion score. Objectivity may be increased by selecting only experienced teachers who have taught in several different schools and securing a professional

reputation score in each. The composite reputation score represents, after all is said, a sort of veneer if it is independent of desirable changes stimulated in pupils. It is probable, however, that reputation is not completely independent of this technical teaching ability.

Agreement between 2 teacher ratings given at 2 different times.—Reliability is restricted in this section to mean the extent to which measures secured at one time agree with similar measures secured at another time. In the case of trait ratings, both the judge and the person rated may change in the interim. Table 34 contains rerating coefficients.

TABLE 34.—*Correlation between rated teaching ability on one occasion and on a second occasion*

Description of judges subjects, and traits:	Correlation
Student answers to selected yes-no questions concerning instructors on 2 occasions, all questions ³⁸	0.95
Composite rating and rerating of practice teachers ³⁹92
5 judges' average score for each teacher ⁴⁰91
Teachers rated on 2 successive years, general rank ⁴¹83
Students rating instructors and rerating after 3 days ⁴²66
Average intercorrelation between 3 successive practice-teaching grades ⁴³43
Separate reratings coefficients for each judge, average judge ⁴⁰42
60 supervisors rated 2 successive recitations, average trait ⁴⁴30
Teachers rated on 2 successive years, average trait ⁴¹24
60 supervisors rated 2 successive recitations, general merit ⁴⁴18
Teachers rated on 2 successive years, 9 traits ⁴¹05

These coefficients vary from 0.05 to 0.95, almost the entire positive half of the scale, but only the highest one warrants the conclusion that a teacher would be judged to have the same ability on two different occasions. Do successive judgments concerning other traits also show lack of agreement? Table 35 gives correlation coefficients between two different measures of traits other than teaching ability.

³⁸ Root, Alfred R. Student Rating of Teachers. *Journal of Higher Education*, 2: 311-315, June 1931.

³⁹ Almy, H. C., and Sorenson, Herbert. A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 18: 179-186, March 1930.

⁴⁰ Bain, Winifred E. An Analytical Study of Teaching in Nursery School, Kindergarten, and First Grade. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923. 130 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 332.)

⁴¹ Boswing, Nelson L. Teacher-Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection. In *Research in Higher Education*. pp. 117-133. Washington, D.C. (Office of Education, Bulletin, 1931, no. 12).

⁴² Remmers, H. H., and Brandenburg, G. C. Experimental Data on the Purdue Rating Scale for Instructors. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 13: 519-527, November 1927.

⁴³ Marj, A. R., and Gilliland, A. R. A Critical Analysis of the George Washington University Teaching Aptitude Test. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15: 660-666, December 1929.

⁴⁴ Barr, A. S. Characteristic Differences in the Teaching Performance of Good and Poor Teachers of the Social Studies. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1929. 127 pp.

TABLE 35.—*Correlation between first and second measures of traits or abilities other than teaching merit*

Description of judges, subjects, and traits:	Correlation
Teachers rating pupils using scaled paragraph-portraits ⁴⁶	0.84
Rating 40 jokes in 5 successive trials using 10-point scale of values; first and other trials compared, average ⁴⁶79
Average rating and rerating of pupils by 1 teacher ⁴⁷78
First and second merit rating by foreman, average ⁴⁸76
Rating 40 jokes in 5 successive trials using 10-pile order of merit ⁴⁶ ..	.73
Average rating of pupils by 5 teachers and rerating after 2 weeks, average trait ⁴⁷67
Pooled ratings of teachers given to pupils in 2 successive years; different teacher-groups, average trait ⁴⁹56
Merit ranking of letters of application for bookkeeping position, aver- age trait ⁵⁰52

Ratings given to student-teachers by their supervisors and others may be compared with later ratings received from principals, superintendents, and others while in service. Usually the pairs of ratings are given by different judges or groups of judges. Other factors, however, such as the passage of time (during which teaching ability may change), may obscure the relationship between these independent judgments. Correlations appearing in the literature were presented in table 29.

These correlations represent the agreement between different judges concerning the same teacher in different teaching situations at different times. The agreement is less, as would be expected, than that between different judges of the same teacher at the same time in the same situation. Lack of agreement is so pronounced that the opinion of one in a pair of judgments cannot serve as an index of the other, unless the status of a large number of teachers (100 or 200) as a group is in question. Even in this case, one might expect 1 of every 2 such judgments to be erroneous.

Pupil achievement as a measure of teaching ability.—In order to use pupil achievement as a criterion for teacher success, several problems must first be solved. The question which takes precedence over all others is the philosophic question as to what sort of achievement is of such value to society that we may identify as a "good teacher" the one who stimulates this kind of growth in his pupils.

⁴⁶ H. H. Harshbarger, H., and others. *Studies in Service and Self-Control*. New York, N. Y., Macmillan Co., 1925. 369 pp. (Studies in the Nature of Character, no. 2.)

⁴⁷ Conklin, Edmund S., and Sutherland, John W. A Comparison of the Scale-of-Values Method with the Order-of-Merit Method. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 6: 44-57, February 1923.

⁴⁸ Nannings, S. P. A Critical Study of Rating Traits. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12: 114-119, February 1926.

⁴⁹ Peterson, Donald G. The Graphic Rating Scale. *Journal of Personnel Research*, 1: 361-370, December 1922.

⁵⁰ Hughes, W. Hardin. General Principles and Results of Rating Trait Characteristics. *Journal of Educational Method (now Educational Method)*, 4: 421-431, June 1926.

⁵¹ Walton. On the Reliability of Judgments Regarding Letters of Application. Master's thesis. New York, N. Y., Columbia University, psychology department. (Cited by Poffenberger and Vartanian, p. 74.)

Until this question is settled, at least tentatively, for any given study in this field, that study cannot proceed. As different studies are based upon different answers to this question, they will differ in their experimental outcomes.

It is conceivable that society could stimulate the maximum development of all potential geniuses who, lacking a sense of loyalty to the society which made possible their development, and being possessed of an intense desire for personal power, could, by reason of their superior mental ability, subject the masses to virtual slavery. In time of course, such a condition would, in all probability result in revolution or in the decadence of civilization. Loyalty to society and concern for the well-being of all must be instilled in the minds of all, especially of developing geniuses. Instruments are needed for the measurement of attitudes in order that teachers who will instill them can be selected, prepared, and placed in service.

In addition to the problem of determining upon the pupil traits in which improvement is to be measured and constructing satisfactory instruments for the measurement of those traits, there arises the question of what should be the treatment of special abilities and special weaknesses in optimum individual achievement, and similarly the question of whether the teacher who stimulates the optimum growth in a class is the one who leaves the class more homogeneous than he found it, or less homogeneous.

One measure of a single pupil's achievement is a composite of his achievement in all school subjects. Another aspect of his achievement, however, should be combined with this measure. A pupil may have special abilities and special weaknesses. Should he be stimulated to overcome weaknesses to the neglect of special abilities? Or should he be stimulated to attain a high level of specialized ability to the neglect of his special weaknesses? If either one of these tendencies predominates in teaching it is probably the former; teachers probably make greater effort to stimulate a pupil to overcome his weaknesses than to develop his special abilities. This tends to retard his progress, as measured by his composite score, because he could probably develop in his special abilities faster than in his special weaknesses. If he progresses in both at a rate commensurate with ability in both, the spread between them increases. This spread between special abilities and special weakness constitutes a second measure of his achievement which ought to be combined with the first—his average achievement in all subjects or abilities. Kelley has named this measure of spread idiosyncrasy.

Pupil-idiosyncrasy is no more adequate (or inadequate) as a single measure of pupil achievement than is his average score. It could be increased by causing the pupil to lose what little ability he possesses in his special weaknesses without increasing his special abilities.

His average score also can be made to increase by giving sole attention to special weaknesses without providing opportunity for growth in special abilities. The two measures, average achievement and idiosyncrasy should be combined into a composite score. The maximum composite score (as distinguished from the average) can be made only as a maximum increase in both occurs simultaneously. If such maximum increase occurs, one is assured that the pupil is progressing in both special weaknesses and special abilities at a rate commensurate with ability in each.

Similar reasoning leads to the conclusion that the average achievement of a teacher's pupil-group is inadequate as a single measure. Such a group contains some pupils who are very superior and also some who are dull and the relative status will also vary for different subjects. It may be assumed safely that superior pupils are capable of making more rapid progress than dull pupils. One suspects also that teachers exert greater effort to stimulate the achievement of dull pupils than that of superior pupils. Both have a right to achieve at a rate commensurate with ability. The achievement of a pupil-group is at its maximum only when both groups achieve at a maximum rate. Group achievement can be increased, however, by increasing the achievement of either the dull or the superior portion of the group while the other merely holds its own. The spread between the superior and dull pupils is a second measure of the achievement of a pupil-group.

The measure of the dispersion of a group of pupils in composite achievement should be used in combination with the average measure of the group's achievement. The combined score can be a maximum only when both measures are maximums. For such a combined measure of the achievement of a pupil-group to be a maximum, each pupil in the group, regardless of his general ability, must make maximum progress in both special abilities and special weaknesses.

Still another problem has to do with the fact that the usual measures of pupil-achievement used by experimenters represent, not a kind of achievement readily susceptible to teacher influence, but a kind which is largely a function of all those factors represented, in the aggregate, by maturity or age. If intelligence test scores and achievement test scores are measures of the same thing, in large part, and if the respective quotients are relatively constant from age to age, large differences in score can be expected to occur (as they do) with large differences in age before maturity.

The correlation between first and second test scores is partly a function of this validation on an age basis. There is, however, some

decrease in consistency as the interval between the two testings increases.¹¹ Specific data are given in table 36.

Pupil-achievement tests are needed which will yield measures that vary with the teacher, not with the age of the pupils. Such an achievement test for pupils could be expected to show not pupil-age differences, but teacher differences, because of the way in which it was standardized. The use of this technique would, of course, need to be considered in the light of the evidence which has been presented indicating reputation scores to be largely independent of performance.

TABLE 36.—Correlations between one score and a second when the interim varies

Measure used	Correlation with interim specified						
	0 years	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years	10 years
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Accomplishment quotients ¹		0.81	0.79				
School marks or grade ²		.67	.58	0.53	0.50		
Practice-teaching grades ³		.60	.31				
Intelligence of adults, men ⁴							0.58
Intelligence of adults, women ⁵							.78
Stanford achievement test, composite of reading, arithmetic, and spelling ⁶						0.54	
Average of 4 tests, raw score ⁷	0.72	.68	.63	.59	.56		
Average of 4 tests, quotient ⁸	.78	.75	.71	.68	.66		

¹ Coy, Genevieve L. A Study of Various Factors which Influence the Use of the A.Q. as a Measure of Teaching Efficiency. *Journal of Educational Research*, 21: 29-42, January 1930.

² Kelley, Truman Lee. Educational Guidance. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1915. 116 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 71.)

³ Markt, A. R., and Gilliland, A. R. A Critical Analysis of the George Washington University Teaching Aptitude Test. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15: 660-666, December 1929.

⁴ Perhaps less than year intervals.

⁵ Garrison, S. C. Retests on Adults at an Interval of 10 Years. *School and Society*, 22: 326-328, Sept. 8, 1930.

⁶ Hildreth, Gertrude. Results of Repeated Measurement of Pupil Achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 21: 286-296, April 1930.

⁷ Keys, Noel. The Improvement of Measurement Through Cumulative Testing. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 81 pp. (Contributions to Education, no. 321.)

CONCLUSIONS

The material in this report contributes in at least six ways to an evaluation of the education of teachers through the measurement of teaching efficiency.

1. It presents some of the essential findings of a selected number of studies dealing with the major phases of this problem. When possible, studies were selected which contained comparable data and these data were combined in single tables.

2. It sketches a plan for a desirable study of the measurement of teaching merit in relation to the achievement of pupils. This study, either entirely or in part, could well be undertaken by an organization

⁸ Cowdery, K. M. Repeated Thorndike Intelligence Examinations. *School and Society*, 27: 367-369, Mar. 24, 1928.

McGeoch, John A., and Whiteley, Paul L. The Reliability of the Pressay X-O Tests for Investigating the Emotions. *Pedagogical Seminary*, 24: 255-270, June 1927.

interested in securing solutions to some of the controversial issues in the education of teachers.

3. It lists many of the difficulties and limitations involved in such studies so that future studies may correct or avoid them.

4. It shows very clearly the limitations placed upon a study of this complex problem when restrictions of time and money necessitate using only data already available instead of planning the study over a long-time period and securing all needed information.

5. It shows the absence of reliable measures of many of the variables which enter into the professional success of teachers.

6. It shows that teaching is such a complicated process and involves so many variables that much study and experimentation must be done in the definition of ends, and in the selection of means to accomplish those ends, before any very definite recommendations, based on adequate evidence, can be made concerning the relative merits of any particular pattern for preparing teachers.

PART 3

PART III. STUDENT WELFARE AND EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES¹

CHAPTER I

INSTITUTIONS AND STANDARDS

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to discover how the welfare and development of future teachers are cared for in higher educational institutions. Student welfare as discussed in this chapter is concerned only with the student outside the classroom. Current practice, promising innovations, and desirable improvements in different types of institutions are considered. The study is concerned with such questions as: What provisions are made for students to discuss individual problems with a personnel officer or dean? How are health matters cared for? What programs for athletic sports are sponsored? How are students housed and fed? What opportunities for social and religious activities are provided? How much does it cost to go to college? What tendencies are noticeable in caring for students? How do the different types of institutions differ among themselves in respect to provisions for student welfare? In short, what is being done to promote student welfare and desirable extracurricular activities in institutions of all types that prepare teachers, and how do efforts vary with different types of institutions?

To find a partial answer to these questions, an inquiry was sent in April 1932 to 969 institutions which it was believed prepare teachers. These included about two-thirds of the entire number of higher educational institutions in the United States. No blanks were mailed to professional schools, or to many of the junior colleges which definitely did not engage in teacher preparation. Five hundred and forty usable returns were received, 43 of which arrived too late for tabulation. This study, therefore, is based upon returns from 497 representative institutions, which enrolled approximately one-half of all college students in the United States.

In keeping with the policy of the Survey to avoid duplicating other investigations already made, material from a few recent studies on special aspects of student welfare are utilized. A limited amount of

¹ This study was made by Benjamin W. Frazier, senior specialist in teacher training of the Office of Education, and assistant to the Director, and Walter J. Greenleaf, specialist in higher education of the Office of Education.

material is also taken from other inquiries made by the Survey; chiefly from Inquiry No. 12 on curricular and extracurricular activities, which was sent to approximately 900 institutions of all types.

TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

College students are enrolled in nearly 1,500 institutions of higher education, including colleges, universities, teachers colleges, professional and technical schools, normal schools, and junior colleges, as listed in the Educational Directory for 1933.

The institutions are classified for convenience into four main groups: (1) Teachers colleges; (2) normal schools; (3) colleges and universities; and (4) junior colleges. Each of these groups is further classified as (a) public institutions, and (b) private institutions. Public institutions are those supported or controlled by State, county, or city governments and include the land-grant institutions which receive some support from the Federal Government. The private institutions, sometimes called endowed colleges, are of two types: (1) Denominational—supported or controlled by church groups, and (2) nonsectarian—supported and controlled by private corporations independent of governmental or denominational agencies. A further classification is made according to sex of students: (1) Coeducational institutions, which admit both men and women; (2) men's colleges, which admit men only in undergraduate work; and (3) women's colleges, which admit women only.

The teachers colleges are for the most part public coeducational institutions, although a few enroll no men students, and 10 are privately controlled.

The normal schools are usually coeducational, but women predominate in the student body. About two-thirds of the normal schools are public and one-third are private institutions.

The colleges and universities are more diversified. Less than one-fifth (18 percent) are publicly supported, while more than four-fifths (82 percent) are privately controlled. The latter group includes the denominational institutions, which represent 62 percent of the total. As to sex of students, New England has always promoted education of men and of women in separate colleges; enrollments in this region show that there are more men in men's colleges than in coeducational institutions, and likewise more women in women's colleges than in coeducational institutions. While this is not true of other regions,

the idea of separate colleges for men and for women is also strong in the Middle Atlantic and Southern States. In the Midwest and West, coeducation is the rule. Enrollments of men and of women are seldom on an equal basis; usually there are from half again to twice as many men as women enrolled in the coeducational institutions, and many maintain a definite ratio of men to women admitted as 60-40, 50-50, etc. In the teachers colleges, there are nearly twice as many women students enrolled as men students, and in the normal schools nearly three times as many women students as men students.

The junior colleges are 71 percent coeducational; 22 percent are for women, and 7 percent for men. Two-fifths of the institutions are public, and three-fifths private; two-thirds of the latter group are denominational. In the coeducational institutions the enrollments of men and of women are nearly equal. In all institutions of higher education, about 56 percent of the students are men.

The independent professional schools, while not included in this study, should be mentioned to complete the picture of higher educational institutions. These institutions are not connected with any college or university, but are independently established to teach theology, law, technology, music, and other professions. Only 18 of the 207 institutions are publicly supported; 3 are exclusively for women; and half are coeducational. These institutions are not included in this study because they have not set up the specific objective of teacher preparation.

The foregoing classification of institutions is simplified in table 1. Several observations may help in the interpretation of the table. Even in the East it becomes more and more difficult to state without qualification that a particular college is for men only. The traditional men's colleges are still for men only in undergraduate work, but the larger institutions have generally admitted women to graduate courses, which fact accounts for the enrollment of women in some of the men's colleges. In a few women's colleges, likewise, some local men register for special work. Junior colleges here mentioned are 2-year institutions. These and the 2- and 3-year normal schools award diplomas but not degrees. In the Midwest, South, and West, the junior college movement has advanced rapidly. Although included in the figures in the table, junior colleges in California and in some other States with minimum State certification requirements of 3 or 4 years above high school were not included in this study.

158 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 1.—Classification of institutions of higher education, 1933¹

Type of institution	State			City			Private			Denominational			All
	Men	Women	Coed.	Men	Women	Coed.	Men	Women	Coed.	Men	Women	Coed.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Colleges and universities:													
White	8	8	78	1	1	9	21	22	71	75	86	217	607
Negro			10			1		2	5	2	3	22	45
Independent professional schools:													
White	8		10				19	3	67	64		33	204
Negro									1	1		1	3
Teachers colleges:													
White	0	7	130		2	5		3	6			1	154
Negro			9		1	1			1				13
Normal schools:													
White			43	1	6	7		21	7	1	2	2	90
Negro			7			2						2	11
Junior colleges:													
White	2		71			77	8	32	21	16	45	81	253
Negro						1			3		1	6	11
All white colleges	18	15	332	2	9	98	48	91	172	166	133	334	1,408
All Negro colleges			26		1	5		2	10	3	4	31	82
Grand total	18	15	358	2	10	103	48	93	182	169	137	365	1,490
Institutions of all types, men, women, and coeducational													
Percent		391			115			338		661			1,490
		26			8			22		44			100

¹ Compiled by Walter J. Greenleaf from U.S. Office of Education, Educational Directory, 1933. (Bulletin, 1933, no. 1). Slight revisions have been made in the directory, which lists 1,486 institutions.

² Of these denominational institutions, 166 (11 percent of 1,490) are Roman Catholic.

In classifying the denominational colleges, it is sometimes impossible to state definitely that certain institutions are under the control of, or are even affiliated with, particular churches. In the catalogs of these colleges there is often no mention of church affiliation. The National Catholic Welfare Conference publishes a directory of Catholic colleges and schools, from which the classification of this group of institutions was made. The Council of Church Boards of Education also publishes a handbook listing colleges by church denomination, but many nonsectarian institutions are included because at one time they were affiliated with a particular church. In replying to questionnaires, some denominational colleges state that they are nonsectarian because, although controlled by a particular church, they admit students of any faith. Therefore the problem of grouping colleges by type of control or support is a difficult one.

Nonsectarian colleges are those which favor no particular religious sect, but are supported and controlled by private interests apart from the churches. They accept students of any faith as do most of the denominational colleges, but this alone does not justify classification of such institutions as nonsectarian. Their policies follow no creed. Board members are not chosen because of religious affiliation. In some instances nonsectarian classification is in doubt when charters

provide for certain ~~board~~ members of a given religious faith. The basis for classification in the Office of Education is whether the college claims to be nonsectarian.

ENROLLMENTS

More than 1,000,000 resident students were enrolled in 1,409 higher institutions in 1930 and nearly one-half of these students planned to teach. Table 2 gives in detail the distribution of enrollments among the several types of institutions. The colleges and universities enrolled (column 6) 80 percent, teachers colleges 10.9 percent, normal schools 4 percent, and junior colleges 5.1 percent. The division of enrollments between public and private institutions is nearly equal (48.5 percent and 51.5 percent, respectively).

The percent of students enrolled in 497 institutions that replied to the welfare inquiry is shown in column 9 for comparison with total enrollments in 1,409 institutions (column 6). A comparison of the percentages in these columns shows the representation of colleges in the welfare study to be in good proportion both as to types of institutions and as to students enrolled. It will be seen that the welfare returns cover about one-half of the college students in the United States; 271,288 men and 219,731 women, or a total of 491,019 students as compared with a grand total of 1,085,799 in all colleges.

TABLE 2.—*Institutions and enrollments compared, 1929-30 and 1931-32*

Types of institutions	All institutions listed	Higher education, 1929-30 (1,409 institutions) ¹				497 institutions reporting on welfare inquiry ²		
		Men	Women	Total students		Number reporting	Enrollment	
				Number	Percent		Average number	Percent ³
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Teachers colleges ⁴	140	30,241	88,170	118,411	10.9	91	17.9
Public.....	134	29,454	85,294	114,778	10.6	86	1,004	17.6
Private.....	6	787	2,876	3,663	.8	5	266	.3
Normal schools ⁴	191	6,405	36,708	43,113	4.0	50	3.5
Public.....	139	4,911	31,718	36,629	3.4	37	385	2.9
Private.....	52	1,494	4,990	6,484	.6	13	229	.6
Colleges and universities.....	801	578,477	347,708	926,185	80.0	283	75.1
Public.....	117	238,069	137,910	375,979	31.1	67	39.4
Men's.....	5	1,710	1.8
Women's.....	6	1,246	1.5
Coeducational.....	56	2,165	30.1
Private.....	684	340,418	209,898	550,316	48.9	215	35.7
Men's.....
Nonsectarian.....	10	1,198	2.4
Denominational.....	23	434	2.0

¹ Based upon U.S. Office of Education. Statistical Summary of Education, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1929-30. vol. 2. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. p. 4 (Bulletin, 1932, no. 20). Also Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools, 1929-30.

² Resident regular session enrollments in 497 institutions replying to student-welfare inquiry, 1932.

³ Coeducational generally except a few where no men are enrolled.

⁴ Coeducational.

⁵ 100 percent equals an enrollment of 271,288 men and 219,731 women (total 491,019 students).

160 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 2.—Institutions and enrollments compared, 1929-30 and 1931-32—Contd.

Types of institutions	All institutions listed	Higher education, 1929-30 (1,400 institutions)				497 institutions reporting on welfare inquiry		
		Men	Women	Total students		Number reporting	Enrollment	
				Number	Percent		Average number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Colleges and universities—Con-								
Private—Continued								
Women's:								
Nonsectarian						13	800	2.3
Denominational						24	274	1.3
Coeeducational:						20	2,334	13.8
Nonsectarian						117	584	13.9
Denominational						74		3.5
Junior colleges	277	(1)	(1)	55,616	5.1	33		1.9
Public	120			80,501	3.4	33		1.9
Coeeducational						41		1.6
Private	148			16,115	1.7	6	161	.2
Women's:						12	207	.5
Nonsectarian						2	160	.1
Denominational						21	191	.8
Coeeducational:								
Nonsectarian								
Denominational								

RECAPITULATION

Public institutions (total)	519	270,454	254,922	525,376	48.8	228	1,200	61.7
Private institutions (total)	890	342,669	217,754	560,423	51.2	274	680	38.3
Grand total	1,409	613,123	472,676	1,085,799	100.0	497	988	100.0

* Junior college enrollments included with colleges and universities.

* Includes 1 junior college for men.

* See table 1 for number of institutions of different types in 1933.

* 100 per cent equals an enrollment of 271,288 men and 219,721 women (total 491,019 students).

Approximately 95 percent of the students in teachers colleges and normal schools planned to teach. The total number, including summer-session students was as follows: Teachers colleges, 225,165; and State normal schools, 25,772. In city normal schools, regular session, there were 6,456; private normal schools, 4,342; and county normal schools (incomplete), 1,250.² The total for all teachers colleges and normal schools was 262,985. In addition, there were 1,898 teachers-college and normal-school students enrolled in college-preparatory courses, 25,195 in correspondence courses, and 41,215 in class-extension courses.

The exact number in colleges, universities, and junior colleges preparing to teach is unknown. The number reported in 1929-30 totaled 116,052, but this number was incomplete, since many prospective teachers did not register as such.³

² From unpublished survey returns to the Office of Education, 1931.

³ U.S. Office of Education. "Statistics of Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools, 1929-30. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-30. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. pp. 7, 21. (Bulletin, 1931, no. 20.)

It is unfortunate that existing registration practices and the frequent lack of distinctiveness in college and junior-college teacher preparation render impossible the accurate reporting of students preparing to teach. The true extent of the potential teacher supply in colleges is higher than is commonly realized. Meyer found that of the graduates of 156 liberal-arts colleges from 1925 to 1929, inclusive, 45 percent went into teaching.⁴ Withers found the same proportion in 199 liberal arts colleges.⁵ In graduate work, Betts and Kent found that of 2,325 recipients of the Ph.D. degree in 32 universities, between 1915 and 1926, 71 percent were engaged in 1929 in teaching; 27 percent in research; and 2 percent in other occupations.⁶ Thus in the undergraduate arts and science fields and in graduate work, the specific preparation or the general education of teachers are among the most important functions undertaken by higher institutions of learning.

Personnel activities for prospective teachers in colleges and universities and for other students are practically the same. Comparisons, therefore, are made of provisions in different types of institutions, rather than for different groups of students within the same institutions.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF STUDENTS

The task of the institutions in providing for student welfare may be better appreciated if the character of the student body is described. Moffett, in a study in 1929 of 1,080 students in 15 teachers colleges located in different sections of the United States, thus describes the typical student:

1. The median student is 19 years of age.
2. She was born in the State in which she is now attending college.
3. Her parents are native born; in some States, however, the number of students with foreign-born parents is increasing.
4. Her father is the owner or manager of a small business or farm.
5. The intellectual status of her parents is above that of the average of the country but below that of superior ability.
6. The economic status of her family is classified as "comfort standard", which is the third of six levels.
7. Her home is furnished with the necessities of life, but it has few luxuries and practically none of the modern conveniences.
8. She is 1 of 5 children.
9. Her family is unbroken by death or divorce. She considers her family life satisfactory.

⁴ Meyer, Jacob G. *Small Colleges and Teacher Training*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co. [1928], pp. 39-41.

⁵ Withers, John W., ed. *Articulation in the Field of Teacher Training*. In National Education Association. Department of Superintendence. Seventh Yearbook, 1929. pp. 395-465.

⁶ Betts, George H. and Kent, Raymond A. *Foreign-Language Equipment of 2,325 Doctors of Philosophy*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co. [1929], p. 124. (Northwestern University. Contributions to Education. School of Education Series, no. 2.)

192 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

10. She has attended a rural elementary school and was graduated from a standard 4-year high school.
11. Her educational experience has not been increased by travel or much contact with art, music, or literature.
12. She has been reared in a rural community or small town.
13. Her recreation has been controlled by the resources and standards of a small community.
14. She has not had a large group from which to select her associates. Her contact with people has been limited.

The prospective teacher is a good representative of the middle class of American society. She comes from the background and has had the experience which makes her a compeer of an American citizen who is slightly above the average.

Moffet's findings are corroborated in large part by nine different State surveys or studies conducted since 1921, that included normal-school and teachers-college students. The States include Connecticut (1923-24), Florida (1928), Louisiana (1924), Massachusetts (1924), Michigan (1921), Missouri (1926), New Jersey (1928-29), Pennsylvania (1925), and Vermont (1926). Effects of immigration, economic status of locality, and nature of local occupations determine to a considerable extent the background of students. Data from these sources indicated that the proportions of students with parents engaged in business varied from 17 percent to 46 percent; professions, 5 percent to 22 percent; farming, 6 percent to 50 percent; skilled labor, 1 percent to 40 percent; unskilled labor, 4 percent to 15 percent. In five States, the proportion of students who were wholly dependent upon their parents for support varied from 39 to 60; other students depended wholly or in part upon self-support, borrowings, or savings for their school expenses. Parental support typically is given at an undue sacrifice. Herein lies one explanation for the establishment of free State institutions. Median parental incomes varied from \$1,775 to \$3,231, annually. The median number of children in the family was slightly over four. Median ages of students varied from 17.5 to 21 years. Most students were born of American parentage in the State in which educated, but in New Jersey, 42 percent of the fathers and 38 percent of the mothers were foreign born. The majority of students came from farms, villages, or small towns, but there were noteworthy proportions of students from cities of 5,000 population or more in highly urbanized States; for instance, 42 percent in New Jersey.

Reynolds, in a study in 1927 of 6,104 students in 55 representative liberal arts colleges and universities located in all the larger regions of the United States, found that:

1. Seventy-six percent of the fathers of the students were engaged in four occupational groups: Proprietary service, agriculture, professional service, and managerial service. More children of skilled and unskilled laborers and

¹ Moffet, M'Ledge. *The Social Background and Activities of Teachers College Students*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. p. 23. (Contributions to Education, no. 375.)

farm workers attended the normal schools and teachers colleges than the colleges; the latter had a greater proportion of children of business and professional workers.

2. The median family income of all students was \$3,129.60, and was somewhat higher for women students than for men. The student body represented economically a very broad cross-section of the population.
3. The percentage of all students who earned no part of the college expenses was 45.3; 12.92 percent were wholly self-supporting. One student in four was earning 50 percent or more of his total expenses. There was less self-help among women students than among men students.
4. While every race and nation was represented in the student body, 98 percent of the students were native born, while 87.69 percent of the fathers and 90.39 percent of the mothers were also native born.
5. The median-sized family comprised 3.77 children, a somewhat smaller number than that in the normal schools and teachers colleges.
6. The percent of fathers and mothers who had received only some form of elementary education was 33.16 and 31.28, respectively; of fathers and mothers graduated from high school, 26.69 and 32 percent, respectively; and of fathers and mothers graduated from college, 28.06 and 16.55 percent, respectively.
7. Student membership or affiliation with student organization ranged from none to eight each, the median being 2.64. Men tend to belong to more organizations than women.
8. The students were housed as follows: Dormitory, 33.37 percent; home, 22.92 percent; private home other than with relatives, 21.09 percent; fraternity or sorority houses, 17.20 percent; with relatives, 3.44 percent.*

On the whole, prospective teachers represent a fair cross-section of the whole American population. Since they are high-school graduates in a measure they are intellectually select; and of their earnestness and general promise, there is no question. However, elementary teaching has not often been placed highest among the professions in the esteem of the most able students. Students drawn from cultured homes obviously have a real advantage over less favored students that has a direct bearing upon their effectiveness as teachers. Teaching is entitled to the same share of superior students as the other professions. One way to secure such students, of course, is to improve salaries and working conditions to a degree that will make teaching compare favorably with the other recognized professions. In the presence of a decided over supply of teachers, the teacher-preparation institutions must share the responsibility of raising the level of general competency of entering students who plan to teach. The majority of institutions have made only nominal headway in this respect. Practically all teacher-preparation institutions should provide a living and working environment to help compensate for any earlier lack of social or cultural opportunities not infrequently suffered by many among their students.

* Reynolds, Ora E. The Social and Economic Status of College Students. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. pp. 54-57. (Contributions to education, no. 272.)

The majority of institutions reported in response to the student welfare inquiry that the intellectual level of the freshman students is believed to be higher than in the past, and that the students are more interested in scholastic work (table 3). This is to be expected at a time when the financial sacrifices involved in sending young people to college are greater than before and when selective admission and higher entrance requirements are more widely applied. The results of the 1931 and 1932 psychological examinations of the American Council on Education tend to confirm these opinions.⁹ As tuitions and fees are increased, and as the general level of income of parents decreases, there is more and more selection of students from homes of above-average income.

TABLE 3.—Trends: Intellectual level of students, interest in work, and withdrawals, 1932

Item ¹	Teachers colleges			Colleges and universities			Normal schools			Junior colleges		
	Increasing	No change	Decreasing	Increasing	No change	Decreasing	Increasing	No change	Decreasing	Increasing	No change	Decreasing
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Intellectual level of freshmen.....	55	44	1	54	42	4	64	31	5	46	44	10
Interest in academic work.....	69	28	3	67	31	2	58	42	—	66	31	3
Interest in extra curricular activities.....	54	40	6	40	48	12	56	42	2	48	33	19
Students withdrawing during the year ²	31	45	24	24	50	26	26	62	12	19	35	46

¹ Percent of total withdrawals according to type of institution.

² 100 percent.

SELECTIVE ADMISSION

This topic is discussed in detail in volume III. Student welfare programs as a rule are affected very little by decreased enrollments resulting from selective admission, although when prospective students are admitted on a selective basis, the tendency is to raise somewhat the general status of the student body. The application of certain selective measures, such as physical examinations, may afford data concerning students useful in building up the appropriate student welfare activities of the institutions.

Returns to the welfare inquiry show that 121 institutions out of 497 limited the enrollments in freshman classes (table 4). However, many stated that in 1930-31 their limits had not been reached. Of the total, 45 did not state the size of the freshman class; 13 limited enrollments to fewer than 125 students; 31 limited freshman enrollments to numbers ranging from 125 to 224; 19 institutions to 225-324; and 13 institutions to 325-874 students. Three out of five of these

⁹ Thurstone, L. L., and Thurstone, T. G. The 1932 Psychological Examinations. The Educational Record, 14: 194-196, April 1933.

institutions are colleges and universities; the majority are separate colleges for men or for women which are either nonsectarian or denominational. State institutions do not generally limit enrollments.

TABLE 4.—*Selective admission, 1930-31*

Selective admission	Number of institutions				
	Colleges and universities	Teachers colleges	Normal schools	Junior colleges	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6
Freshman enrollment is limited in:					
Size of freshman class.....	74	15	25	7	121
Not stated.....	20	5	19	1	45
25-124.....	7	1	4	1	13
125-224.....	21	5	2	3	31
225-324.....	14	4	0	1	19
325-424.....	6	0	0	1	7
425-524.....	2	0	0	0	2
525-674.....	4	0	0	0	4
Waiting list of students is kept in:					
Number on list 1930-31.....	41	6	13	5	65
Not stated.....	24	4	10	2	40
5-34.....	10	0	3	2	15
35-64.....	3	1	0	0	4
65 or more.....	4	1	0	1	6
Students were barred from institution as a result of physical examinations in:					
Number barred.....	27	14	9	1	51
1-4.....	22	8	5	1	36
5-9.....	2	5	3	—	10
10 or more.....	3	1	1	—	5

A waiting list of students is kept in 65 institutions including 41 colleges and universities notably women's colleges, 6 teachers colleges, 13 normal schools, and 5 junior colleges. Forty of these did not state the number on the list in 1930-31. Some stated that the list is kept in normal years; 15 carried 5 to 34 students on the lists, and 10 carried more.

In most of the colleges (all types) students were not barred from entrance in 1930-31 as a result of physical examinations. In 51 institutions, however, 406 students were barred. From 1 to 10 students was the most common number barred on account of physical condition, although one college barred 21 students, another 40, and another 187 as a result of physical examinations.

Selective-admission is employed most in densely populated States, and in city normal schools and teachers colleges. States with typical programs of selective admission are Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. Nearly all city teacher-preparation institutions limit enrollments.

Admission on probation is advocated by some authorities. Many student qualifications are developmental, and time is needed to discover in detail certain weaknesses or abilities. Once the students are admitted, eliminations should be made in the light of data from a

careful guidance program in the institution. The cooperation of both students and parents should be sought in making adjustments.¹⁰

The techniques of a good selective procedure, approved by a number of authorities, are given in a study by Townsend. These techniques, which may be modified from time to time as results of scientific experimentation and further study are made available, include the following: Recommendation of secondary school principal; submission of certificate of good moral character; presentation of minimum number of secondary school units, with minimum marks prescribed in each subject; attainment of a minimum rank in applicant's high-school graduating class; requirement of entrance examinations with a minimum prescribed score or mark in subject matter later to be studied; passing of physical, medical, and psychological examinations administered by institutional officers; satisfactory statement by secondary school authorities of mental status and, when possible, an estimation of prospects of teaching success of applicant; a brief life history and a complete school history of applicant; determination of student's major interest; and personal interview by trained personnel interviewer, or qualified institutional staff members. Applicants should be ranked in order of merit thus determined, and the highest chosen first when further choice must be made.¹¹

WITHDRAWALS

Data concerning 22,600 freshmen in 1925 in 38 land-grant colleges and universities distributed throughout the United States show that approximately one-third did not return the following year as sophomores.¹² Losses of college students continue in lessening proportions until the end of the senior year. An enormous increase in college enrollments for several decades, resulting largely from increased high-school enrollments, has brought into the colleges many mediocre or poor students not suited to the prevailing types of college work. While the colleges have made many adjustments to meet the needs of such students, the extremely heavy student mortality is a problem that is far from solution. The situation is persistent and serious. Causes for withdrawal are numerous. Failure in course, often associated with lack of intelligence of the abstract kind, is the most frequent cause; lack of money, change of interest, poor health, adverse home conditions, and other causes further increase the numbers of students who never return.

¹⁰Hagis, C. E. *Selective Admission to Teacher Preparation*. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932. 8 pp. (Office of Education. Leaflet no. 39.)

Smith, Frank W., secretary. *Meeting of Municipal Normal School and Teachers College Section of the National Education Association at Cleveland, March 1929*. Mimeographed material.

Diemer, G. W. *Gates to Teachers Colleges*. *Journal of Education*. 110: 463-464. Nov. 25, 1929.

¹¹Townsend, Marion E. *The Administration of Student Personnel Services in Teacher-Training Institutions of the United States*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. pp. 49-51. (Contributions to Education, no. 526.)

¹²U.S. Office of Education. *Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities*. vol. 1. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1930. p. 261. (Bulletin, 1930, no. 2.)

CHAPTER II

STUDENT PERSONNEL STAFF

The ratio of students to faculty in 1900 was 9 to 1; in 1930 the proportion of students to faculty had increased to 13 to 1. The increase in faculty members during the past 30 years has not kept pace with increased enrollments; and today each faculty member must be responsible for nearly half again as many students as in 1900. In consequence, the attention given to the student as an individual has suffered.

Functions which were formerly performed by individual faculty members have been taken over by specialized officers, such as deans, personnel directors, and college physicians. The larger institutions have centralized the work of these officers in personnel administrative units which vary in nature with the size of enrollments, amount of support, and administrative policies. In other institutions, the president's duties in respect to student personnel are chiefly administrative and supervisory, except in matters pertaining to public relationships. The dean of the college is largely responsible for and often in direct charge of personnel services. The registrar performs the student bookkeeping and furnishes personnel officers with reports. The college physician, who supervises student health, is often aided by nurses and other officers. Deans of men and of women are responsible for student living conditions and social life. If directors of personnel are employed, they are responsible for guidance, counseling, and placement of students in positions, and are assisted by faculty members or by a placement director typically in the department of education. Some institutions have no other specialized officers or staff members than a registrar, dean of women or men, placement director, and dormitory matrons.

Dean of students.—Practically all of the colleges for men have an official appointed to promote the welfare of the men students. While his title may vary from dean of men to dean of the college, his duties are nevertheless primarily in the interest of the students. In some coeducational institutions, he may have charge of all student activities, and may be assisted by a dean of women and sometimes by an assistant dean of men. In many cases, however, the dean of men and the dean of women in a coeducational institution are two officials who act independently. Colleges for women always have a dean of women or a woman who holds another title but whose chief

responsibility is the welfare of the women students. In small coeducational institutions, she may be the only official primarily concerned with student welfare.

In 55 coeducational institutions a dean of student life or activities whose duties are concerned with the welfare of both men and women students is appointed, and there is no other dean. Table 5 shows the distribution of these deans by types of institutions.

TABLE 5.—Deans of men and women combined, 1932

Coeducational institutions	Number	Control of institution			
		State	Nonsec- tarian	Denomina- tional	City
1	2	3	4	5	6
Colleges and universities	24	1	1	20	2
Teachers colleges	10	7	3		
Normal schools	8	3	2		
Junior colleges	13	1	2	3	3
Total	55	12	8	23	12

In 27 institutions 1 person was dean of both men and women and had charge of the work of an assistant dean of men and an assistant dean of women. In 16 institutions the dean was assisted by a dean of women for the women students and presumably took care of the welfare of the men students himself.

Deans of men.—Data from the Survey staff inquiry included returns from 96 deans of men, representing all sizes and types of higher educational institutions, ranging from normal schools and junior colleges to large universities with graduate schools. The typical dean was or had been married (79 percent). The median age of the group was about 42 years; 7 percent were under 30 and 10 percent over 50. Only one was over 64.

In respect to academic rank, 58 percent were professors, 16 percent associate professors; 8 percent assistant professors; 17 percent instructors; and 1 percent lecturers.

Ninety-one percent received their bachelor's degree in colleges or universities; teachers colleges were few in number when the typical dean received his undergraduate education. Ninety-four of the deans reporting had the bachelor's degree, 76 the master's, and 27 the doctor's. About three-fourths of the deans had received all their degrees from institutions other than the one in which they were employed.

TABLE 6.—Official titles of student advisers, 1932

Title ¹	Frequency of use			
	Colleges and universities	Junior colleges	Teachers colleges	Normal schools
	2	3	4	5
Dean of women	102	17	42	16
Dean	87	20	12	7
Dean of men	75	7	33	8
Dean of college	26	7	2	1
Adviser	13	4	6	1
Director of personnel	13	1	2	1
Dean of students	12			
Assistant dean	9	2		
Dean of faculty	8	5	2	
Student counselor	6			
Dean of freshmen	5			
Freshman adviser	4		1	

¹ Various other isolated titles included: Spiritual director, proctor, warden, preceptress, adviser for women, academic dean, dean of administration, assistant to president, personnel secretary, director of guidance, supervisor of student activities, dean of student life, dean of personnel administration, dean of undergraduates, etc.

A little less than one-third of the deans of men had had business experience, and a slightly smaller proportion had had experience in elementary school work. Slightly less than three-fourths had had experience in secondary school work, while somewhat more than one-fourth had had experience as superintendents or assistant superintendents of schools. Slightly less than half had had college experience on other college or university staffs, while the typical dean had had from 6 to 10 years' experience in the institution where employed.

In 1931-32, 89 deans of men received a median salary of \$3,356; the middle half of the cases varied from \$2,606 (Q_1) to \$4,096 (Q_3). Only eight deans received more than \$5,000 a year. Salaries were somewhat lower than in 1930-31. Salaries in 1931-32 in different types of institutions were as follows: State teachers colleges, median \$3,300, range \$1,800-\$4,200; denominational universities and colleges, median \$2,700, range \$1,200-\$5,000; State universities and land-grant colleges, median \$4,600, range \$3,000-\$5,800; and non-denominational universities and colleges, median \$3,800, range \$2,600-\$9,900.

The duties of deans varied greatly. Typically, a dean of men devoted 48 hours per week to institutional responsibilities. The middle half of cases devoted from 40 to 55 hours per week to institutional work. Eighty-eight percent taught subjects in college; 42 percent taught more than 10 clock-hours per week, and 10 percent taught 17 clock-hours or more. Almost all important teaching fields were represented. Only 27 percent of the deans had other than clerical assistants. Obviously a substantial proportion of the time of the typical dean was not given primarily to student welfare. The deans

also did not appear to engage extensively in research or creative work of an academic nature. Eighty-two percent had not published any books since July 1926, and 75 percent had published no articles. Nearly two-thirds were devoting no time to research. Eighty-three percent were not granted sabbatical leave by the institution; of the remainder, 6 percent did not take the last sabbatical leave offered.

According to a recent study by Gardner,¹ the functional administration and administrative personnel of student welfare for men in 211 institutions included in the survey conducted by the National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men in 1931-32 involves the following duties by two-thirds or more of the deans:

- Analyze and adjust students' social problems
- Analyze and adjust students' moral problems
- Analyze and adjust students' emotional difficulties
- Advise with interfraternity government
- Supervise fraternities
- Supervise housing
- Advise with student government
- Penalize for infractions of housing regulations

Table 7 shows the independent deans of men and deans of women in the different types of colleges.

Jones, in a study of 263 deans of women in colleges (1928), found that 91 percent had the bachelor's degree, 57 percent the master's, and 15 percent the doctor's. Forty percent held the rank of professor. Eight out of ten deans before appointment had been classroom teachers, usually in college. Seventy percent of them still taught a median of about 6½ hours a week. One-fourth taught more than 10 hours a week. Fifty percent were between 28 and 39 years of age upon appointment. Most of them were unmarried. Fifty percent received an annual salary of between \$2,096 and \$3,531. Only 15 deans were paid more than \$5,000 annually.²

Sturtevant and Strang in a study of more than 100 deans of women in normal schools and teachers colleges (1928) reported that 89 percent of the deans in teachers colleges and 79.8 percent in the normal schools held the bachelor's degree. Forty percent in the teachers colleges and 33.3 percent in the normal schools held the master's degree; none reported the doctorate. Approximately half had taken professional training for their specific work. Ninety-one percent had had teaching experience, usually of a varied nature. Relatively few had had previous experience as dean prior to the position then held, in which the length of employment was typically 5 years. About seven-tenths were unmarried. About three-fourths taught classes—

¹ Report on the national survey of functions of student administration for men in colleges and universities of the United States. Gardner, D. H. Secretarial Notes of the 14th Annual Conference of the National Association of Deans and Advisers of Men. Lawrence, Kans., Republican Publishing Co., p.75.

² Jones, Jane L. A Personnel Study of Women Deans in Colleges and Universities. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. pp. 121-122. (Contributions to Education, no. 226.)

typically 7 hours a week—along with the performance of the regular duties as dean. One-fourth taught 11 hours or more a week, and 6.5 percent taught 16 hours or more. Median salaries in the teachers colleges for 9 or 10 months were \$3,050 in the teachers colleges, and \$2,550 in the normal schools, not including the value of perquisites.³

TABLE 7.—*Deans of men and deans of women, 1932*

Types of institutions	Men's colleges, dean of college	Women's colleges, dean of college	Coeducational		
			Both dean of men and dean of women	Dean of men only	Dean of women only
1	2	3	4	5	6
Colleges and universities.....	30	42	114	3	18
Teachers colleges.....		5	55		8
Normal schools.....		11	10		6
Junior colleges.....	1	17	18		3
Total.....	31	75	197	3	35

Practice in the administration of personnel service varies greatly. Whatever the local administrative practices may be, these principles apply: (1) The influence of the services should be felt by every student; (2) individual faculty members should contribute appropriate parts to such services, especially in small institutions; (3) centralized control, while desirable, should usually be accompanied by considerable freedom by officers or students; (4) personnel services should be conducted to help students readily to adjust to college life and to their later professional environment.

As normal schools have become teachers colleges, and as small colleges have increased in enrollments, the increased assumption of specialized functions by college instructors and general institutional officers of the duties of specialists in student welfare has often led to amateurish and ineffective services. Many institutions have no other specialized officers or staff members than a registrar, dean of women or men, and placement director. A fully developed staff may well include the majority if not all the following officers, all of whom should have had special training for their particular work: Personnel director, registrar, physician and nurses, dormitory supervisor, dean of women or of men or both, faculty advisers, psychologists and psychiatrists, statistician, and placement director, who may be director of personnel. In small institutions, if a specially prepared and well-balanced staff of part-time personnel officers are provided, there appears little reason why personnel work may not be conducted quite as

³ Sturtevant, Sarah M., and Strang, Ruth. *A Personnel Study of Deans of Women in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. pp. 63-68. (Contributions to Education, no. 319.)

effectively as in the larger institutions. Care should be taken, however, to relieve personnel officers of an undue burden of classroom teaching.

Director of student personnel.—While the dean of men or dean of women is the virtual director of student personnel in most institutions, nevertheless a fair number of colleges have appointed in recent years a director of student personnel who is responsible for the system of advising students, health and mental hygiene service, vocational information, employment, and placement, not to mention other miscellaneous duties which may or may not be coordinated with his office. His service is largely informational in character—either obtaining information about individual students to be analyzed for their benefit, or giving information and counsel to the students when they desire it. The personnel director should provide for student contacts and his office should be a storehouse of information about the services of the college—guidance, placement, health, and activities which interest students.

Faculty advisers are often appointed to interview and aid students. Often some 25 or more students are assigned to an instructor or professor who is willing to accept such responsibility. The plan, however, is only partially satisfactory because few faculty members are really interested in systematic student advisement or have at hand information which will answer student questions—such as what vocations need men, what salaries are paid, and what entrance requirements are necessary for the various professions. Professors are most interested in their own specialties and find little time to give to personnel work which is outside of their fields.

Interviewers are sometimes chosen from among the seniors or young graduates who have been given sufficient training to guide students through the first requirements. In this way students who need special service are sent to the proper department head, college physician, dean, loan administrator, or other staff member for further consultation.

Placement directors are appointed in many colleges particularly in those that educate teachers. Their work is largely finding jobs for students and many times this work is in no way connected with vocational guidance. Their outside contacts, however, are invaluable both to the institution and to the student.

Personnel activities should be coordinated even in a small college. Many of the existing services which a college offers its students may be brought together for more effective use by students. For instance, standards of admission determine to a large extent the character of the student body as a whole and the adjustments necessary after entrance. Freshman-week programs and orientation activities are a part of personnel service. Systematic advising, vocational guid-

ance, and placement should be undertaken by the personnel division. Student loans, deferred tuitions, scholarships, and self-help opportunities may also be a part of the personnel service. Inasmuch as the work of the dean of students is basic to such a system, an improved personnel program may mean that the dean will assume wider responsibility and less teaching, or that his work will be coordinated with that of the personnel division. This does not necessarily mean a larger budget, but a centering of existing activities, which in many cases will do away with duplication of efforts and will increase efficiency.

CHAPTER III

LIVING CONDITIONS OF THE STUDENTS

STUDENT HOUSING

Practically one-third of the men and one-half of the women in colleges and universities live in dormitories provided by the institutions. Since State teachers colleges have smaller numbers of men, dormitories for them are not provided so frequently as in coeducational colleges and universities, but provisions for women are much alike in both types of institutions (table 8). Women's colleges are most liberal in provision of dormitory facilities.

TABLE 8.—Housing of students, 1939

MEN

Types of institutions	Number of colleges reporting	Number of colleges maintaining dormitories	Students live in non-fire-resistant buildings		Average percent of students who room in—				Number of colleges where students must provide their own—		
			Number of colleges	Number of students	Dormitories owned by institution	Fraternity or sorority houses, clubs, etc.	Home with parents	Elsewhere off-campus	Laundry service	Bedding	Furniture
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<i>Men's colleges</i>											
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	5	4	3	1,060	43	8	23	26	4	4	—
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	10	9	1	34	33	44	7	16	6	6	3
Denominational.....	22	16	5	547	52	5	26	17	11	9	—
<i>Coeducational institutions</i>											
Teachers colleges:											
Public.....	82	28	13	1,000	19	8	32	44	10	12	1
Private—nonsectarian.....	4	1	—	—	—	21	46	33	1	—	—
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	56	38	10	1,831	32	27	20	21	22	20	—
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	20	21	5	1,000	41	13	20	26	15	12	1
Denominational.....	117	87	26	1,949	30	10	40	20	61	61	6
Normal schools:											
Public.....	29	6	—	—	7	3	53	38	2	2	—
Private—nonsectarian.....	4	3	—	—	49	6	37	8	3	2	—
Junior colleges:											
Public.....	33	7	4	769	13	—	73	15	7	6	—
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	2	2	1	21	95	—	4	1	—	2	—
Denominational.....	20	15	7	563	41	—	23	27	11	11	—

TABLE 8.—Housing of students, 1932—Continued

WOMEN

Types of institutions	Number of colleges reporting	Number of colleges maintaining dormitories	Students live in non-fire-resistant buildings		Average percent of students who room in—				Number of colleges where students must provide their own—		
			Number of colleges	Number of students	Dormitories owned by institution	Fraternity or sorority houses, clubs, etc.	Home with parents	Elsewhere off-campus	Laundry service	Bedding	Furniture
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Women's colleges											
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	6	6	2	672	78	8	12	7	2	6	1
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	13	12	7	3,865	73		22	5	6	7	1
Denominational.....	24	23	8	247	70		20	1	10	14	1
Junior colleges:											
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	6	6	0	0	75		28	2	2	2	
Denominational.....	12	9	8	816	69		20	6	7	9	1
Vocational institutions											
Teachers colleges:											
Public.....	86	62	16	1,984	80	2	20	35	26	20	2
Private—nonsectarian.....	5	5	1	160	86	33	2	6	2	3	
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	56	47	18	1,261	80	16	35	19	31	31	
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	20	24	7	1,065	84	4	26	16	16	17	
Denominational.....	117	102	34	1,576	80	10	40	20	77	80	8
Normal schools:											
Public.....	26	19	6	425	30	2	43	26	6	12	
Private—nonsectarian.....	12	7	1	7	29		63	8	6	5	
Junior colleges:											
Public.....	23	8	2	631	14		74	12	9	7	
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	2	2	1	19	100					2	
Denominational.....	20	17	2	408	32		44	24	12	12	

The way in which a student lives in college may have a large effect upon his success in college and upon his standard of living when he establishes his own home. While some college residence halls appear to be lavish and are expensive, the rooms in which students live can hardly be characterized as more than comfortable. Those that are luxurious are made so by the furnishings which the occupant brings with him. Accommodations distinctly above the average of those provided usually include a fair-sized study room, often with a fireplace, standardized furnishings of a substantial nature which might be itemized in the catalog as 1 desk, 1 table, 1 bookcase, 1 rug, 1 couch, 1 morris chair; a small bedroom containing 1 bed, 1 dresser, 1 chair, and 1 rug, a clothes closet, and a private bathroom. Service goes with the room to the extent of cleaning and bedmaking, and additional service may be had for extra payment. With dormitories of this type, there is usually a lounging room or common room where students may gather informally; appointments of the common room

are generally well chosen and represent a considerable outlay of money. Visitors are entertained in this room, and naturally form the idea that expensive adornments are characteristic of student rooms.

Some of the newer but less pretentious dormitories are more on the order of barracks. They are of fire-resistive construction and show evidence of standardization. Space has been economized; double rooms without private baths are more frequently used than single rooms; service is limited and rentals are low. Furnishings in the room usually include 2 desks, 2 dressers, and 2 cots. There may or may not be a common room in such a building; if provided, it is generally in keeping with the atmosphere of the building as a whole. Such dormitories provide clean, hygienic, and safe living quarters, since they avoid undue hazards of fire and disease.

Then there are the old dormitories built before the advent of modern comforts, sanitation, and fireproofing. These buildings carry with them the traditions of the college, and make up in college atmosphere what is lost in appearance and comfort. Rooms in these buildings may have been occupied by famous men in history, but they afford few luxuries and are frequently quite undesirable when judged by modern living standards. Often the older buildings are fire-traps which constitute dangerous hazards, although fire escapes which have been added lessen, when usable, the danger to life in case of fire.

Cottages and cooperative houses are sometimes provided, especially for women students. These are in reality homes which are managed and conducted by the occupants. Sometimes old houses are used which are too large for private families and yet not large enough or properly arranged for dormitories; sometimes new cottages or separate housing units are provided.

Fraternities and sororities house many students. The rooms in the fraternity houses are occasionally arranged in suites; sometimes in combined study-bedrooms; and sometimes as study rooms with the top floor utilized as a huge dormitory room, barracks fashion, where students sleep but do not live.

The fraternities are usually well-managed social agencies which are under the surveillance of the administrative officers. In some colleges, these societies are well accepted as a part of college life; in others they are tolerated as necessary evils; and in a few colleges they are banned altogether. They are not common in the normal schools and junior colleges. Where societies maintain houses, the college authorities generally see that they are well regulated.

Off-campus rooms are available in many types of buildings, particularly in private houses. A few students live in hotels and apartments. Off-campus living is least desirable because students miss much of college life. When students are permitted to live off-campus else-

where than in their homes, the houses and rooms should be approved by the deans. Social standards are sometimes low in rooming houses, and care of students is considered purely a commercial proposition. It is more difficult in outside houses to insure proper attention to facilities for heating, lighting, bathing, social entertainment, quiet hours, and refinement in conduct.

Housing conditions probably affect scholarship. In a study by Prosser of 176 freshman women in the State University of Iowa (1928), freshmen living at home ranked first in scholastic achievement as measured by first-semester grades; women living in sorority houses, second; in dormitories, third; in approved rooms, fourth; in homes where they earned their living expenses, fifth.¹ The latter group were above the average in intellectual ability, made better grades than other self-supporting freshmen, but ranked low in college activities, and carried a reduced class schedule.¹

Students who are obliged to economize would profit by living in rooms provided or approved by the college where living conditions are controlled by good taste and discriminating judgment. The college or normal school should provide living conditions in keeping with those of professional people. A teacher who is accustomed to the essentials of a cultured life can better inspire his pupils toward the attainment of those essentials.

Housing for men.—The following data were selected from those institutions which reported usable figures as to dormitory facilities, and nature of living quarters for men in residence (table 8).

Ten nonsectarian men's colleges reported. Nine maintained dormitories but only 6 furnished the rooms, and only 3 supplied bedding and laundry service. In 1 college, 34 men were housed in non-fire-resistive buildings. Thirty-three percent of the men lived in dormitories, 44 percent in chapter houses, 7 percent at home, and 16 percent elsewhere.

Reports from 22 denominational men's colleges show that 16 maintained dormitories and furnished the rooms. Seven furnished bedding and 5 laundry service. In 5 colleges, 547 men were housed in non-fire-resistive buildings. Fifty-two percent of the men lived in dormitories, 5 percent in chapter houses, 25 percent at home, and 17 percent elsewhere.

In coeducational institutions, out of 56 public institutions (State and city) 38 maintained dormitories for men and furnished the rooms; 18 supplied bedding, and 16 laundry service. In 10 institutions, 1,831 men lived in non-fire-resistive buildings. Thirty-two percent of the

¹ Prosser, Mary Rose. A Study of the Scholastic Performance of Freshman Women at the State University of Iowa, 1927-28. Iowa City, Iowa, The University, 1930.

men lived in dormitories, 27 percent in chapter houses, 20 percent at home, and 21 percent elsewhere.

Out of 29 nonsectarian coeducational institutions, 21 maintained dormitories for men and all but 1 furnished the rooms; 11 supplied bedding, and 6 gave laundry service. In 5 institutions, 1,000 men lived in non-fire-resistive buildings. Forty-one percent of the men lived in dormitories, 13 percent in chapter houses, 20 percent at home, and 26 percent elsewhere.

Out of 117 coeducational denominational colleges and universities, 87 maintained dormitories for men. All except 6 furnished the rooms, and 26 supplied bedding and laundry service. In 24 institutions men lived in non-fire-resistive buildings. Thirty percent lived in dormitories, 3 percent in chapter houses, 41 percent at home, and 16 percent elsewhere.

Not many years ago, it was customary for students to furnish their own rooms even to shades, curtains, and lighting fixtures. Most of the student rooms at present are equipped with the necessary pieces of furniture, and penalties are made for destruction or mistreatment by the occupants.

Of the 82 coeducational public teachers colleges, 28 maintained dormitories for men. In 11 of these, however, 837 men were housed in dormitories which were not of fire-resistive construction. Two others reported that all their students live in non-fire-resistive buildings. One college did not furnish the rooms; the men must buy furniture to make their quarters livable. Twelve colleges did not supply bedding, and 10 did not have laundry facilities. In 28 institutions reporting, 19 percent of the men lived in dormitories owned by the college, 5 percent in fraternity houses, 32 percent at home, and 44 percent elsewhere.

Five of the 29 normal schools reporting furnished dormitories for men. All furnished the rooms; 3 supplied bedding and laundry service. Seven percent of the men lived in dormitories, 2 percent in fraternity houses, 53 percent at home, and 38 percent elsewhere.

Seven of the 34 public junior colleges provided dormitories for men; all furnished the rooms, 1 supplied bedding, but none furnished laundry service. In 4 there were more than 300 men who lived in non-fire-resistive buildings. Thirteen percent of the men lived in dormitories, 72 percent at home, and 15 percent elsewhere. In 15 out of 19 denominational junior colleges, dormitories for men were provided; all were furnished, but only 4 supplied bedding and laundry service. In half of these institutions, more than 400 men lived in non-fire-resistive buildings. Forty-one percent lived in the dormitories, 32 percent at home, and 27 percent elsewhere.

Housing for women.—As a rule the housing provisions for women students are better than those for the men. More dormitories are

available, and a larger percentage of women live in dormitories owned and operated by the institutions. Sixty-three percent of the women in women's colleges and 31 percent of the women in coeducational institutions were living in college dormitories.

In the women's colleges less than 1 percent of the students lived in sorority houses, and these students were all in publicly supported colleges. Only 6 percent lived off the campus in rooming houses; nearly one-third lived at home with parents.

In the coeducational institutions, 7 percent of the women lived in sorority houses, 39 percent at home, and 23 percent in rooming houses.

A young woman entering college and rooming in a college dormitory would probably live, according to Hayes:

* * * in a hall with 50 or 60 other young women, and be placed in a double room. There would be social rooms available in the hall for the entertainment of callers and for hall parties of various kinds. Her food probably would be served in the same building or in an adjacent one. She would probably be under the general supervision of a head of hall, though in matters of daily routine and minor discipline she would be subject to the regulations made by the women's student government association. She would pay from \$1 to \$2 per day for her room and board.¹

This picture of simple, inexpensive living is a decided contrast to the lurid presentation of "life in college" as it is described in fiction and sensational press items. While it is true that some students live extravagantly, such living is more a matter of personal taste and family wealth than the provision of college-operated residence halls.

College-owned residence halls or dormitories should be provided in all cases where financially possible. Aside from capital outlay, dormitories may often be made self-supporting. Dormitories should set desirable standards of living for students throughout the institution, and may well be made centers for the development of much of the social life of the student body.

STUDENT FEEDING

Before the advent of the cafeteria some 25 or 30 years ago, colleges generally provided a "commons" or large dining hall with long tables where students sat down three times a day for meals. The commons was designed to be a socializing agency where students ate together, conversed, and formed genial friendships. But many students proved to be faultfinders, sometimes justly so. They were dissatisfied with the food provided by the college and impatient with the service and with the prices paid. For one reason and another many left the commons to join eating clubs, or to patronize boarding houses and restaurants where they might choose their own menus and friends. This practice left the college with reduced revenue, but still responsible

¹ Hayes, Harriet. *Planning Residence Halls for Undergraduate Students in American Colleges and Universities*. New York, N.Y., bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932.

for maintenance of the commons. In consequence, many colleges reorganized their dining services. Some gave up the management of student dining-halls; some required all students to pay board; some remodeled their dining halls into cafeterias for self-service; and others promoted the establishment of eating clubs. No special investigation was made of those colleges which provide commons with service, and those which maintain college cafeterias, but about four-fifths of the colleges still manage student eating places on the campus. These facilities have undergone so many changes in the twentieth century that they are scarcely comparable to the college commons of earlier years. Colleges which do not provide dining halls or cafeterias for students depend on fraternities, clubs, boarding houses, and homes to take care of student feeding.

Table 9 reveals in detail the manner in which students were taken care of at mealtime. It should be read as follows: Out of 86 public teachers colleges, 69 provided student dining halls of some kind, in which 28 percent of the men and 40 percent of the women were cared for; 3 percent of the men and 1 percent of the women ate in fraternities or sororities; the larger portion—69 percent of the men and 59 percent of the women—either lived at home or took their meals off campus in the local boarding houses or restaurants.

TABLE 9—Facilities for student feeding, 1932

Types of institutions	Institutions in study	Number reporting eating places managed by college	Average percent of students eating in					
			Institutional eating places		Fraternities and sororities		Other off-campus eating places and homes	
			Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Teachers colleges:								
Public.....	86	69	28	40	3	1	69	59
Private.....	5	5	21	86	21	0	58	20
Normal schools:								
Public.....	37	29	29	51	2	2	69	47
Private.....	13	9	51	85	6	1	43	64
Colleges and universities:								
Men's:								
Public.....	5	4	46	—	4	—	50	—
Private (nonsectarian).....	10	7	22	—	50	—	28	—
Denominational.....	22	15	69	—	4	—	27	—
Women's:								
Public.....	6	6	—	16	—	0	—	84
Private (nonsectarian).....	13	12	—	92	—	0	—	8
Denominational.....	24	21	—	83	—	1	—	16
Coeeducational:								
Public.....	55	49	26	38	23	16	51	46
Private (nonsectarian).....	29	24	39	60	15	5	46	35
Denominational.....	117	103	38	49	11	2	51	49
Junior colleges:								
Women's:								
Private (nonsectarian).....	6	6	—	75	—	0	—	25
Denominational.....	12	11	—	77	—	0	—	23
Coeeducational:								
Public.....	33	16	15	16	0	0	85	84
Private (nonsectarian).....	2	2	95	95	0	0	5	5
Denominational.....	21	20	40	33	0	0	60	67
Grand total.....	497	408						

Without doubt, the nature of dining facilities affects students' attitudes toward eating. Accepted standards of dress and conduct at table are brought about more promptly by attractive surroundings than by rules and regulations. Students do not wish to appear for dinner ungroomed when they are noticeably out of harmony with their surroundings. While table manners are seldom taught formally at college, students who lack home training find plenty of opportunity to learn through friendly criticism or example of fellow students. One bad habit which is general among college students is rapid eating. In general, attractive dining rooms invite social intercourse; any other means to encourage the student to dine rather than simply eat are to be approved.

With the idea of securing institutional impressions concerning the general nature of the dining hall, the question was asked whether appearance and service were most like (1) a metropolitan hotel, (2) a commercial restaurant, (3) a mess hall, or (4) a boarding house. No attempt was made, of course, to secure exact information, but the returns give a fair picture of the general atmosphere of college dining halls.

Table 10 details the replies for the various types of institutions, and should be read as follows: Of the dining halls in men's colleges 12.1 percent are most like metropolitan hotels, 27.3 percent like commercial restaurants, 33.3 percent like mess halls, and 27.3 percent like boarding houses. The data for other types of colleges and universities are to be read likewise.

TABLE 10.—*Dining halls—appearance, number of dietitians, and requirements for food handlers' examinations, 1932*

Types of institutions	Percent of institutions whose dining halls are in appearance most like—				Percent of institutions employing—		Percent of institutions which require medical examinations of food handlers—				
	Metropolitan hotel	Commercial restaurant	Mess hall	Boarding house	Graduate dietitians	Practical dietitians	Once per year	Twice per year	Three times per year	Four or more times per year	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
All institutions.....	32.0	23.8	13.3	31.0	38.4	50.2	30.8	5.7	1.0	0.7	38.2
Men's colleges.....	12.1	27.3	33.3	27.3	10.7	60.7	38.0	4.0	.0	.0	40.0
Women's colleges.....	52.0	10.0	7.0	31.0	41.6	47.2	26.4	5.5	1.4	1.4	34.7
Coseducational institutions.....	31.8	12.5	13.1	42.6	40.2	50.0	31.5	5.9	1.0	.6	39.0
Publicly controlled.....	26.6	30.4	13.3	23.7	45.9	42.5	30.2	8.0	1.7	.6	46.5
Private nonsectarian.....	29.8	35.1	5.4	29.7	49.2	40.0	38.5	8.0	.0	1.5	43.0
Denominational.....	31.8	12.5	13.1	42.6	26.6	62.1	22.5	4.0	.6	.6	27.7
Colleges and universities.....	34.8	20.6	14.6	30.0	41.0	54.7	32.3	5.8	.4	.0	33.5
Teachers colleges.....	29.7	35.2	5.4	29.7	43.2	44.5	30.0	8.0	1.3	2.5	41.8
Normal schools.....	31.6	28.9	5.3	34.2	34.1	29.0	28.7	2.6	2.6	.0	28.9
Junior colleges.....	21.6	19.6	23.5	35.3	23.6	52.7	31.0	3.6	1.8	1.8	33.2

Of the 416 colleges replying, 31 percent admitted that their dining halls are most like boarding houses.

One out of every eight (13.2 percent) of the colleges characterized their dining rooms as mess halls.

One out of every four (23.8 percent) of the colleges likened their dining service to that of a commercial restaurant for quick service.

One out of every three (32 percent) of the colleges claimed that their service was most like that in a metropolitan hotel. More than half of the women's colleges provide such service, nearly one-third of the coeducational institutions, and one-eighth of the men's colleges.

Students are taught in the classroom that nutrition is vital to good health, and many research-studies are produced by the colleges showing that healthful living depends in large part upon the proper amount and kind of food. While the colleges teach these principles, they are often backward in applying them in their own dining halls, whereas they should be the first to put the results of their studies into effect. College meals calculated to provide sufficient food for active students are likely to be heavy or unbalanced unless the services of dietitians are employed. This is especially true of men's dining rooms where students come in hungry from afternoon sports.

Out of 408 colleges, 21 employed both graduate and practical dietitians, 136 employed graduate dietitians, and 184 employed practical dietitians alone; that is, 83 percent of the institutions managing dining halls had dietitians, while the remaining 17 percent depended on the cook to provide wholesome meals without the aid of a specially trained person. Relatively few men's colleges (10.7 percent) employed graduate dietitians, but 60.7 percent employed practical dietitians. Table 10 details the type of institutions which employ these services, and should be read as follows: Of the total institutions managing dining halls, 38.4 percent employ graduate dietitians, and 50.2 percent employ practical dietitians. There is an overlapping of 21 institutions which employ both; the total percent of colleges employing dietitians is 83.

FRATERNITIES AND SORORITIES AS RESIDENCES

The American college fraternity system originated at William and Mary College nearly 200 years ago. In 1929 there were 80 fraternities for men with 5,910 active chapters, 800,000 members, 1,874 chapter houses owned and valued at \$73,500,000. In addition, there were 30 sororities for women with 1,251 chapters, 239,909 women members, and 525 chapter houses valued at \$18,157,000.¹ Fraternities and sororities in the teachers colleges do not occupy the prominence that they do in the liberal arts colleges. Mention should be made here

¹ Baird's Manual of American College Fraternities. 12th ed. Menasha, Wis., George Banta, publisher, 1930. p. 661.

of the general nature of these organizations. Each society is known by two or three Greek letters and is usually a secret organization whose members are selected by invitation only. They may be likened to the lodges established in the various cities and towns. The so-called "secrets" are nominal—a Greek name, a motto, secret words, grip, code of ethics, and a ritual for formal ceremonies. Otherwise they are private clubs where members find social and recreational and agreeable living while attending college.

These societies, regional or national in scope, are sponsored by faculty and alumni, many of whom serve as advisers. Central or national fraternity officers have improved fraternities under their charge by inspections, communications, regulations, and efforts through periodical fraternity magazines. The sororities began with a central office plan. Each of the larger fraternities now has a central office. This office is effective in settling local problems that arise between college faculties and local chapters. The National Panhellenic Congress meets annually to discuss the problems of the women's social organizations which are members. The National Interfraternity Conference is a similar association for men's organizations.

Many of the colleges and universities are now aiding the fraternities in the selection of pledges by giving them information concerning the prospects whom they are rushing. In some institutions, this means giving the president of each fraternity a list of names and addresses of every entering man student 2 weeks before registration date; by this means it is possible in many cases to make contacts with a freshman and to determine if he is of the mental, physical, and moral caliber that will contribute to the welfare of other individuals in a fraternity. To strengthen the fraternities and sororities is the desire of any institution where these organizations are in good standing.

Criticism of the fraternities and sororities often ascribes to them alleged snobbishness, clannishness, extravagance in entertainment and outlays for houses, indolence of members, low scholarship, class politics, athletic preference, and other faults. Recently (1923) at Swarthmore College the women voted to abolish their "women's fraternities" or sororities because most of the social activities had been limited to sorority girls rather than available to all women on the campus. In some cases such criticism is warranted, but in all cases it should be confined to individual chapters and not applied to the system as a whole. The critic should discriminate, too, between the legitimate national or sectional fraternities, and those which bear a Greek name but are in reality not a part of the fraternity system.

Men's organizations.—Fraternities were established in 191 of the 415 men's colleges and coeducational institutions replying to the inquiry (table 11), representing 46 percent or slightly less than one-

half of the institutions reporting. Twenty-seven percent reported that they would be glad to have new fraternities established. Of the men's colleges, 6, with a large part of the students already fraternity members, welcome new fraternities; other men's colleges did not welcome new organizations, especially where the fraternity system is already established and dormitory arrangements are satisfactory. Thirty percent had similar clubs which are not a part of the fraternity system. One-third of the institutions report national fraternities, ranging as high as 69 in 1 large State university (Illinois), with an average of 2 chapters in teachers colleges, 12 chapters in colleges and universities, and 2 chapters in normal schools; a total of 1,342 chapters, altogether. Thirty-four percent of the institutions also reported local fraternities with a total of 464 chapters and an average of 4 in teachers colleges and 3 in colleges, universities, and normal schools; 1 denominational college had 14 locals, the highest number reported.

TABLE 11.—*Fraternities and sororities, 1932*

MEN

Types of institutions	Number of institutions				National fraternities			Local fraternities			Chapter houses			Median percent of students who are fraternity members in institutions having such clubs
	Reporting	Having fraternities	In which new fraternities are welcome	Having similar clubs	Number institutions reporting national fraternities	Total number of national chapters	Average number of chapters	Number institutions reporting local fraternities	Total number of local chapters	Average number of chapters	Number institutions reporting chapter houses	Total number of chapter houses	Average number of chapter houses	
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Teachers colleges.....	86	34	22	21	16	25	2	24	90	4	7	41	6	20.6
Colleges and universities.....	239	145	83	75	111	1,304	12	104	235	2	101	1,342	13	42.6
Normal schools.....	34	7	3	9	6	11	2	8	22	2	2	8	4	61
Junior colleges.....	55	5	3	9	2	2	1	7	16	2	2	2	2	
Total.....	415	191	111	124	125	1,342		143	464		110	1,304		
Percent.....		46	27	30	30			34			27			

WOMEN

Teachers colleges.....	91	20	22	20	18	49	2	23	123	5	10	26	4	18.6
Colleges and universities.....	245	21	71	68	82	627	8	82	264	3	55	468	8	42
Normal schools.....	48	8	3	13	5	79	2	8	29	4	4	17	4	32
Junior colleges.....	72	6	5	10	4	9	2	9	28	3	1	10	10	
Total.....	457	171	101	121	109	699		122	424		71	531		
Percent.....		37	22	26	24			27			16			

Nearly 1,400 chapter houses are reported in 110 institutions; that is, 27 percent of the institutions have national or local fraternities which rent or own chapter houses. The average number of houses is 13 for colleges and universities, 6 for teachers colleges, and 4 for normal schools.

The median percentage of students who are members of fraternities in those institutions which have fraternities is as follows: Teachers colleges, 29.5; colleges and universities, 42.6; and normal schools (7 reporting) 61 percent.

Women's organizations.—Sororities (often called fraternities by the women) are established mainly in the coeducational institutions. Very few of the women's colleges favor or support sororities. Of the 457 institutions replying concerning sororities, 37 percent had sororities for women, 22 percent welcomed new organizations, and 26 percent had similar clubs which are not known as sororities (table 11). Twenty-four percent reported national organizations with 699 chapters ranging from 3 to 8 units to an institution. Twenty-seven percent reported local sororities with 432 chapters and an average of 3 to 5 per college where established. One-sixth (16 percent) reported sorority houses owned or rented by the chapters, totaling 531 houses.

Out of 43 women's colleges only 2 maintained chapter houses; 1 State institution with 20 houses and 1 denominational college with 2 chapter houses. While 12 women's colleges reported sororities all were local clubs with the exception of 33 located in 4 institutions including the 2 above mentioned.

Costs.—The cost of fraternity life was studied by the National Interfraternity Conference in 1931. (See table 12.) Room rents vary considerably in the same institution in accordance with the financial burdens of the several chapters. The number of men per chapter house is the largest in State universities, and smallest in the colleges. All rates are higher in universities under private control and lowest in the State universities.

TABLE 12.—Cost of fraternity membership (averages per institution), 1931¹

Section of United States	Initiation fee	Chapter-house dues \$		Average number paying rent	Room rent per month		Cost of board per month
		House residents	Non-residents		Chapter-house	Dormitory	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
New England.....	\$61	\$6	\$6	22	\$14	\$13	\$34
Middle Atlantic.....	80	9	8	23	15	14	29
Southern.....	65	5	6	22	10	10	27
North Central.....	58	6	6	29	12	12	27
Western.....	51	6	7	25	11	10	27
Pacific Coast.....	56	6	5	31	13	13	29

¹ From a study (Mar. 1, 1931) by the National Interfraternity Conference; a survey of the cost of fraternity life in 150 colleges throughout the country.

About one-fourth of the colleges would welcome the establishment of new societies, but the problem is a local one which each institution must meet as it sees best. The institution which fosters fraternities

must be liberal in its rulings, and must undertake to place the organizations on a firm business and social basis which is above reproach in the opinion of the townspeople as well as the college community. While there may be many heartbreaks among students over pledging or not pledging, this argument against societies is relatively unimportant if adequate social provisions are made by the college for the nonfraternity group. If fraternities are not established, there are generally social clubs similar to local societies that have few of the advantages of national organizations, and many of the evils of local clubs.

The building of new houses should be supervised by the institutional authorities, and fraternities that are planning to build or remodel should be given the advantage of expert judgment of the college faculty committee on buildings. Costs should be worked out for the students, and an effort to make the house a paying proposition rather than a student burden and folly. The fact that a house is expensive does not necessarily mean that it is a luxury, since it is built to accommodate 30 or 40 students annually and not a private family permanently.

Low scholarship has been the subject of much criticism against the fraternity. This condition varies with colleges. In some, the scholarship is definitely lower than that of the general student body. In others, it is definitely higher. The sororities are generally higher in scholarship. The national fraternity organizations and officers are promoting better scholarship with some degree of success; and it is through these organizations that the dean of men holds a whip hand.

While a lengthy discussion on the pros and cons of the fraternity system might be made, it is sufficient to conclude that the fraternity house may well be likened to a private home. And just as private homes and families vary in appearance, politics, religion, morality, conduct, extravagance, thrift, character, clannishness, and personality, so the individual chapters even within the same fraternity vary from year to year. The college authorities should strive to help the fraternities and sororities maintain a well-regulated living standard, to assist them in character training as far as possible, and to promote indirectly, by setting the example, desirable modes of entertaining, spending, saving, and upkeep.

PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES

Professional societies are on a different basis from the social fraternities. Membership is limited to those qualifying as a result of training in a specific profession. The leading professional societies for teachers include:

- Alpha Sigma Alpha (educational—women)
- Alpha Sigma Tau (education)
- Alpha Phi Omega (education and social service)
- Delta Phi Upsilon (kindergarten—primary)
- Delta Sigma Epsilon (education)
- Kappa Delta Pi (education)
- Kappa Phi Kappa (education)
- Phi Delta Kappa (education)
- Pi Kappa Sigma (education)
- Pi Lambda Theta (education)
- Sigma Sigma Sigma (education)
- Sigma Tau Gamma (education)
- Theta Sigma Upsilon (education)

Some of these are for men only, others for women only, and others for both men and women. Thirty-three colleges and universities maintain a professional society for men, 27 have one for women, and 28 have one for both. A number of institutions have from 2 to 21 societies and clubs for teachers. Of the teachers colleges, 11 have one professional society for men, 8 have one for women, and 18 have one for both. Few normal schools or junior colleges have these societies.

CHAPTER IV

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND ATHLETICS

When gymnastics and calisthenics came into vogue, higher institutions began to provide gymnasiums. Later sanitation and healthful environment for students were stressed. Today the promotion of student health involves all of these items and in addition hygiene and medicine. The colleges are liberal in their health programs and endeavor to suit these programs to the needs of the students, recognizing the relation of physical well-being to the success of the student both in the classroom and in later life. Too often failure in course may be traced to poor physical condition of students. Conversely, students in the wrong courses often develop conditions which lead to mental and emotional ailments.

Physical examinations.—All the State colleges for men, a third of the State women's colleges, and less than one-fourth of the coeducational State institutions require physical examinations upon entrance or shortly thereafter.

The nonsectarian institutions make a better showing, requiring examinations in 10 out of 11 men's colleges, 13 of 29 women's colleges, and 25 of 38 coeducational institutions. Of the institutions under denominational control, 13 of 23 men's colleges, half of the women's colleges, and half of the coeducational institutions make the requirement. Few of the city institutions require physical examinations (table 13).

TABLE 13.—*Physical examination required of all upon entrance (497 institutions), 1931-32*

Type of institution	Men's colleges		Women's colleges		Coeducational institutions		
	Number reporting	Number requiring examination	Number reporting	Number requiring examination	Number reporting	Number requiring examination	
						Men	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Public ¹ control.....	6	4	17	4	200	40	42
Nonsectarian control.....	11	10	29	13	38	23	25
Denominational control.....	23	13	36	18	137	72	74
Total.....	40	27	82	35	375	145	141
Percent.....		67		42		38	37

¹ State and city.

A few institutions definitely do not require physical examinations at any time—3 coeducational State institutions, 1 private institution, and 24 denominational colleges. Twenty-six institutions occasionally require physical examinations of some of their students.

Teachers colleges require physical examinations upon entrance or soon after of all students except in 13 State coeducational institutions and 1 city college. Only 2 State coeducational teachers colleges report that they do not require physical examinations of any students.

Upon graduation a few colleges require an examination of all students—4 State coeducational colleges, 8 private women's colleges, 8 private coeducational colleges, 4 denominational women's colleges, 6 denominational coeducational institutions, and 2 city institutions.

Corrective physical education is available in some institutions—21 men's colleges, 27 women's colleges, and about 100 coeducational institutions, but it is required in very few schools. A course in personal hygiene is required of all students in 12 men's colleges, 24 women's colleges, and in 67 coeducational institutions.

Vaccination against smallpox is usually obligatory for all students.

It is generally conceded that college students should be given a thorough physical examination upon entrance to college, and sometimes each year thereafter. A medical examination is designed to protect the individual against work for which he is physically unqualified, to discover defects and tendencies which may be corrected, and to guard the institutional community against communicable disease. By means of physical examinations students who are physically disqualified are eliminated from college at once. Students who need to develop physically may be required to take corrective gymnastics.

Medical treatment.—Some sort of medical treatment is given in most colleges and universities of all types. In 181 cases, dispensary service only was offered. Two hundred and thirteen institutions provided limited hospitalization. Twenty-eight institutions were equipped for surgery and 17 for dental treatment. Details are shown in table 14.

The number of beds in the student infirmaries varies according to the size of the institution. Many schools provide 10 or 15 beds, and in the larger schools, the number runs considerably higher, while in some of the smaller schools only 2 or 3 beds are provided.

TABLE 14.—*Medical service offered, 1931-32*

Types of institutions	Number of reports	Types of medical service				Hospitalization service			
		Dispensary	Limited hospitalization	Surgery	Dentistry	Student infirmary	Total number of beds	Local hospitals available	Special rates given
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Teachers colleges.....	91	37	44	2	3	43	438	76	26
Colleges and universities.....	232	111	140	24	11	164	2,598	261	107
Men.....	37	16	17	4	1	19	320	31	9
Women.....	43	13	30	4	3	37	571	30	15
Coeducational.....	202	82	93	16	7	108	1,698	181	88
Normal schools.....	50	13	13	1	2	18	105	38	16
Junior colleges.....	74	20	17	1	1	20	190	53	24
Women.....	18	10	6	1	—	18	128	14	6
Coeducational.....	56	10	11	—	1	41	71	39	18
Total.....	497	181	213	28	17	260	2,230	418	183

Health and physical education is particularly important in the preparation of teachers. Human vitality is partially developmental and directly affects scholastic achievement. The future teacher will be concerned with the health of his pupils. Increased urbanization of the population and the development of sedentary vocations and modes of living put an added burden of instruction and practice in healthful living upon the public schools. The increase in leisure during recent years, and a probable further increase in the future, demand more instruction and practice in worth-while spare-time pursuits for future citizenry. Loss of individual efficiency through ill health and remedial physical defects may be reduced by instruction, training, and treatment. Society will thus be more than repaid for the expenditures for such services in the public schools and in institutions preparing teachers. The development of a happy, well-rounded personality is one of the acknowledged goals of modern education; without the development of the maximum physical well-being of pupils to the full extent of the power of the schools, the essential and all-inclusive aim of education will not be realized in full.

Mental hygiene.—Work in mental hygiene for students is a comparatively new service in educational institutions. Practically all this work dates since the World War. The University of Wisconsin was one of the first to inaugurate the service (1915). From 1920 to 1928, inclusive, 44 colleges introduced such service; from 1929 to 1932, 62 others added mental-hygiene treatment. According to data obtained in 1931-32, there were at that time 23 individuals employed full time as psychiatrists, psychopathologists, or psychologists, and 39 employed part time in the institutions studied. In addition, 120 institutions made use occasionally of local specialists not on their faculties (table 15); 263 have never provided this service.

TABLE 15.—*Mental-hygiene service—number of institutions providing a psychiatrist or psychologist to advise students, 1932*

Types of institutions	Number of institutions				Number of students utilizing service, 1930-31
	Replying	Having full-time mental hygienist	Having part-time mental hygienist	Making occasional use of mental hygienist	
1	2	3	4	5	6
Teachers colleges.....	91	6	4	23	447
Colleges and universities.....	282	14	37	77	3,978
Men.....	87	1	5	9	373
Women.....	43	6	3	11	405
Coeducational.....	202	7	19	57	2,197
Normal schools.....	50	2	6	7	301
Junior colleges.....	74	1	2	14	180
Women.....	18	1	2	7	44
Coeducational.....	56			7	108
Total.....	497	23	39	120	4,876
Percent.....	100	4.6	8	24	

¹ 62.4 percent no service.

Lectures on hygiene have had a place in freshman courses for many years, and more recently mental hygiene has been included. While class lectures are beneficial, they are of small advantage to the individual who is suffering from special peculiarities of thought or habit. Such a student often needs the individual attention of a psychiatrist or one who is able to analyze, diagnose, and advise treatment. Many cases which might end in disaster can be satisfactorily handled through mental-hygiene treatment if taken in time. These include sex offenders, potential suicides, kleptomaniacs, despondents, victims of marked inferiority complexes, neurotics, and others. While the percentage of college students needing treatment is low, the cases requiring attention throughout the country number into the hundreds.

The organization and services of the psychiatric division of an important university health unit will serve to illustrate modern practices in this aspect of the general provision of student welfare in large institutions.

Psychiatric division of a large university health service.—In a large midwestern university with about 15,000 students, the psychiatric division of the university health service includes a psychiatrist and one woman assistant. Each sees both men and women students. In 1931-32, this division interviewed 247 new students, and 12 students carried over from the previous year. By percentages these students included 41 percent graduates, 27 percent freshmen, 9 percent seniors, 6 percent sophomores, 4 percent juniors, and 13 percent miscellaneous; 56 percent were women and 44 percent men. Twenty percent of the new students came to the clinic of their own accord; 34 percent were referred to it by health-service physicians, 13 percent through health conferences, 16 percent by faculty and deans, 4 percent

192 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

through entrance examinations, and the remainder through relatives, friends, clinics, and social-service workers.

The reasons for the referring of the new cases are significant. More than one reason was frequently given by the patient:

	Percent
For advice—vocation, relative, health conference.....	25
Physical complaints—fatigue, insomnia, "nervousness", etc.....	31
Disturbances of emotion—depressions, elations, mania, etc.....	33
Disturbances of attention—lack of concentration, etc.....	10
Conflicts—social and academic maladjustment, sex life, religion, etc.....	11
Mental symptoms—trances, delusions, compulsive thoughts, etc.....	8
Asocial conduct.....	9

The diagnosis of the total number of new cases was as follows:

	Percent
Neuroses—hysteria, anxiety, compulsion, hypochondriac, etc.....	43
Psychoses:	
Chronic.....	4
With recovery.....	3
Recovery likely.....	1
Potential.....	4
Reactive depressions.....	3
Mood swings (mild).....	12
Personality deviations.....	7
Organic disorders.....	2
Without neurosis or marked deviation.....	19
Migraine.....	2

Treatment of new cases was given as follows (1931-32):

	Percent
Treated intensively.....	16
Treated less intensively.....	39
Given advice, reassurance, etc.....	39
Given advice concerning relatives and friends.....	4
Treated in university hospital.....	2

An estimation of the results of treatment of new cases was given as follows:

	Percent
Terminated with satisfactory results.....	35
Terminated with partial results.....	16
Under treatment.....	9
Student to return in fall.....	4
Not treated at all:	
Students preferred to solve problems by themselves.....	5
Treatment not necessary (no marked deviation), given advice.....	21
Referred to other psychiatrists for extensive treatment, or patient leaving college.....	5
Failure.....	5

The foregoing outline is given to show the work in one large institution where such facilities are provided. It will be observed that less than 2 percent of the student body were referred to the clinic, but this 2 percent makes a fair-sized group in toto.

Athletics.—All the institutions provide athletic sports of one kind or another. Intercollegiate sports are promoted to a greater extent in the 4-year colleges and universities than in other types of institutions. Considering all intercollegiate sports in all types of colleges, 15 different contests are outstanding (table 16). Intercollegiate sports for women find little favor in most institutions, but tennis and basketball are leading sports in 73 and 72 colleges, respectively. Less than a score provide hockey, track, archery, swimming, and rifle teams for women students; and there are a few other sports. Among the sports for men, basketball is most favored (350 institutions out of 497), followed by football (322), tennis (284), track (270), baseball (209), and golf (117). Minor sports include in order of frequency, swimming, wrestling, boxing, rifle team, hockey, volleyball, and crew.

Among the intramural sports (table 17) basketball and tennis lead in all institutions for both men and women, followed by baseball, track, volleyball, football, etc., for men; and volleyball, archery, hockey, swimming, and baseball for the women. As in the case of intercollegiate athletics, there is a growing tendency to place the general control of intramural sports in the physical education and health department. Intramural sports are receiving increased favor among the teacher-preparation institutions. They are worthy of much more emphasis as compared to the more highly competitive intercollegiate sports in which relatively few participate.

TABLE 16.—*Intercollegiate sports—numbers of institutions providing, 1932*

Sport	91 teachers colleges		263 colleges and universities		50 normal schools		74 junior colleges		497 institutions (total)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Archery.....	1		2	10				1	1	11
Baseball.....	47	1	182	4	18	1	12		209	6
Basketball.....	78	15	199	32	27	8	45	17	350	72
Bowling.....	1						1		2	
Boxing.....	4	1	43				3		50	1
Crew.....	1		9						10	
Football.....	71		202		17		32		322	
Golf.....	19	1	78	1	5			2	117	4
Hockey.....	1	4	19	10		2	15	1	20	17
Rifle team.....	1		46	7			1		48	7
Swimming.....	9	1	64	7	1		3		77	8
Tennis.....	61	15	178	35	13	6	32	14	284	73
Track.....	56	4	173	7	15	1	26	8	270	15
Volleyball.....	6	1	5	1	1	1	4	4	16	7
Wrestling.....	9		54		1		2		65	
Miscellaneous.....	4		16	1					20	1

194 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 17.—*Intramural sports—number of institutions having definite programs, 1933*

Sport	91 teachers colleges		283 colleges and universities		50 normal schools		74 junior colleges		497 institutions (total)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Archery.....	16	33	8	140	5	21	3	28	33	286
Baseball.....	58	55	185	118	17	17	27	27	287	217
Basketball.....	73	73	205	202	24	37	33	49	335	361
Bowling.....	5	8	28	19	2	7	1	1	28	35
Boxing.....	24	1	120	1	9		11		174	3
Crew.....		1	9	5		1			9	7
Football.....	44	2	129	2	6		12		191	5
Golf.....	23	28	113	80	4	4	11	15	109	123
Hockey.....	11	50	25	145	1	14		18	37	227
Rifle team.....	3	3	40	25			3	2	45	30
Swimming.....	42	51	107	133	9	17	8	22	163	233
Tennis.....	78	78	209	215	25	34	25	53	347	379
Track.....	69	20	169	80	16	10	16	13	270	133
Volleyball.....	57	65	119	133	17	31	15	25	208	298
Wrestling.....	43	2	100	3	5		9		157	5
Miscellaneous.....	9	8	25	25	1	1	2	6	40	40

Athletic equipment, instructional staff, and receipts.—Tennis courts and gymnasiums are the most characteristic items of college athletic equipment, and are provided by 87 percent of the institutions. In table 18 the percentages of institutions by types are detailed in order of frequency with which they provided equipment. Of the 497 institutions reporting, three-fourths provided baseball fields, and one-fifth had extra fields. Two-thirds had football fields; one-half had laid out cinder tracks; two-fifths had grandstands and swimming pools. The differentiation between "grandstand" and "stadium" was left to the institution reporting. One-fifth had hockey rinks or fields, field houses, and golf courses. One-tenth had armories. These fractions should not be used for direct comparisons because not all the colleges would be expected to have some of the forms of equipment listed. For example, only those with military units would have armories, and the colleges in the Southern States would not need field houses.

The teachers colleges compare favorably with the colleges and universities in provision of athletic equipment. The percentages having the important items are much the same, but the normal schools and junior colleges do not make as good showing on most of the items.

TABLE 18.—*Athletic equipment—numbers and percentages of institutions providing, 1932*

Equipment	Number providing equipment					Percentage providing equipment				
	91 teach- ers col- leges	232 colleges and univer- sities	80 normal schools	74 junior colleges	497 (total) institu- tions	Teach- ers col- leges	Col- leges and univer- sities	Nor- mal schools	Junior colleges	All institu- tions (497 total)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Tennis courts.....	80	257	23	63	423	87.9	91.1	66	83.8	86.9
Gymnasium.....	83	251	27	60	421	91.2	89.0	74	81.1	86.7
Baseball field.....	73	226	27	47	323	79.1	83.7	54	63.5	76.9
Extra fields.....	15	76	4	8	103	16.5	27.0	8	10.8	20.7
Football field.....	74	206	18	29	327	81.3	73.0	26	52.7	67.8
Extra fields.....	28	129	6	16	189	41.8	45.7	12	21.6	38.0
Cinder track.....	58	198	10	24	290	63.7	70.2	20	32.4	58.4
Grandstand.....	49	135	5	18	207	53.8	47.9	10	24.3	41.6
Swimming pool.....	28	127	9	21	205	41.8	48.6	18	28.4	41.2
Hockey (rink) field.....	20	81	3	8	112	22.0	28.7	6	10.8	22.5
Stadium.....	16	83	1	4	104	17.6	29.4	2	8.4	20.9
Field house.....	13	77	2	5	97	14.3	27.3	4	6.8	19.8
Golf course.....	13	57	1	24	95	14.3	20.2	2	22.4	19.1
Armory.....	5	44	0	5	54	8.5	15.6	0	6.8	10.9
Miscellaneous.....	9	23	1	5	38	9.9	8.2	2	6.8	7.6

Athletics and physical education when first introduced into the colleges did not have the sanction of the faculty members, as they were considered to be inconsistent with the prevalent aims of higher education. Sometimes football was forbidden, under penalty of expulsion. When such games were later approved, they were not considered as a part of college activities, and were controlled by the students. After these students graduated, they still maintained interest in the college sports and as alumni helped the students to organize and direct athletics. This assistance developed into alumni control in some cases and representation of alumni on the athletic boards of control in other instances. Intercollegiate contests have increased annually in popularity, and the universities have little difficulty in charging large prices for seats for football games. In many universities, the money transactions have been on a scale of big business. Contests often are advertised and given more publicity than is warranted by the main purpose of the college. But the evils that attend are the usual ones that accompany any large and successful enterprise. Overemphasis is a problem with which the colleges have long been struggling.

A study of 150 colleges and universities shows that 45 percent of the coaches in the East were faculty members; in the Middle West, 91 percent; in the South, 59 percent; and in the West, 79 percent.¹

In the institutions considered in this study, membership of the athletic boards of control numbers about 10 or 12, usually consisting of faculty members and students representing more than half of the

¹ Pritchard, George H. *Organization and Administration of Physical Education and Intercollegiate Athletics in the Colleges and Universities of the United States*. Master's thesis. Graduate School, University of Oklahoma, Norman. Reprint in *Athletic Journal*, pp. 6-7.

members, and further representation by alumni, trustees, and others. Table 19 details this information for the different types of colleges.

Large athletic receipts have often been pointed to by the critics as proof of the evils of commercialism in athletics. It is true that large amounts are taken in gate receipts, especially at football games, and lack of supervision in the past has led to certain evils. At present, however, most institutions handle the athletic receipts. How the profits are spent is another matter for consideration—whether they are used to develop the department of physical education or to develop teams. Athletics for all the student body should be the aim.

The amount of athletic receipts is not readily obtained through a questionnaire. In this study, 66 institutions did not report gate receipts and are therefore not included in table 20. However, an idea of the relative amounts of receipts by types of institutions is gained by a study of the figures. Among the coeducational institutions, teachers college gate receipts were small, averaging \$3,680, of which \$2,297 was from football. In the publicly supported colleges and universities, the average was \$102,055, with \$78,698 from football; the largest amount reported from football was \$553,581. The non-sectarian institutions reported nearly as much. The denominational colleges averaged \$20,067, although the largest amount reported for football was nearly half a million dollars.

TABLE 19.—Athletic boards of control—median number of members representing different groups, 1932

Types of institutions	Faculty	Students	Alumni	Trustees	Others
1	2	3	4	5	6
Teachers colleges.....	5	4	2	1	1
Colleges and universities.....	3	3	2	1	1
Normal schools.....	3	5	1	1	1
Junior colleges.....	3	4	1	1	1

TABLE 20.—Athletic receipts, 1930-31

Types of institutions	Number of institutions		Gate receipts, 1930-31				Football receipts, 1931			
	Re- port- ing ¹	Hand- ling ath- letics re- ceipts	Num- ber re- port- ing gate re- ceipts	Total	Average	Maxi- mum	Num- ber re- port- ing foot- ball re- ceipts	Total	Average	Maxi- mum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<i>Coeeducational</i>										
Teachers colleges:										
Public.....	82	66	52	\$191,377	\$3,680	\$22,400	45	\$103,357	\$2,297	\$12,976
Colleges and universi- ties:										
Public.....	58	44	43	4,398,372	102,055	577,698	43	3,372,006	78,698	553,381
Nonsectarian.....	20	21	16	1,430,745	89,984	433,998	16	1,162,479	72,655	411,444
Denominational.....	117	86	64	1,294,280	20,067	567,580	61	1,098,336	18,005	687,638
Normal schools:										
Public.....	29	20	8	12,898	1,575	5,856	4	4,631	1,638	2,670
Nonsectarian.....	3	2	1	1,710		1,710				
Junior colleges:										
Public.....	34	29	14	18,180	1,296	6,500	12	14,368	1,197	6,000
Denominational.....	19	13	10	12,547	1,255	3,415	5	4,628	926	4,628
<i>Men's colleges</i>										
Colleges and universi- ties:										
Public.....	8	4	4	297,109	74,277	140,000	4	714,924	53,731	109,809
Nonsectarian.....	10	6	8	973,927	121,741	518,786	8	765,527	95,691	600,426
Denominational.....	22	15	6	152,626	25,439	94,000	6	145,293	24,716	90,000
Junior colleges:										
Denominational.....	1	1	1	2,000		2,000	1	1,800		1,800
<i>Women's colleges</i>										
Colleges and universi- ties:										
Denominational.....	24	3	1	250		250				

¹ 66 institutions did not report gate receipts, and are not included in this table.

In the men's colleges, the largest amounts were reported by the nonsectarian institutions, averaging \$121,741; the largest amount reported for football was \$600,426.

The values of athletics in the preparation of teachers are confined largely to the vocational training given public-school athletic coaches and to the improvement of the physical health of the limited number of students who participate. The institutions themselves receive certain material and financial advantages, although there is little evidence that enrollments will be largely increased in desirable directions because the institution conducts a highly developed athletic program.

CHAPTER V

EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Assembly and chapel.—Four out of five colleges (81 percent) had assembly weekly or oftener (table 21). More than half of the colleges (54 percent) had compulsory chapel from one to six times a week. This is more characteristic of the denominational institutions than other types; 78 percent of the denominational colleges, 49 percent of the nonsectarian, and 34 percent of the public institutions required students to attend chapel services. Compulsory chapel was required to a greater extent in the men's colleges (62 percent) and women's colleges (66 percent) than in the coeducational institutions (51 percent). The requirement was more common in colleges and universities (59 percent) and junior colleges (52 percent) than in the teachers colleges (47 percent) and normal schools (37 percent). Details of these requirements are shown in table 21, columns 4 and 5.

Assembly and chapel in many colleges are the same thing. One generally thinks of college assembly as being a meeting of the student body which may be opened with prayer and reading of the Scriptures, but is mainly devoted to announcements, discussions, special lectures, or student-activity programs, and not necessarily to religious activities. Chapel, on the other hand, is more in the nature of a brief devotional meeting with songs, Scripture, prayer, etc. As the private colleges have increased in size, college chapels have become inadequate to seat the entire student body at one time, and the compulsory requirements have been dropped. Attendance, as might be expected, has dropped, but often there are enough students interested to render practicable the retention of chapel as a daily affair. Many institutions provide a person in charge of religious activities, even in the public institutions; he may be a student pastor, professor of religious education, chaplain, or Christian association secretary.

TABLE 21.—Social-religious activities, 1932

Types of institutions	Number reporting	Number having assembly	Number having compulsory chapel		Number requiring students to attend church	Number having facilities					
			Number	Times per week (median)		Y. M. C. A.	Y. W. C. A.	Floors for dancing	Stages for dramatics	Rooms for games	Parlors for "dates"
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Coeducational institutions											
Teachers colleges:											
Public.....	86	77	60	3	4	50	69	70	80	62	70
Private—nonsectarian.....	5	5	3	1	2	1	2	4	4	4	4
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	86	26	9	2	5	44	48	44	51	26	43
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	29	24	12	2	3	13	16	22	26	23	25
Denominational.....	117	103	97	4	20	55	91	36	105	89	103
Normal schools:											
Public.....	26	23	15	2	3	2	5	23	24	27	20
Private—nonsectarian.....	12	7	3	1	2	1	1	7	7	10	7
Junior colleges:											
Public.....	23	26	6	4	1	14	13	7	26	12	6
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	2	2	2	5	2	1	1	1	2	2	1
Denominational.....	20	17	14	5	15	4	7	5	19	15	17
Men's colleges											
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	5	2	0	0	0	4	—	5	3	4	2
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	10	7	7	6	3	7	—	5	6	6	2
Denominational.....	22	15	16	5	15	6	—	4	15	16	12
Women's colleges											
Colleges and universities:											
Public.....	6	6	3	2	1	—	6	6	6	5	6
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	13	8	6	1	1	—	6	13	12	12	12
Denominational.....	24	21	17	4	15	—	12	15	22	15	20
Junior colleges:											
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	6	6	5	2	5	—	4	6	6	6	6
Denominational.....	12	11	9	4	11	—	5	8	12	10	12
Total.....	494	298	296	—	121	222	289	294	440	357	371

SUMMARY IN PERCENTAGES

Men's colleges.....	27	65	62	—	49	46	0	28	72	70	66
Women's colleges.....	61	85	65	—	59	0	54	84	97	84	97
Coeducational.....	296	81	51	—	17	54	63	53	59	71	74
Publicly supported.....	222	77	34	—	6	51	63	74	90	66	66
Private nonsectarian.....	77	77	49	—	23	30	39	75	58	52	74
Denominational.....	195	86	78	—	46	49	59	26	90	76	89
Teachers colleges.....	91	90	47	—	7	55	78	81	92	73	81
Colleges and universities.....	282	75	59	—	27	56	63	44	89	74	81
Normal schools.....	48	23	27	—	10	6	8	82	85	77	86
Junior colleges.....	73	88	52	—	48	26	41	27	90	62	58
Total.....	494	81	54	—	24	47	59	60	89	72	78

The public and nonsectarian institutions are the more liberal in their attitudes toward religious beliefs, allowing the student to select for himself those principles which fit best into his thinking. The State colleges and universities have been criticized because of this

liberal attitude; but considering the extent to which these institutions provide religious exercises, foster religious associations, and cultivate high ethical standards, character improvement, and other outcomes of religious training, such criticism is hardly deserved.

In 1931, assembly practices in 30 representative teachers colleges were studied by Kuhn who found that attendance at assembly was required in about two-thirds of the institutions reporting. Twelve of the 30 institutions conducted assembly 1 day each week, 12 from 2 to 4 days each week or irregularly, and 6 daily. In 23 institutions, the students and faculty planned assembly, in 4 the faculty only, and in 1 the students only. While administrative announcements were made in five-sixths of the institutions, many of these announcements were restricted to emergency items or announcements of interest to all the students. In six, no announcements were made. The usual length of the assembly period was from 45 to 50 minutes, with the range from 15 minutes to 1 hour. The programs included the following features in the number of institutions given:

Outside speakers or other talent.....	27
Student dramatics or other entertainment.....	24
Faculty talks.....	22
Student and faculty announcements.....	22
Group singing.....	19
Departmental demonstrations.....	16
Religious service.....	15
School orchestra or band (a regular feature).....	9
Patriotic service (occasional).....	5
Flag salute every assembly.....	2

Sixteen liberal arts colleges were also included in the Kuhn's study. She found that practices in college "chapel", the term used most frequently in liberal arts institutions, differed chiefly in these respects: The teachers college had a longer program, probably twice a week; the liberal arts college had a short daily chapel service. The teachers college was inclined to look upon the assembly as an educational activity, and an administrative device for unifying the student body; the liberal arts college retained the religious service stressing solemnity and dignity.¹

Teachers colleges and normal schools increasingly utilize the assembly period as an opportunity to carry forward the primary purpose and general educational aims of the institution. Prospective teachers need practice in organizing and conducting classroom or school assembly meetings, and the teacher-preparation institutions therefore often stress student-directed assembly programs based upon or pertaining to the classroom and related work of the institution. Such programs rarely fail to be of personal interest to the student body as

¹ Kuhn, Effie G., ch. "The Assembly in the Teachers College. Trenton, N.J., State Teachers College, 1931. pp. 8-12. (Trenton Studies in Education, no. 1, March 1931.)

a whole, and at the same time a considerable number of prospective teachers in the course of a year receive the advantages of direct participation in and responsibility for the assembly exercises.

Church attendance.—Nearly half of the denominational institutions (46 percent) required their students to attend church on Sunday (table 21). They feel that:

Colleges have always included a strong emphasis on worship in the activities of student life. Such inspirational gatherings tend to develop in the group a religious atmosphere which in the minds of many educators, is one of the most potent factors in shaping the character of young people. The precise effect of this atmosphere and worship on the attitudes of individual students cannot be measured. No doubt it varies from time to time and from student to student. There is ample evidence, however, at the colleges visited in this survey, that worship has an important place in the lives of college students and that group association of an inspirational character is strongly emphasized in the program and activities of the college. It has not been crowded out of the chapel service by mass meetings or almost crowded out of the life of the school by secular activities as is the case in some institutions elsewhere. Since the religious life of the student should be linked up with the church after he leaves the college, it is desirable also that the program of worship in college be related as nearly as practicable to that of the local church.¹

Twenty-three percent of the private nonsectarian institutions required their students to attend church on Sunday, but only 6 percent of the public institutions made such requirements. The junior colleges with younger students led in church requirements (48 percent), followed by colleges and universities (27 percent), normal schools (10 percent), and teachers colleges (7 percent).

Miscellaneous activities.—The Young Women's Christian Association seems to be better established in the colleges than the Young Men's Christian Association. Of the total number of institutions reporting (494), 59 percent maintained Y.W.C.A.'s, and 47 percent Y.M.C.A.'s (table 21, columns 7 and 8). More than half of the women's colleges (54 percent) maintain a Y.W.C.A., and less than half of the men's colleges maintain a Y.M.C.A.; in the coeducational institutions 63 percent have Y.W.C.A.'s and 54 percent have Y.M.C.A.'s. The institutions under public control lead in number of such units, with the denominational institutions second, and the nonsectarian institutions third. The teachers colleges lead in the number of units, followed successively by the colleges and universities, junior colleges, and normal schools.

Floors for dancing are maintained in 3 out of 5 institutions. They are found particularly in the women's colleges (84 percent), teachers colleges (81 percent), and normal schools (83 percent). The lowest percentages of institutions providing floors for dancing are represented by denominational institutions (36 percent), junior colleges

¹ Brown, B. Warren. *The Religious Function of the Colleges in the Methodist Episcopal Church South. A survey.* Nashville, Tenn., department of promotion and finance, board of education, Methodist Episcopal Church South, 1930. 71 pp.

(37 percent), and men's colleges (38 percent). Dancing is banned in many institutions.

A stage for dramatics is maintained in most institutions (9 out of 10), but the men's colleges are particularly lacking in this feature; 27 percent make no provision for dramatics. The private non-sectarian institutions (83 percent) fall below the publicly supported colleges (90 percent), and the denominational institutions (90 percent). Some colleges maintain a school of dramatic art in which students are given vocal training, physical training, stage training, dramatic literature, rehearsals, and performance under direction.

Rooms for games were provided in many institutions (72 percent), particularly in women's colleges (84 percent), and in the private non-sectarian institutions (82 percent); only 62 percent of the junior colleges provided this feature.

Parlors for "dates", that is, social rooms officially designated where students may receive guests of the opposite sex were provided in 3 out of 4 colleges. They were provided chiefly in the women's colleges; practically all the women's colleges have such reception rooms. Forty-six percent of the men's colleges and only three-fourths of the coeducational institutions made any provision for impromptu entertaining. Denominational institutions made more provisions of this type than other colleges. Normal schools and junior colleges which enroll younger students made the least provision for social calls.

EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

The relative frequencies of extracurriculum activities in 281 junior colleges, colleges, and universities, and 138 teachers colleges and normal schools making returns to the Survey inquiry on curriculum, extracurriculum, and related topics are indicated in table 22. Dramatics, college paper, religious organizations, debate, glee club, and annual were reported by 80 percent or more of the colleges and universities cooperating in this study. All the 25 activities listed, except honorary societies, literary societies, fraternities, sororities, magazine, and intercollegiate athletics for women were reported by 80 percent or more of the teachers colleges and normal schools.

The extent to which students participate in extracurriculum activities in 209 colleges, universities, and junior colleges is indicated in table 23. The rank order is based on estimates made as to the number of students participating in proportion to the number who *should* participate. Small differences in rank may be disregarded. The data from which the table was derived indicate that a large proportion of students never receive the benefit of many desirable activities that are available to them. There is a definite tendency for a large number of extracurriculum activities to be carried on by a relatively small group of students. The colleges can do much to bring about wider student

interest in the rich opportunities afforded them in extracurriculum activities. Prospective teachers are especially in need of direct contact with and participation in these activities.

TABLE 22.—*Most common provisions made for extracurriculum activities by universities, colleges, and junior colleges, and teachers colleges, 1931-33*

Type of activity	Rank of colleges and universities	Percent of institutions making provision for activities				
		251 colleges, junior colleges, and universities	46 universities	179 colleges	56 junior colleges	128 teachers colleges and normal schools
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dramatics.....	1	91	100	92	80	98
Paper.....	2	89	100	92	68	97
Religious organizations.....	3	87	89	94	61	88
Debate.....	4	82	100	84	89	91
Glee clubs.....	5	81	96	83	64	97
Annual.....	6	80	96	84	55	97
Intercollegiate athletics (men).....	7	79	100	75	71	87
Orchestra.....	8.5	78	89	82	57	99
Class organization.....	8.5	78	96	78	64	99
Intramural athletics:						
Women.....	10	77	87	78	64	98
Men.....	11	75	98	75	55	87
Subject-matter clubs.....	12	73	88	77	52	98
Dances, parties.....	13	70	87	67	64	97
Honorary societies.....	14	69	98	71	39	77
Chorus.....	15	68	79	79	59	97
Student council.....	16	67	78	68	54	97
Literary societies.....	17	65	74	58	43	77
Assemblies.....	18.5	57	61	59	48	100
Bands.....	18.5	57	89	60	21	81
General association.....	20	53	67	55	32	92
Fraternities.....	21	46	94	45	9	45
Sororities.....	22	45	76	40	16	58
Social and miscellaneous clubs.....	23	44	59	43	26	66
Magazine.....	24	42	80	40	20	86
Intercollegiate athletics (women).....	25	25	35	21	30	33

TABLE 23.—*Extracurriculum activities ranked according to the proportion of students participating to those who should participate, 1931-33*

Type of activity:	Rank in 209 colleges, universities, and junior colleges
General association (student government).....	1
Class organization.....	2
Dances, parties.....	3
Intramural athletics:	
Men.....	4
Women.....	5
Fraternities.....	6
Religious organizations.....	7
Sororities.....	8
Subject-matter clubs.....	9
Social and miscellaneous clubs.....	10
Intercollegiate athletics (men).....	11
Literary societies.....	12
Chorus.....	13

TABLE 23.—*Extracurriculum activities ranked according to the proportion of students participating to those who should participate, 1931-32—Continued*

Type of activity—Continued	Rank in 225 colleges, universities, and junior colleges
Annual.....	14
Glee clubs.....	15
Paper.....	16
Honorary societies.....	17
Bands.....	18.5
Magazine.....	18.5
Dramatics.....	20
Orchestra.....	21
Intercollegiate athletics (women).....	22
Debate.....	23

In 138 teachers colleges and normal schools (data not shown) three-fourths or more of the students who *should*, actually *do participate* most frequently in (1) general associations, (2) class organizations, (3) men's intramural athletics, and (4) women's intramural athletics. Student participation is least in debate, magazine work, honorary societies, orchestras, and dramatics.

The types of control of extracurriculum activities as indicated by 225 colleges and universities, and 138 teachers colleges and normal schools replying to Inquiry No. 12 are shown in table 24. Three types of control are mentioned: (1) Student control only; (2) faculty control only; and (3) joint (student and faculty) control. As between joint control and student control, the former predominates decidedly except in the case of class organizations which are controlled by students and in general student associations, student councils, and literary societies where management is about equally divided between students only and joint control. No great differences exist between teachers colleges and other colleges. As between faculty control and joint control the latter predominates in most instances. As between faculty control and student control, management is about equally divided, but student control is marked in athletics, assemblies, debates, dramatics, and musical organizations. Joint control by students and faculty is the typical situation in the management of extracurriculum activities.

The relative usefulness of extracurriculum activities to teachers as judged by staff members is shown in table 25. Differences in ranking as between teachers colleges and normal schools, and other institutions, are shown in columns 5 and 9.

Activities most frequently financed by the teachers colleges and normal schools, according to returns from Inquiry No. 12, are as follows: Men's intramural athletics, women's intramural athletics, assemblies, glee clubs, bands, orchestras, and choruses. Those most

commonly financed through fees are intercollegiate athletics both men and women, debate, annuals, magazines, papers, general student associations, and student councils. Dues are charged most frequently for societies, religious organizations, class organizations, and clubs. Various combinations of finance agencies are most common in dances, parties, and dramatics. It appears that those activities involving the most students tend to be financed either by the college or through fees and those which involve relatively small numbers are financed to a greater extent through dues.

Of the 25 activities discussed in this section, awards such as sweaters, letters, and the like, are made in 138 teachers colleges and normal schools in 16 different activities. The five most important are named as follows in order of frequency: Men's intercollegiate athletics, women's intramural athletics, women's intercollegiate athletics, debate, and men's intramural athletics. In 221 colleges and junior colleges, awards are made for the more important activities, which include in order of frequency: Intercollegiate athletics for men and for women; intramural athletics for men and for women, debate, band, glee club, magazine, paper, and dramatics.

TABLE 24.—Types of control of extracurriculum activities in universities, colleges, junior colleges, teachers colleges, and normal schools, 1931-32

Type of activity	Percent of all institutions employing different types of control					
	225 universities, colleges, and junior colleges			138 teachers colleges and normal schools		
	Student control only	Faculty control only	Joint control	Student control only	Faculty control only	Joint control
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intercollegiate athletics (men).....	1	48	51	0	48	53
Intramural athletics (men).....	10	26	64	5	30	65
Intercollegiate athletics (women).....	2	40	58	3	40	57
Intramural athletics (women).....	8	22	70	4	25	71
Assemblies.....	5	48	47	1	38	61
Dances, parties.....	16	5	79	7	6	57
Debate.....	4	34	62	9	34	57
Dramatics.....	5	23	73	5	22	73
Fraternities.....	38	3	59	24	3	73
Sororities.....	33	5	62	28	2	70
Honorary societies.....	21	11	68	8	9	53
Literary societies.....	46	5	49	27	14	59
Glee clubs.....	11	33	56	4	34	62
Bands.....	11	34	55	4	53	43
Orchestras.....	11	38	51	2	47	51
Chorus.....	6	40	64	2	45	53
Religious organizations.....	28	6	66	26	3	71
Annual.....	27	2	71	21	4	75
Magazine.....	23	7	70	17	30	53
Paper.....	26	3	71	17	4	79
General association.....	49	2	49	37	2	61
Student council.....	49	1	50	37	3	60
Class organization.....	67	1	32	58	1	41
Subject-matter clubs.....	16	5	79	14	2	84
Social or miscellaneous clubs.....	41	3	56	26	2	72

TABLE 25.—*Usefulness to teachers of extracurriculum activities as judged by officials in universities, colleges, junior colleges, teachers colleges, and normal schools, 1931-32*

Type of activity	Usefulness of activities (percentages)							
	214 colleges, universities, and junior colleges				128 teachers colleges and normal colleges			
	Much value to teachers	Average value to teachers	Little value to teachers	Rank ¹	Much value to teachers	Average value to teachers	Little value to teachers	Rank ¹
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Religious organizations.....	69	29	3	1	46.7	51.7	1.7	16
Intramural athletics:								
Men.....	64	34	2	2.5	70.7	20.0	2.3	6
Women.....	64	34	2	2.5	77.8	18.2	4.0	1
Assemblies.....	67	27	6	4.5	67.8	29.9	2.3	5
Dramatics.....	61	38	2	4.5	59.0	39.0	2.1	8.5
Paper.....	63	34	3	6	60.6	35.1	4.3	10
Debate.....	60	34	6	7	60.5	34.2	5.3	11.5
Student council.....	58	36	6	8	60.7	27.2	6.2	2
Chorus.....	55	41	3	9	75.6	24.4	—	3
Glee clubs.....	54	41	5	10	65.7	33.0	1.0	8.5
Magazine.....	47	50	4	11	53.1	31.3	15.6	18
Bands.....	46	50	5	12	62.1	37.9	—	7
Orchestra.....	47	47	7	13	74.4	25.6	—	4
Honorary societies.....	48	44	8	14	61.7	31.7	6.7	11.5
Literary societies.....	47	45	8	15.5	47.3	45.5	7.3	17
Subject-matter clubs.....	46	48	6	15.5	50.0	46.2	3.9	15
General association.....	51	36	13	17	60.0	32.7	7.3	13
Dances, parties.....	26	61	13	18.5	36.5	55.2	8.3	19
Annual.....	30	52	19	18.5	23.6	48.8	25.6	21
Intercollegiate athletics (men).....	27	58	15	20	28.6	61.5	0.9	20
Sororities.....	13	72	15	21	7.9	82.6	39.5	24
Fraternities.....	14	68	18	22	7.9	60.0	42.1	25
Social and miscellaneous clubs.....	18	68	24	23	15.7	65.7	18.6	23
Class organization.....	21	51	28	24	23.2	60.0	11.8	14
Intercollegiate athletics (women).....	10	57	33	25	17.4	47.6	34.8	23

¹ Weighting as follows: Much value to teachers (columns 2 and 6), 3; average value to teachers (columns 3 and 7), 2.

STUDENT MANAGEMENT

Honor system.—The honor system as defined in this study consists of a code of ethics dependent upon individual honesty in college work. The honor system is not to be confused with "honors courses." A number of institutions publish an honor code covering honesty in college work such as shown in the examples below:

A western university.—* * * an undertaking of the students, individually and collectively that they will not give or receive aid in examinations; that they will not give or receive unpermitted aid in class work, in the preparation of reports, or in any other work that is to be used by the instructor as a basis of grading; that they will not violate the rules of the library by taking without permission from the library, or by injuring any book, pamphlet, or other document belong-

ing to its collection; and that they will do their share and take an active part, in seeing to it that others as well as themselves obey the spirit and the letter of the honor code. The university on its part manifests its confidence in the honor of its students by refraining from proctoring examinations or otherwise taking special steps to prevent the forms of dishonesty mentioned above. Infractions of the honor system shall be dealt with by the appropriate council of student control.

An eastern university.—All written examinations, tests, and written recitations are conducted under the honor system. A student is not watched during an examination by an officer of the university, but is required to write on his paper a pledge—"I pledge my honor as a gentleman that, during this examination, I have neither given nor received assistance"—that he has not been guilty of any dishonesty or irregularity in connection with the examination. The administration of the honor system is in the hands of a student committee, by whose rules it is the recognized duty of every student to report to the committee any evidence of dishonesty in examination that may come under his observation. If after investigation of such evidence the committee finds a student guilty of dishonesty, it reports his case to the faculty with a recommendation that he be finally dismissed from the university.

It is in the sense of the foregoing statements that the honor system is discussed in this study. Catalogs of institutions using the honor system usually indicate that fact and often give interesting details concerning the phases of student life covered by the system, its date of establishment, and how it is administered.

One out of five institutions maintained an honor system (table 26). According to types of institutions, the honor system was maintained as follows: Men's colleges, 14 percent; women's colleges, 80 percent; coeducational institutions, 13 percent; publicly controlled institutions, 12 percent; private nonsectarian institutions, 38 percent; denominational institutions, 26 percent; teachers colleges, 9 percent; colleges and universities, 27 percent; normal schools, 14 percent; and junior colleges, 19 percent.

Ninety-one colleges reported the dates when the honor system was established. Only 11 were established before 1900; 26 from 1900 to 1915; 15 from 1915 to 1920; and the remainder (39) from 1920 to 1932. Nineteen have discontinued the honor system since 1922: 9 denominational, 3 nonsectarian, and 7 public institutions.

Cheating, discussed later, ranks first in frequency among the usual college offenses; and although it was reported as no problem in the majority of colleges, nevertheless 95 colleges reported it a serious problem, and 17 an increasing one. Proctored examinations and other means to prevent students from cheating are common. Three-fourths of the institutions have never tried the honor system.

208 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 26.—Honor system: Frequency in 497 institutions,¹ 1931-32

Type of institution	Total in- stitutions re- porting	Number with honor system 1931-32	Number having tried and dropped	Number never having tried
	2	3	4	5
Colleges and universities:				
Men's.....	37	5	1	31
Women's.....	43	33	0	10
Coeducational.....	202	30	19	144
Teachers colleges.....	91	8	2	81
Normal schools.....	50	7	0	43
Junior colleges:				
Women's.....	18	8	0	10
Coeducational.....	56	6	0	50
Total.....	497	106	22	269

PERCENTAGE SUMMARY

Men's colleges.....	37	14	3	83
Women's colleges.....	61	80	0	20
Coeducational institutions.....	369	13	5	82
Publicly supported institutions.....	223	12	3	85
Private nonsectarian institutions.....	78	38	4	58
Denominational institutions.....	196	26	5	69
Teachers colleges.....	91	9	2	89
Colleges and universities.....	282	27	7	66
Normal schools.....	50	14	0	86
Junior colleges.....	74	19	0	81
Total.....	100	21	5	74

¹ Defined as a system dependent on individual honesty in college work.² 497 institutions.

Five percent of the institutions have tried the honor system and abandoned it. With few exceptions these are the coeducational colleges and universities, and the reasons advanced for dropping the system include: Failure to accomplish the purpose for which it was established; students would not report on fellow students; prematurely attempted; students thought it a failure; there was "no honor"; failure of administration by the students; students did not take interest; and students were unwilling to exercise supervision over their fellows. In some institutions, the honor system was tried as a general policy and failed, but is still in use in some departments or by some professors. None of the women's colleges that have tried the honor system have discontinued it.

The main reason for failure of the honor system seems to be unwillingness on the part of students to report infractions of their fellows. In some cases, too, the new freedom is exploited by the students who are accustomed to being watched during examinations. Before a college establishes an honor system, students must be prepared for it. Students must be made to appreciate its purpose in the development of character, initiative, and personality.

When the honor system is a tradition in a college, it is generally successful, but in those instances where it has been established in re-

cent years without the whole confidence of both students and faculty, its values appear to be doubtful. In administering the honor system students seldom act by themselves without the aid of the faculty.

Opinions differ as to the effectiveness of honor systems. Much depends upon the initial and continued approval and whole-hearted support of both faculty and students, and upon the traditions of the institution, homogeneity of the student body, local student leadership, nature and kind of institutional supervision and administration, and other factors. While attractive as an ideal in teacher-preparation institutions, practically a liberal admixture of administrative vigor, highly developed traditions, common sense, and human insight is necessary if the honor system is not to result in evils that outweigh the gains. It is suggested that institutions adopting the system consider it as one aspect of an active, long-time, and continuous program in character education, and that the administration of such a system through the successive college generations be given the active, intelligent, and unceasing attention that the regularly organized educational endeavors of the institution receive.

Discipline.—There is a marked difference among the colleges and universities in the methods of dealing with cases of discipline. Of 36 women's colleges reporting, 18 indicated that the students themselves participate in settling cases. The student agencies, with a faculty member or faculty committee, include such organizations as the following: Student government association; college government association; executive board of students association; judicial board and honor court; chief justice and court; student council; women's self-government association; and others. Of the 34 men's colleges reporting, only 2 indicated that students have anything to do with settling disciplinary cases; 20 indicated that the dean of the college or dean of men is the responsible official, together with a committee of the faculty, or the president. The coeducational institutions reported various methods. The faculty committee is most general. Often different committees are selected, depending upon whether the offender is a man or a woman. Sometimes the dean of men handles all cases pertaining to men and the dean of women all of those pertaining to women. Of the 198 coeducational institutions reporting, only 23 reported participation of students in dealing with discipline cases. The individuals or agencies most commonly reported were:

Dean of men
Dean of women
Prefect of discipline
President
Discipline committee
Faculty
Dean of college or university

Commandant of cadets
Dean of resident students
Student government association
Judicial board and honor court
Group of five social advisers
Committee on student welfare

Practices that are banned.—Thirty-seven institutions ban automobiles for men (table 27) and 65 for women, while some other institutions go to some trouble and expense to provide parking space for student automobiles. The automobile does present hazards in a college community. Many machines are old and in such poor mechanical condition that they are unsafe. Speeding, trick driving, roadside parking, the passenger problem, accidents, danger to human life, and other undesirable features of automobile operation are reasons for banning the automobile from the college campus. On the other hand, when it is banned, the duties of the dean of students are increased by the necessary policing to enforce the regulations and to prevent students from driving cars without permission.

For many students, the automobile is an economical and convenient mode of transportation. Whether restrictions are necessary or not is largely a problem for the individual college to decide. The majority of colleges do not prohibit students from owning and operating automobiles, but insist that they observe customary laws and certain regulations. The thoughtful college administration expects parents to see that the privilege of using a car is not abused. Permission to own and operate a car is obtained from the students' parents, who are thereby made liable for the car conduct of the students.

TABLE 27.—What is banned: Numbers of institutions, 1933

Types of institutions	Number of institutions reporting	Men					Women				
		Auto-mob-iles	Danc-ing	Card play-ing	Smoking in—		Auto-mob-iles	Danc-ing	Card play-ing	Smoking in—	
					Edu-ca-tional build-ings	Dor-mi-tories				Edu-ca-tional build-ings	Dor-mi-tories
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Teachers colleges.....	91	3	5	8	63	17	5	6	11	80	57
Public.....	86	2	5	7	59	17	4	6	9	78	54
Private nonsectarian.....	5	1		1	4		1		2	2	3
Colleges and universities.....	282	24	55	29	159	45	35	62	42	195	183
Public.....	67	7	1	1	37	8	10	1	1	48	29
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	52	2	1	2	18	3	4	1	2	24	9
Denominational.....	163	15	54	26	104	34	22	60	39	123	115
Normal schools.....	50	3	2	4	25	8	4	1	5	39	22
Public.....	37	1		3	26	5	2		4	32	18
Private nonsectarian.....	13	2	2	1	2	3	2	1	1	7	4
Junior colleges.....	74	7	18	19	51	10	20	25	22	67	46
Public.....	33	2		4	20	2	2	7	4	30	5
Private:											
Nonsectarian.....	8	1	4	1	3	3	7	1	1	8	8
Denominational.....	33	4	10	14	20	6	11	17	17	29	27
Grand total.....	497	37	83	70	301	80	65	94	80	361	272

Dancing is banned in 83 institutions admitting men, and 94 institutions admitting women. In the majority of cases these are denominational colleges, although a few public institutions likewise ban dancing. This, too, is a problem for the individual college to settle. If this mode of entertainment conflicts with the aims of the college, other approved exercises should by all means be substituted.

Card playing is banned in 70 institutions admitting men and in 80 admitting women. These institutions are mainly denominational colleges. The argument that playing cards leads to an undue waste of time has probably more substance than the fear of gambling, since there are plenty of opportunities otherwise for students so inclined to gamble. If college faculties would assist students to budget their time, there would be plenty of opportunity for indoor games without undue losses in scholarship.

Smoking by men is banned in the educational buildings of 3 out of 5 colleges, and in the dormitories of 1 out of 6 colleges. Smoking by women students is banned in educational buildings in about 1 out of 6 colleges, and in the dormitories by 3 out of 5 institutions that admit women. In buildings with classrooms, the regulation against smoking is often either a protection against fire or else a means of keeping the buildings clean and free from the litter that attends smoking. In the dormitories the restriction against smoking is generally to prevent fire, although in a few colleges, particularly in the denominational colleges, the administration or the faculties feel an obligation to prevent the smoking habit among the students and prospective teachers. On the other hand, many of the well-known women's colleges permit girls to smoke and provide smoking rooms for them. The smoking rooms are often provided as a measure of protection against burned furniture and broken rules. Seventeen public institutions, 23 private, and 8 denominational colleges permit women students to smoke; a number of others either make no rules or are lax in the enforcement of the rules that exist.

When the sentiment of the students locally favors smoking by women and the faculty does not disapprove, it appears better from the administrative viewpoint, at least, for the institution to protect its buildings and furniture by providing ash trays rather than make any formal proclamation that it permits or does not permit women to smoke. Where there are fire hazards, as is frequently the case, a definite rule against smoking should be enforced rigidly among all students.

Stealing is reported to be relatively no problem (table 28) in most institutions, but in 1 out of 6 it is a serious problem, and an increasing one in 46 institutions. Stealing is, of course, a serious offense. The culprit, in some cases, may require the services of a psychiatrist; in other cases the dean of students may be able to adjust matters for the

unfortunate students who through straitened circumstances or desperation have appropriated property which in a normal moment they would not have touched. Other individuals who are definitely lacking in character must leave the institution. Often a thief is found to be not a student but an outsider who has broken in. In any case, the administration should not put temptation in the way of individuals by leaving valuables and rooms unprotected by locks, watchmen, and other safeguards. It is valuable training for later life to instruct students to leave valuables in safekeeping at home, and to take care of money, clothing, books, and other property that they carry with them.

Willful neglect of debts is a serious problem in 1 out of 5 institutions. The problem is an increasing one in 61 institutions. In some cases, graduation or certification to teach is withheld until all bills are paid. Some colleges do not attempt to take any responsibility in connection with student bills outside the campus. The dean of students should be able to assist to some extent by seeing that students are instructed in simple matters of personal finance, budget making, and even in making out checks.

Other offenses.—Drinking is reported a serious problem in about 1 out of 8 colleges and an increasing problem in 17 institutions, although the majority of them find it practically no problem. Sex relations are a problem in about 1 out of 15 colleges and an increasing problem in 33 institutions. Gambling is a serious offense in about 1 out of 28 institutions and an increasing problem in 13 institutions. These offenses should be handled quietly by the discipline and health committee without undue publicity.

On the whole, reports by institutional officers concerning the prevalence or increase of student offenses do not indicate any conditions counter to the belief that college students are a select and wholesome group, not only intellectually, but also in social conformance, adaptability, and the finer traits of character.

TABLE 28.—Student disciplinary problems: Number of institutions reporting status, 1938

CHEATING

Types of institutions	Practically no problem	Serious problem	Increasing	Decreasing	No apparent change
1	2	3	4	5	6
Teachers colleges.....	57	21	4	19	20
Colleges and universities.....	171	65	7	37	120
Normal schools.....	20	4	1	9	16
Junior colleges.....	68	5	5	8	25
Total.....	230	95	17	70	281

TABLE 28.—*Student disciplinary problems: Number of institutions reporting status, 1932—Continued*

STEALING

Types of institutions	Practically no problem	Serious problem	Increasing	Decreasing	No apparent change
1	2	3	4	5	6
Teachers colleges.....	80	30	10	18	39
Colleges and universities.....	197	55	20	27	112
Normal schools.....	34	9	6	3	16
Junior colleges.....	53	14	10	8	28
Total.....	333	88	46	56	199

WILLFUL NEGLECT OF DEBTS

Teachers colleges.....	63	19	15	7	36
Colleges and universities.....	228	48	28	18	92
Normal schools.....	33	8	4	4	15
Junior colleges.....	54	10	4	9	29
Total.....	378	85	61	38	169

DRINKING

Teachers colleges.....	57	21	9	19	39
Colleges and universities.....	206	53	7	28	41
Normal schools.....	39	4	1	5	19
Junior colleges.....	63	5	8	8	28
Total.....	365	63	17	60	126

SEX RELATIONS

Teachers colleges.....	70	10	13	11	23
Colleges and universities.....	211	19	16	23	104
Normal schools.....	39	1	1	4	13
Junior colleges.....	63	3	4	3	29
Total.....	383	33	33	41	169

MISUSE OF AUTOMOBILES

Teachers colleges.....	80	5	6	16	33
Colleges and universities.....	222	18	34	19	98
Normal schools.....	40	3	1	1	18
Junior colleges.....	66	3	3	1	28
Total.....	407	26	44	37	178

GAMBLING

Teachers colleges.....	73	3	3	10	34
Colleges and universities.....	223	11	8	24	108
Normal schools.....	43	0	0	0	18
Junior colleges.....	60	4	2	6	34
Total.....	398	18	13	40	179

Student disciplinary problems.—Out of 34 men's colleges reporting, 21 stated that they have no serious disciplinary problems, although in 4 of these institutions, drinking, sex relations, and misuse of automobiles are increasing. Drinking was mentioned 6 times as a serious

problem, but in general is decreasing. Cheating was mentioned by 6 institutions. Stealing was mentioned by 4 institutions, and it was reported to be increasing. Willful neglect of debts was mentioned four times and was reported to be increasing. Sex relations were mentioned twice and gambling once as serious problems. These offenses were reported by 11 men's colleges, of which 6 are denominational, 3 nonsectarian, and 2 State institutions.

Out of 43 women's colleges, 34 indicated that they have no serious problems with the women students. Those having problems reported that the most prevalent problem is stealing. Several others indicated that although this is not a particularly difficult problem, nevertheless stealing is increasing, possibly due to the economic depression. Cheating was mentioned by 3 as a serious problem. Drinking among the women was reported as prevalent by 3 colleges; 1 college added the comment, "for the first time in the history of the college." Misuse of automobiles was mentioned by 3 institutions. Willful neglect of debts was mentioned once as a serious problem and twice as an increasing one. One institution stated: "College bills must be paid before final examinations are taken and the college assumes no responsibility for bills in town shops." Sex relations were mentioned by 1 institution as a serious problem, and by some other institutions as an occasional problem, with no apparent increase or decrease. Gambling was not reported a problem by any of the women's colleges.

Much of the type of coercive discipline characteristic of the past century has disappeared in the modern teacher-preparation institutions. The tendency appears to be toward the development of faculty-student cooperative relationships. The prospective teacher is thus given responsibility under friendly guidance and develops the power of meeting new situations that will be needed when he undertakes to guide his own students or community.

CHAPTER VI

ORIENTATION, GUIDANCE AND ADJUSTMENT SERVICES

ORIENTATION OF BEGINNING STUDENTS; FRESHMAN WEEK

Increasing enrollments of students from all ranks and walks of life, undue emotional disturbances of students in their first break from home life, increasing complexity and diversity of college offerings and extracurriculum activities, growing diversity of high-school offerings that are constructed independently and with little reference to college courses, confusion in educational objectives, and high rate of student mortality are commonly recognized conditions that have led to demands for greater assistance to freshmen in finding their bearings in college. Orientation courses and general orientation with respect to the fields of knowledge and to post-college life are discussed in the Survey volume on curricula, and elsewhere in the Survey report. Orientation of freshmen, best typified in the activities of freshman week, will be given brief consideration here. Knode defines freshman week as

* * * any introductory period of from 1 to 7 days preceding the regular work of the term and devoted to the problem of adjusting the student to his college work, life, and environment. The general orientation course attacks the same problems, but extends the time over a longer period, with a possible variation from 2 weeks to the full college year; while the survey course is restricted to that making actual survey of the fields of knowledge.¹

Freshman week, offered under perhaps two dozen different names, has received widespread attention only during the past decade. Knode found in 1928 that 32 percent of 417 colleges and universities used freshman week alone, and 49.3 percent alone or in combination with survey or with orientation courses; 80.1 percent used some form of orientation method. The percent of 114 junior colleges that were using freshman week was 20.7. The dean of the college or dean of freshmen most commonly was in charge, although many different officers and teachers participated as well as the student government organizations. Attendance of students was usually compulsory. Sectioning of students was usually on the basis of major curriculum interests, and groups ranged in size from 11 to 20 students. Four or five days typically were devoted to a great variety of activities,

¹ Knode, Jay C. *Orienting the Student in College*. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. p. 11. (Contributions to Education, no. 415.)

including talks and addresses on pertinent topics, tours of the campus and buildings, testing, and social and recreational activities.

In Knode's returns five possible objectives of freshman week received highest ranks among markings by 158 college officers, in the following order:

1. To familiarize the student with regulations, methods, and campus.
2. To give information and advice relative to college life and problems in general.
3. To complete the routine of registration.
4. To make freshmen feel welcome.
5. To establish a basis of contact with students upon which personnel and guidance procedure may be built.

Experts in college personnel work found freshman week most important for the following purposes:

1. Imparting knowledge of college history, traditions, customs, etc.
2. Imparting knowledge of college rules and regulations.
3. For explanation of registration.
4. Giving an introduction to the campus.
5. Extending welcome and making provision for acquaintance.
6. Giving information as to student conduct and responsibilities.
7. Providing information regarding student activities and organizations.²

INDIVIDUAL COUNSEL AND GUIDANCE

About four-fifths of the institutions reported that they have a definite program of guidance in operation. Of the 84 State teachers colleges, only 10 did not report a definite program of guidance; of 50 coeducational State colleges and universities, 14 reported no program. Generally in the private nonsectarian institutions guidance is offered in some manner to students. In the denominational institutions there is less counseling done.

In the teachers colleges, guidance is generally directed by the deans (36 percent of the cases), often by heads of departments (24 percent) and sometimes by personnel directors (12 percent). In the colleges and universities it is most often directed by department heads (32 percent) or deans (27 percent), or directors of personnel (15 percent); sometimes by teachers (10 percent), or advisory councils (8 percent). The advisory council is more characteristic of the private and denominational institutions than of State or public schools. In the normal schools the deans are most often in charge (24 percent), followed by individuals (18 percent), teachers (16 percent), or department heads (10 percent). In the junior colleges, guidance is chiefly left to the deans (42 percent) and heads of departments (14 percent).

It is well at the outset to state that there is no known method of guiding a student into the right job—that is, the job for which he is best fitted. Many tests, vocational guidance agencies, and personnel bureaus which study applicants and aim to place them in

² Ibid., pp. 53-54, 77-78, 112-113.

positions and occupations of mutual advantage to both student and employer are helpful, but there is no assurance that the employer will be satisfied or that the student will find the recommended work congenial.

If a listener could sit beside a counselor and note the character of requests from inquiring students, he would observe that many come with a definite notion of what they wish to do, and need advice on the best methods and schools for obtaining proper training. Others are considering several occupations and may expect the guidance officer to say, "This is the one you should choose." Others, more naive, confess to no ideas, and wish the counselor to make their choices.

Sometimes the counselor turns to psychological tests for assistance. He can often learn more about the abilities of an individual in from 10 to 30 minutes by giving a psychological test than could be learned in a dozen interviews.

Guidance officers are becoming a necessity in colleges. A very large percentage of liberal arts graduates enter business occupations. Although placement for all graduates was readily secured years ago, there is now an undersupply of jobs and an oversupply of graduates who are not prepared to make a living. College students need the guiding spirit of an expert; and they need to set a goal for themselves so that by graduation they will be able to offer some service which is worth a salary.

To keep abreast of the needs of guidance service, the guidance office must collect detailed information concerning careers. Many different types of students will successfully enter the same profession. Many students are able to enter successfully many different types of careers. In this complex situation, the guidance officer must put before the students pertinent and current information relative to different employments. Considerable responsibility rests upon him. He must remain unbiased. He must not overcrowd certain careers because of his lack of knowledge of other openings. The teaching profession, for example, is overcrowded, yet more than two-fifths of the college population enter teaching as a career. Entrance salaries in teaching are satisfactory, and it is an easy stepping stone to other employment or homemaking. An efficient guidance officer, however, will attempt to steer many of the students into other work in which they would be equally successful, and he will advise only the more qualified to enter the field of teaching. If he is sufficiently informed about a great number of occupations, he will be able to suggest new or unusual occupations which are desirable for the graduates.

As an aid in counseling, the guidance officer must have at hand sources and references which bear on his work. There is little material in book form, but current literature is full of information.

Professional associations are eager to furnish material, census data are always interesting, research studies for different occupations are available, survey material is useful. State educational departments are helpful, State examining boards supply data, and accrediting associations and Federal bureaus maintain a wealth of information useful to the guidance officer. Some colleges offer elective courses on the subject of choosing a vocation, which is commendable. Teachers in particular should have a knowledge of the occupations.

If his service is efficient and systematic, students will soon learn of it and use it. If, however, it is superficial and sporadic, as it is in some institutions, it cannot be effective in guiding college boys and girls.

STUDENT EXPENSES AND AIDS

Costs of going to college.—The cost of going to college varies with the type of institution attended. For years, the cost of college attendance has mounted, and yet the student rarely pays the full costs of his instruction.

College catalogs are not very informative on the matter of total expenses. Many students go to college on the assumption that tuition is the only charge besides board and room, and are disillusioned when they begin to pay registration fees, laboratory fees, library fees, gymnasium fees, annual fixed charges, student activity fees, and a host of other minor fees of \$5 to \$25. Imposition of fees in reality is often the means of increasing tuition rates without raising "tuitions." The student cares little whether his payments to the college cover instruction only or include other fees as long as he must pay both. He should, however, pay for board and room in a separate account, since this is a personal living expense.

According to different types of institutions, the cost of tuition, fees, room, and board (averages totaled) rank from highest to lowest in the following descending scales:

For students who are not residents of the State in which the college is located. (Only 1 rate in private institutions)

Rank order	Type of institution	Rate
1.	Women's colleges private nonsectarian.....	\$937
2.	Women's junior colleges private nonsectarian.....	928
3.	Normal schools—private.....	804
4.	Men's colleges—private nonsectarian.....	777
5.	Teachers colleges—private.....	748
6.	Coeducational colleges and universities—private nonsectarian.....	679
7.	Women's colleges—denominational.....	671
8.	Men's colleges—denominational.....	590
9.	Women's junior colleges—denominational.....	555
10.	Coeducational colleges and universities:	
	Denominational.....	454
	Public.....	449

For students who are not residents of the State in which the college is located—Con.

Rank order	Type of institution	Rate
11.	Normal schools—public.....	\$427
12.	Men's colleges—public.....	378
13.	Teachers colleges—public.....	350
14.	Coeducational junior colleges:	
	Public.....	337
	Denominational.....	311
15.	Women's colleges—public.....	282

For students who are residents of the State in which the college is located. (Public institutions provide lower rates)

Rank order	Type of institution	Rate
1.	Coeducational colleges and universities—public.....	\$394
2.	Normal schools—public.....	379
3.	Men's colleges—public.....	365
4.	Coeducational junior colleges—public.....	327
5.	Teachers colleges—public.....	304
6.	Women's colleges—public.....	261

A student with \$500 a year to spend for a college education would find it difficult if not impossible to attend most of the colleges in the first nine types of institutions, unless he found means of self-support, applied for scholarships, or economized severely on board and lodging. The figures presented in the foregoing list are averages; therefore, there will be some institutions in each group in which the costs will be much lower than those given just as there will also be some with higher costs. It has been said that it is impossible for a student to attend college and participate in extracurricular activities on \$500, but this statement is not true. There are many good colleges where this not only is possible, but is being done extensively; however, the first nine types representing about one-fourth of the institutions in the study are in most instances excluded, while the remaining three-fourths of the institutions—denominational colleges (27 percent), and publicly supported institutions (46 percent)—are markedly lower in costs. There is another factor to be considered—that of scholarships, loans, and self-help; frequently it is to the advantage of an economical student to choose a privately controlled institution where many student aids are available to reduce materially the cost of a college education.

Tuition and fees.—Tuition rates are fairly high. There have been some proposals advanced that the student should pay the full cost of his instruction in respect to teaching salaries and departmental appropriations. On this question there is room for debate. As yet there is no standard procedure to determine unit costs per student. Moreover, such a proposal for public institutions is counter to a distinct movement toward the extension of higher education to all the people.

The fees in public institutions are somewhat higher than in other types of colleges because of low tuition rates.

Board and room charges.—The largest item on the student budget is living expenses. That college women maintain a higher standard of living than college men is indicated by their relative expenses. The data show a higher average expenditure for women students than for men. Board and room charges vary from \$22 to \$65 a month according to the location of the college; in small towns or villages, \$22 may be ample, while in metropolitan areas \$65 may not be considered excessive, although \$45 per month should be ample. With falling food prices, there may be some reductions in the price of board; but room rentals are so often based on capital costs that slight reductions may be expected if institutions meet expenses. Some institutions in 1932 and 1933 instituted cheap living quarters and meals for students who could not otherwise afford to go to college. This practice is commendable and is one of several methods in which the colleges are contributing to maintain the morale of the unemployed.

Self-help.—Practically all higher institutions now enroll students who are working their way through college either wholly or in part. Estimates from the different institutions show that the number of self-help students going through college has reached large proportions; in fact, too large for any social discrimination between students that are employed part time and those that are not. Even among the women's colleges, practically every institution has some girls who are earning money during term-time toward payment of their expense for an education; 14 out of 43 institutions stated that a considerable number are earning their entire expenses; 6 indicated that 1 percent to 2 percent are earning all; in 4 the percentage earning all is 6 to 10; and in 3, 12 percent to 20 percent are wholly self-supporting. In the denominational women's colleges, the percentages of girls who are employed are larger than in the nonsectarian colleges. As might be expected, the men in men's colleges are employed to a greater extent than the women in women's colleges. Forty percent is a reasonable estimate of the number of self-help students in men's institutions. Five colleges estimate 15 percent to 20 percent. There are three colleges where all the students are employed.

Estimates of earnings are difficult to obtain. Most institutions do not keep accurate records of self-help and earnings and therefore do not hazard a guess. Others endeavor to maintain records which are more or less accurate. The largest estimates place the total figure at about \$25,000 a year in the women's colleges, and \$84,000 in the men's colleges; the earnings in some of the larger coeducational universities will total roughly \$1,000,000. Of course the total earnings in any college are dependent upon the size of the student body; those with the most students enrolled usually show greater earnings than those with small enrollments, even though all the students in the latter are employed.

Applications for self-help employment were increasing in 98 percent of the teachers colleges, 96 percent of the colleges and universities, 91 percent of the normal schools, and 87 percent of the junior colleges. In a depression there is less work to be obtained for such students, but the colleges can find opportunities more readily if committees are appointed for special assistance of needy students. The smaller colleges may well study what is being done in the larger institutions.

Roughly, two-thirds of the colleges and universities provide regular employment service for self-help students (table 29). Coeducational institutions lead in such provisions, followed in order by women's colleges, and men's colleges. Only 8 of the State-supported institutions do not provide this service; 54 denominational and 12 private colleges have no employment service. Within the past decade many college employment bureaus and appointment offices have been established on the campuses, and doubtless the future will see many more. Even now on those campuses where no regular service is offered, similar work is done in an informal manner and remains to be organized when money and facilities become available.

Many college students find summer employment either through their own efforts or through the assistance of the institutions. Half of the colleges make efforts to place students in gainful employment during the summer vacations.

While self-support on the part of the student is not altogether approved in some institutions, nevertheless the army of college workers who are earning their way through college is recognized and the numbers are increasing as college expenses become greater. Board and room in many colleges has reached a price that only the well-to-do can afford. Tuitions alone in some institutions are so costly that many worthy students are unable to meet that expense. Arguments for free, tax-supported higher-education institutions do not lose their force with the passage of time, but even in these institutions tuitions or fees continue to mount.

TABLE 29.—Number of institutions conducting regular employment services for self-help students during both the regular year and the summer session, 1932

Type of institution	Number of institutions	Regular employment service conducted				Summer employment secured			
		Yes	Per-cent	No	No an-swer	Yes	Per-cent	No	No an-swer
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Colleges and universities.....	232	189	67	74	19	140	49	114	29
Men's colleges.....	34	16	47	15	3	16	47	15	3
Women's colleges.....	43	27	63	14	2	17	39	19	7
Coeducational.....	205	146	71	45	14	107	52	80	18
Teachers colleges.....	65	65	77	13	7	40	45	40	8
Normal schools.....	50	27	54	15	8	22	44	13	10
Junior colleges.....	78	27	37	31	15	20	27	25	15

Student loans.—About 3 colleges in 5 (table 30) maintain student-loan funds, which vary in size from \$2,000 or \$3,000 up to very large amounts. Every college should see that a loan fund is established. The amount at the beginning may be extremely small, but small sums soon make large ones. When friends of the college are aware of a student-loan fund, other gifts will be made, organizations will contribute, profits from entertainments and sales will be added, and other moneys will be made available. Revolving funds will go farther than others, but care must be taken that the risks are good. Small interest charges should be made, and nonpayment of notes followed up. While the administration of loan funds adds another burden on institutional officers, the colleges should be glad to accept the responsibility as an aid to their students. The deans, who are usually called upon to recommend the loans, should be familiar with the operation of some of the best student-loan systems, such as the Harmon Foundation in New York City, and others. Merely lending money to students is not enough; every effort should be made to get it back. A loan to a student should be strictly a business transaction. A student's obligation for repayment should be safeguarded with a note given as security, after sufficient institutional investigation to warrant the loan.

Deferred tuitions were allowed to 8,304 students in 1931-32; these were, for the most part, paid by the end of the school year. This is another method of lending money to students where loan funds are not available or where students apply for more assistance than the institutional loan funds provide.

TABLE 30.—*Student loans, 1932*

Type of institution	Number reporting	Number with student-loan funds	Amount of funds	Amount loaned (1930-31)	Deferred tuitions
1	2	3	4	5	6
Teachers colleges.....	91	65	\$414,191	\$180,270	Number 529
Colleges and universities.....	(282)	(181)	(6,363,599)	(2,189,121)	(6,626)
Men's colleges.....	37	14	1,004,341	408,861	2,341
Women's colleges.....	43	16	288,174	147,329	431
Coadeducational colleges.....	208	151	4,060,171	1,633,038	2,973
Normal schools.....	80	36	114,610	87,781	371
Junior colleges.....	74	21	212,299	40,085	476
Grand total.....	497	308	7,104,676	2,467,947	8,304

PLACEMENT

Three out of five institutions maintain teacher-placement offices, and practically all of the others look after the professional placement of their students, although this service is not always centralized in one office. Activities include placement in teaching, which is most

common, and placement in various other occupations in permanent, temporary, summer, and part-time positions. Guidance and follow-up work related to placement are sometimes undertaken. Usually the institutions do not expect to place all students registered. There is a certain measure of selection among the students served, due in part to limitations upon placement services, and in part to the fact that small effort is made to place unsuitable candidates. A majority of institutions reported a surplus of candidates for positions.

Institutional service to the public schools is not completely rounded out until qualified graduates are placed without substantial cost to them in the teaching positions for which they were prepared. Their proper placement is a most important function and one which is not always well performed. Many graduates secure positions haphazardly with little regard at times to the curricula and subjects in which they were prepared to teach. Teachers are placed by many agencies, including about 170 private teachers agencies, nearly a score of State-operated placement bureaus, and a number of State teachers associations, as well as institutional placement bureaus. Professional demands and employment practices in the teaching field vary widely. In any case, it is highly desirable that institutional placement officials secure and maintain the close cooperation of public-school officials responsible for employing teachers.

The responsibilities of placement offices of State teacher-preparation institutions are summarized by Brogan³ and the procedures of placement which are most approved by 57 qualified authorities were presented by Townsend.⁴ This phase of student welfare was also studied by Adams⁵ whose findings are reported in part VIII of this volume.

Of the 497 institutions included in this study, three-fourths (table 31) reported the percentage of prospective teachers graduating in June 1931 who were employed as teachers in 1931-32. The median percents placed were as follows: Teachers colleges, 79; normal schools, 85; colleges and universities, 60; junior colleges, 67. Thirty of 374 institutions reporting had placed 25 percent or less of their graduates. More than one-third of the institutions had placed from half to three-fourths. The teachers colleges and normal schools were more successful (table 32) than the other institutions in finding employment for their graduates. None of the teachers colleges reported that they were placing less than one-fourth of their graduates,

³ Brogan, Whit. *The Work of Placement Offices in Teacher-Training Institutions*. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. pp. 94-95. (Contributions to Education, no. 434.)

⁴ Townsend, Marion Ernest. *The Administration of Student Personnel Services in Teacher-Training Institutions of the United States*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. pp. 62-64. (Contributions to Education, no. 534.)

⁵ Adams, Walter H. *The Placement of Students in Teaching Positions as Carried On by Higher Educational Institutions Including Normal Schools, Teachers Colleges, Colleges, and Universities*. Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Tex., 1932.

224 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

and only five reported less than 50 percent. Placement appears in the high school to be more difficult than placement in the elementary-school field. Current conditions of unemployment indicate that fewer graduates are being placed at the present time (1933) than in 1931-32.

TABLE 31.—*Placement: Percent of June 1931 graduates prepared for teaching who were employed as teachers in 1931-32*

Types of institutions	Total institutions answering on employment	Median percent employed	Number of institutions				
			25 percent or less	25 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	75 to 90 percent	More than 90 percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Teachers colleges (91).....	79	79	0	5	31	30	13
Normal schools (30).....	28	85	1	4	9	13	11
Colleges and universities (252).....	200	60	19	60	75	45	10
Junior colleges (74).....	68	67	10	11	7	9	11
Total (497).....	374		30	80	122	97	45

TABLE 32.—*Placements: Graduates of 1931 placed in 1931-32, by detailed types of institutions*

Types of institutions	State		Nonsectarian		Denominational		City	
	Number	Median percent	Number	Median percent	Number	Median percent	Number	Median percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Colleges and universities for:								
Men.....	3	51	7	70	14	60		
Women.....	5	65	9	25	66	65		
Coeeducational.....	25	65	19	50	97	65	4	65
Teachers colleges for:								
Women.....	3	75						
Coeeducational.....	72	80	4	80				
Normal schools for:								
Women.....	4	90	6	75				
Coeeducational.....	20	87						
Junior colleges for:								
Women.....					8	67		
Coeeducational.....	3	65			17	57	17	70

Lack of data on supply and demand in specific teaching fields; and indeed in the teaching profession as a whole, is marked in a number of States. Many institutions operate more or less in the dark in respect to the real needs of the areas they serve. The placement service should discover the professional needs of the area served by the institution, and to this end should be supplied with any figures available in the State department of education. All such data

should be made readily available to the vocational and other guidance officers of the institutions.

RESEARCH IN PERSONNEL PROBLEMS

Most of the research conducted in student personnel problems is carried on in the larger universities. The teachers colleges and normal schools in working toward the aim of preparing classroom teachers have taken little active interest in research of the abstract type and often do not have the facilities, staff, or means to engage in extensive research programs. However, interest in research is growing in all types of institutions especially as a means for the continuing growth in service of staff members, and as a means of vitalizing the instruction of the institution, and of solving local problems. The studies and literature in the field of student welfare and personnel is growing rapidly in volume.⁶ A few of the larger teachers colleges are engaging in research on personnel work. The organization of the Teachers College Personnel Association is an illustration of interest in this field. Research is increasing in the study of local problems in the arts and science colleges.

While teachers colleges, normal schools, and undergraduate liberal arts colleges cannot and probably should not go to the lengths in abstract research undertaken by the large universities, foundations, and other research agencies, the imminence of local problems such as the most desirable criteria for student selection, admission, and elimination, local teacher supply in specified fields, local personnel practices, student health and extracurricular activities in relation to achievement, and similar problems demand the attention of all types of institutions that prepare teachers. In every institution there are at least a few men and women who have more than average ability in research. Opportunities should be given such individuals to develop their talents and to make their contributions.⁷ Even the mediocre teacher should grow professionally; and certain types of research or study and creative work are excellent means to this end. It follows, therefore, that future progress in research in the field of student welfare may well be forwarded by at least some contributions from all types of institutions that prepare teachers.

⁶ See vol. 1 of the Survey report, and U.S. Office of Education. *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education: 1920-29 and 1930-31*. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931, 1932. 2 vols. (Office of Education. *Bulletin*, 1931, no. 12; 1932, no. 16.) Also Townsend, Marion Ernst. *The Administration of Student Personnel Services in Teacher Training Institutions of the United States*. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. pp. 85-92. (Contributions to Education, no. 534.)

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. *Maintain records of all prospective teachers.*—Of more than a million students enrolled in higher institutions, nearly one-half are preparing to teach. Registration practices are such, however, that the exact number of prospective teachers enrolled in universities, colleges, and junior colleges cannot be ascertained. Reports indicate increasing enrollments, despite a growing oversupply of teachers. Many individuals engage in teaching who have had only perfunctory preparation in institutions without adequate provisions for the professional education of teachers.

It is recommended that college students who are definitely preparing to teach be recorded in the registrar's office. It is desirable that the whole program of teacher preparation should be made more distinctive, and this cannot be done without the identification of prospective teachers early in their college career.

2. *Coordinate student personnel service.*—Personnel services, welfare provisions, and extracurriculum activities among college students operate at present more or less in isolation. Objectives of administrative units often do not agree, and sometimes important educational aims are disregarded. Records of a given unit are often not available to other units; for instance, health records may be retained as confidential and may not be available to counselors; again guidance officers may not know conditions of teacher supply and demand as ascertained by the placement office. A definite attempt to coordinate the various services has been attempted in 17 institutions by the appointment of a director of personnel, but most colleges rely upon part-time deans for personnel work.

It is recommended that even in small colleges such activities as selective admission, personality development, freshman week programs, placement testing, collection of personal and vocational information, advising and counseling, dealing with personal problems, administering student aids and scholarships, placement, research, and medical and psychiatric service be closely coordinated. The work of the dean of men and the dean of women becomes a part of the personnel program.

There should be a well-organized plan supervised by a particular office where students will go voluntarily and find the information that they seek. The aim should be to provide a personnel division composed of a group of specialists to take care of the needs of the student outside of the classroom and make the necessary outside contacts for each individual.

3. *Reduce teaching load of welfare officers.*—Approximately 88 percent of the deans of men teach one or more classes, and 42 percent teach from 10 to 17 or more clock-hours per week. About three-fourths of the deans of women teach; one-fourth teach 10 or more hours per week, and about 6 percent teach 16 hours per week. Teaching often absorbs so much of the deans' time that their student-welfare activities must be neglected. The fact that personnel activities are largely isolated in the colleges and not coordinated is partly due to the excess teaching activities of the deans who have not had the time to devote to the new services which have been growing up on the campus or which have not until recently been considered important enough to be coordinated. For instance, the payment of \$500 extra salary to the chemistry professor to take care of student personnel does not meet personnel requirements, and is not just to students. The newness of many services and the lack of specially prepared workers have not been conducive to the unification of the many welfare functions that are now established. It is desirable that all newly appointed officers in charge of major welfare activities secure at least some specific preparation for their work.

It is recommended that the major duties of such personnel officers as dean of men and dean of women be confined to personnel work with students if there is no other director of student personnel, and that their teaching loads be reduced to a minimum consistent with the size of the college and the demands of the students.

4. *Admit prospective students on a more selective basis.*—The typical teachers college student is a woman of native-born parents whose income is around \$2,000–\$2,500, from a family of 4 or 5 children, and reared in the country or a village with limited recreational, social, or cultural contacts. Her home status is only slightly above that of the average American citizen. Compared with her, the typical arts and science college student has parents who are more largely represented in business and professional life, who have slightly smaller families, and whose income is about \$3,100.

About a score of measures are now used in selective admission to limit enrollments and to build up the general status of student bodies. One measure alone is not satisfactory; a combination is more effective. In State colleges and universities where such measures may be only partially applied at entrance, special requirements for admission to the school or college of education tend to eliminate the unfit before entrance

to teacher preparation, and turn them from teaching into work more profitable to themselves and to society.

Teaching, especially in the elementary schools, has not attracted the more able students in the same proportion as have other professions. It is recommended that prospective teachers comparable in ability to students preparing for the learned professions be recruited and selected through such means as student guidance in high school, selective admission, systematic guidance in college, and elimination of the less fit before graduation.

5. *Emphasize campus living and proper housing.*—Practically a third of college men and a half of college women live in residence halls or dormitories provided by the institutions. While housing provisions for women are much alike in teachers colleges and other institutions, provisions for men are meager. Dormitory living for students is held desirable from several viewpoints. Students living away from the campus miss much of college life. Group living in college halls affords an influence that many students need, especially those who come from quiet homes, who are socially undeveloped, and do not like meeting new people. When dormitories are provided, safety and hygienic surroundings must be assured. Many dormitories are old buildings with fire hazards; about 9,000 men in 75 colleges and 13,000 women in 87 colleges are housed in dormitories that are not fire-resistive. Nearly a fourth of college students live in rooming houses off campus, where living conditions are largely out of the control of the administration. When a student registers in college, the administration is largely responsible for the manner in which he or she lives.

It is recommended that adequate dormitory provisions be made so that students not living at home may live on the campus. If fraternity houses are established they should have faculty approval. Fire escapes should be provided for all non-fire-resistive buildings, and inspection in regard to the safety of the occupants should be made by competent judges. Dormitories should be made centers of student social life and should set an example of desirable living conditions. Semi-private social rooms should be made available for the benefit of both sexes. If students are permitted to room off campus in private homes, the institution should maintain a list of approved rooms which have been previously inspected by the proper college authority, and business-like agreements should be made between landlady and student. If students live at home, parents should be informed about the importance of

routinized study and concerning the amount of study time required daily.

6. *Improve dining-room surroundings and procedures.*—Four out of five institutions provide student eating places under college management. The percentage of students who patronize them varies greatly, but it is usually less than half, except in certain private or denominational institutions. The appearance of the dining hall affects the quality of service. Many colleges have given no thought to improving the appearance of their dining halls, not realizing that they are setting standards for future citizens.

While 9 out of 10 institutions employ dietitians, only 4 of 10 employ graduate dietitians. Only 38 percent of the institutions require physical examinations of food handlers.

It is recommended that colleges which manage eating places improve dining-room surroundings and procedures to make them superior to boarding-house standards, and that the dining halls be so furnished and conducted as to contribute definitely to the social development of the students; that trained dietitians be provided; and that food handlers be employed only after they pass a physical examination.

7. *Sponsor extracurriculum activities for every student according to fitness.*—Although practically all higher institutions provide some team activities, there is a tendency for a relatively small group of students to carry on a large number of extra curriculum activities. Hence a large proportion of the students seldom receive much benefit from these activities. The activities judged by faculty members to be most useful to teachers are religious organizations, intramural athletics, student councils, musical organizations, assemblies, and debates.

Joint control of these activities by students and faculties predominates. Eighty-seven percent of all the institutions provide tennis courts and gymnasiums; three-fourths or more provide baseball fields; two-thirds have football fields; one-half have cinder tracks; two-fifths have grandstands; and two-fifths swimming pools. No outstanding differences in intramural sports are noted in the different types of institutions. Attention recently given to such sports reveals a tendency to favor the individual rather than the team.

It is recommended that every student be required to take some extracurriculum activity which he may choose and in which educational, social, and health values are emphasized. Intramural sports should be strengthened to bring out individual initiative, responsibility, good sportsmanship, and personality. Monopoly of these sports by a few students

is undesirable. The faculty as individuals and as representatives of subject-matter departments should cooperate with the students in promoting and controlling extracurriculum activities.

8. *Develop educational values in assembly and chapel.*—"Chapel" is more common in colleges and universities, and "assembly" in teachers colleges and normal schools. The two terms are often used interchangeably. Fifty-four percent of the institutions cooperating in this study have compulsory attendance at chapel services from one to six times a week; this is more characteristic of denominational than of other types of institutions. Assemblies, if properly planned offer educative programs, tend to unify the student body, and provide opportunities for future teachers to secure practice in planning and conducting meetings. Student participation from the platform increases student interest. There is a marked tendency in teachers colleges for students and faculty jointly to plan and conduct assembly.

It is recommended that chapel (religious) services be so conducted that students will wish to attend voluntarily and will find them inspirational and instructive. Both assembly and chapel should usually be planned and conducted jointly by students and faculty.

9. *Inaugurate a systematic and professional guidance program.*—

Although four-fifths of the colleges report that they have a definite program of guidance in operation, the results are doubtful, and their literature on the subject is meager. In some of the larger institutions the program does not function satisfactorily in the freshman year. Too much of the guidance work as now given in college is haphazard, varying with the amount of interest which professors or instructors take in individual students. College teachers do not generally make good guidance officers because of their limited knowledge of fields outside their own interest. A clearing house for guidance information is desirable in every college. Ideally a student should be prepared for meeting new situations and adjusting to new environments, but actually he is given little instruction concerning practical problems which he as an individual teacher will face.

It is recommended that systematic guidance procedures be inaugurated for every freshman, so that he will be able independently to choose a career or a specialty in teaching early in his college career. Testing programs may well play a part in the guidance program, but should apply first to the advisement of the individual rather than to general research studies of

student groups. A trained guidance officer should be made responsible for the counseling of students.

10. *Integrate placement and guidance services.*—Three out of five institutions reporting in this study maintain teacher-placement offices, many of which operate more or less in isolation from other welfare services. In some institutions the work is performed by individuals not closely in touch with the guidance activities of the institution. Practically all the teachers colleges and normal schools provide full-time or part-time placement officers. An oversupply of teachers, especially in the high-school teaching fields, is recognized.

Efficient placement offices keep in close contact with alumni by maintaining cumulative professional records which furnish basic data for researches on the effectiveness of the aims of the college.

It is recommended that there be a closer integration between the placement and guidance services in a college, so that effective placement may be the end result of guidance. Through cooperation of the guidance and placement office, information should be made available to students and faculty concerning teacher supply and demand. State department of education records, and information concerning the demand for teachers of different subjects in areas served by the institutions should be secured. Personal contacts of students with employers should be arranged and personnel records made available before the interview. The placement officer should see that cumulative professional records of alumni are maintained.

11. *Increase student aids and loan funds.*—Costs of going to college have been increasing. Student aids and loan funds have increased markedly, but rarely equal the demands upon them. A large percentage of college students earn their way in part or whole, and about two-thirds of the institutions provide employment services for self-help students. Student loan funds are the means of many students' staying in college. About 3 colleges in 5 maintain student loan funds, which vary in size from \$2,000 to large sums, the usual amount being \$10,000. The average size of the loan to individual students ranges from \$75 to \$125. Deferred tuitions which function as loan funds are increasingly granted at the present time. Revolving loan funds are highly desirable because repayments by students allow the money to be used again and again in the interest of other students. Scholarships, on the other hand, are often awarded without obligation to repay, and are sometimes awarded where need and appreciation is small.

It is recommended that student loan funds be established in every institution. Amounts may be increased through contributions of small amounts regularly from such sources as solicitation, entertainments, fees, foundations, endowment, alumni, or individuals. Loans to students should be administered strictly as business transactions with small interest charges, and should be handled by one administrator who investigates the need and risk. The college should assist needy students to find suitable part-time employment when possible on the campus.

12. *Apply research to local personnel problems.*—Solutions of local personnel problems are excellent departure points for more complex research studies. Comparatively few welfare officers are making research studies concerning their students and alumni. In fact, the living alumni are forgotten in many colleges, and their addresses are not even known. While a number of studies on student personnel and welfare have appeared during recent years, these have emanated chiefly from the better-known institutions, foundations, and research bureaus. Such research may serve to revise the aims of the colleges.

It is recommended that institutions collect information regarding their alumni as to marital status, family life, first occupation after graduation with salary, present occupation, and financial status by range figures, professional accomplishments, recreation activities, and other factors which may have been influenced by the college. With these basic data on the product of the institution, justification or revision of the stated aims will give the student body the benefit of the recommendations.

PART 4

PART IV. LIBRARY FACILITIES OF TEACHERS COLLEGES¹

CHAPTER I

COMPARISON OF BOOK SELECTIONS IN LIBRARIES OF TEACHERS COLLEGES WITH THOSE OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

The most exciting fact about a library, for most intelligent persons, is the amount of congenial reading it contains. But libraries are also interesting because of what they tell about the different sorts of people who use them. The books in the library of a teachers college² may show what sort of mental fare the institution provides. Likewise the library's records may indicate the students' intellectual tastes by showing how much and what they read, both in connection with and outside their program of studies.³

Anyone interested in the general competence of the young people now preparing to teach school will naturally be most interested in facts concerning their mental and spiritual horizons, as defined by what they read and wish to read during their student years. The libraries of the various institutions for the education of teachers doubtless supply their students with a larger amount of substantial reading matter than any other source.⁴ And since what anyone reads depends so largely upon what reading matter is easily available, one must know something of the book collections and reading facilities of the teachers college libraries themselves before he can interpret the facts about the reading and interests of prospective teachers, as described in part V.

The present account of the teachers college library is based upon three major assumptions. The first assumption is that the most

¹ This study was prepared by Prof. Douglas Waples, of the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., assisted by E. W. McDermid, Jr. The study was also subsidized by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the American Library Association.

² The institutions which have been selected to represent such institutions generally are 56 in number and contain 50 teachers colleges and six 2-year and 2-year normal schools. Except where otherwise stated, the term "teachers college" is applied to the entire group to distinguish them from colleges of liberal arts. Further distinctions among the 4-year teachers colleges are made in the following text and tables.

³ This chapter presents certain conclusions established by somewhat extensive investigations. Supporting data are largely omitted on account of lack of space. On request, the authors will gladly supply such evidence by correspondence, pending its publication elsewhere.

⁴ Cobb, Mary E. *The Collateral Reference Function of the Teachers College Library*. Chicago, Ill., the Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1930. P. 28 shows that the Albany Teachers College library supplied most of the students' collateral reading, in spite of competition from the excellent State library and public libraries in Albany.

important function of a college library is to provide readings collateral to the courses of instruction. The second is that in judging the teachers college library as a whole, it is entirely fair to confine attention to the supply of collateral reading, since this is its most important function. The third is that the present status of the teachers college library may be helpfully presented by comparison with the libraries of some of the better-known and well-established colleges of liberal arts.

The last assumption may require some explanation. To compare the books selected by arts colleges and by teachers colleges for reading collateral to the same courses of instruction is a valid means of evaluating the teachers college libraries—for the reason that both have the obligation to familiarize their students with the best reading available on subjects that concern all citizens. One would naturally expect the teachers college libraries to be stronger in collateral readings for strictly professional courses, that is, courses relating to the purely technical problems of teaching. It is, however, at the nonprofessional courses, courses intended to familiarize the teacher with the major fields of scholarship and to make of him a cultivated person, that popular criticism is most often directed. Hence, it should be interesting to see to what extent students of arts colleges and students of teachers colleges have access to the same books on subjects that are highly important to both.

Something should also be said to account for the deliberate selection in this investigation of favorably known arts colleges, nearly all in New England and Eastern States, in preference to a sampling of all types of colleges in each section of the country. The purpose was not to censure the teachers college libraries for their failure to measure up to the libraries of older and wealthier institutions whose cultural traditions are a source of so much pride as to render strong libraries inevitable. Everyone knows that a college like Swarthmore, for example, has a larger and probably richer collection of books on academic subjects than the typical teachers college or typical arts college. Any attempt to "prove" this fact would amount to breaking down an open door. The purpose, on the contrary, was simply to determine how wide the difference is, taking for granted the fact that the libraries of the selected liberal arts college libraries are superior. This purpose is considered sufficiently important to justify the comparison. No satisfactory objective measure exists for evaluating the nonprofessional collateral reference collections of the teachers college library other than to match the holdings against those of the selected liberal arts college.

It is only fair, however, to distinguish some of the stronger teachers colleges from the entire group of teachers colleges in comparing both with the better liberal arts colleges. In other words, it is important to know not only how the liberal arts colleges compare with the aver-

age teachers college in respect to library facilities but also how nearly the stronger teachers colleges meet the facilities of the liberal arts colleges. Accordingly, the library catalogs of 56 institutions for the education of teachers and 29 liberal arts colleges were checked against a list of books that were (as nearly as could be determined) the best books, or the most useful books, relating to certain courses offered by both types of college.⁵ From the list of 56 institutions for the education of teachers, 22 were selected for visitation. The libraries of the 22 selected teachers colleges were found to resemble the libraries of the 29 liberal arts colleges more closely than did the entire group of 56 institutions.

The courses or departments examined⁶ were obviously fundamental to any intelligent adjustment to American life and hence to

⁵ The liberal arts colleges selected for comparative study are Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala.; Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Colo.; Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.; Rockford College, Rockford, Ill.; Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa; Grinnell College, Grinnell, Iowa; Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine; Colby College, Waterville, Maine; Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.; Smith College, Northampton, Mass.; Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.; Williams College, Williamstown, Mass.; Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.; Wells College, Aurora-on-Cayuga, N.Y.; St. Lawrence University, Canton, N.Y.; Hamilton College, Clinton, N.Y.; Hobart College, Geneva, N.Y.; Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N.Y.; Antioch College, Antioch, Ohio; Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio; Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio; Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa.; Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.; Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, Pa.; Texas State College for Women, College of Industrial Arts, Denton, Tex.; Randolph-Macon Woman's College, Lynchburg, Va.; College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

The teachers colleges and normal schools studied are State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Ala.; Arizona State Teachers College, Flagstaff, Ariz.; Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway, Ark.; Humboldt State Teachers College, Arcata, Calif.; State Teachers College, San Jose, Calif.; Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colo.; Western State College of Colorado, Gunnison, Colo.; State Normal School,* New Britain, Conn.; James Ormond Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C.; Lewiston State Normal School,* Lewiston, Idaho; Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Ill.; Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.; Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.; Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa; Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays, Kans.; Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans.; Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Ky.; Louisiana State Normal College, Natchitoches, La.; Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College,* Scottsbluff, La.; State Normal School, Farmington, Maine; Maryland State Normal School,* Towson, Md.; State Teachers College, Bridgewater, Mass.; State Teachers College, Fitchburg, Mass.; State Teachers College, Framingham, Mass.; State Teachers College, Salem, Mass.; Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.; State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn.; State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.; State Teachers College, Hattiesburg, Miss.; Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo.; Montana State Normal College, Dillon, Mont.; Nebraska State Teachers College, Peru, Nebr.; State Teachers College and State Normal School, Trenton, N.J.; New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N.J.; New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City, N.Mex.; State Teachers College, Buffalo, N.Y.; East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, N.C.; State Teachers College, Mayville, N.Dak.; State Teachers College, Valley City, N.Dak.; Western Reserve University, School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio; Kent State College, Kent, Ohio; East Central State Teachers College, Ada, Okla.; Oregon Normal School,* Monmouth, Oreg.; State Teachers College, Clarion, Pa.; State Teachers College, Indiana, Pa.; Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, R.I.; Northern Normal and Industrial School, Aberdeen, S.Dak.; State Normal School,* Spearfish, S.Dak.; State Teachers College, Johnson City, Tenn.; State Teachers College, Memphis, Tenn.; North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Tex.; State Teachers College, Fredericksburg, Va.; State Normal School, Ellensburg, Wash.; Shepherd State Teachers College, Shepherdstown, W.Va.; State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wis.; State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wis.

* Indicates a 2 or 3 year normal school at the time the study was made.

⁶ American history, history of education, sociology, educational psychology, general biology, general psychology, economics, and, in addition, certain books of general reference.

any competent grasp of the public-school teachers' responsibilities. The lists of titles in each departmental field were obtained from Eugene Hilton's Junior College Booklist.⁷

There are other lists that might have been used instead, such as *A List of Books for College Libraries*, by Charles B. Shaw, and *Books for Junior Colleges*, by Edna A. Hester. The Hilton list, being compiled on the basis of statistically reliable agreements among instructors of the courses concerned, was considered the more appropriate for the purpose of this study.

One might ask why a list of books selected primarily for junior-college libraries was preferred to a list for senior-college libraries. The reason is simply that, to discover what books are presumably read by the largest number of students in both types of college, one must give most attention to the courses pursued in the first 2 years, which enroll more students than those pursued in the last 2 years. Furthermore, the students preparing to teach in elementary schools in many cases enroll for a 2- or 3-year course only. A sample of the reading collateral to courses offered during the first 2 years, or junior college, is thus a more satisfactory sample of the reading required of teachers in general than is the reading collateral to courses offered in the third and fourth years, or senior college.

It was accordingly necessary to show how many of the 652 titles selected (on the basis of Hilton's evidence) as most valuable for all 7 courses and for general reference purposes⁸ combined were available in liberal arts college libraries and in teachers college libraries. The facts are presented in table 1. It is apparent that as a group the arts college libraries were better equipped, since, of the 652 titles, the average number held by the arts colleges was 450, the average number held by the 50 teachers colleges, 345, and the average number held by the 6 normal schools, 228. Forty percent of the teachers college libraries held fewer than 300 of the 652 titles, which is less than the number held by the one arts college library holding the smallest number. The average for the 22 selected teachers colleges was 380, which is well above that of the entire group of teachers colleges but still below the average for the arts college libraries.

⁷ Hilton, Eugene. *Junior College Booklist*. Berkeley, Calif., University of California Press, 1933. (University of California publications in education, vol. 6, no. 1.)

⁸ By Betty H. Pritchett, North Central Association's committee on college libraries.

TABLE 1.—Percentage of 56 teachers college and normal school libraries and 29 liberal arts college libraries holding different numbers of 658 important titles

Number of titles	56 teachers college and normal school libraries	29 liberal arts college libraries
100 to 199.....	12	-----
200 to 249.....	11	-----
250 to 299.....	18	-----
300 to 349.....	14	10
350 to 399.....	23	7
400 to 449.....	9	38
450 to 499.....	5	21
500 to 549.....	4	17
550 to 599.....	4	7
Average number of titles held.....	332.4	450.5

Average number of titles held by six 2- and 3-year normal schools..... 228
 Average number of titles held by fifty 4-year teachers colleges..... 345

A comparison of the holdings of teachers college libraries and liberal arts college libraries in each of the seven different subjects and in general reference books is shown in table 2. The liberal arts college libraries were better equipped in all subjects but one. In two subjects only did the teachers college libraries compare favorably, namely, the professional subjects—educational psychology and history of education. Only in the former subject, educational psychology, did the teachers college libraries contain a larger number of the important titles than the liberal arts college libraries, and that superiority was exceedingly small.

On the other hand, the liberal arts college libraries were conspicuously ahead in economics, in works of general reference, in sociology, and in biology. Similarly, the liberal arts colleges were superior to the 22 selected teachers colleges in 6 of the lists, though the latter surpassed in history of education (difference in percentage = 4.3), and in educational psychology (difference in percentage = 6.8).

It would be difficult to name any subjects of greater value to teachers of the present generation than biology, economics, and sociology. Sound instruction in economics and sociology is clearly essential to any adequate comprehension of the acute social problems that the present school population must be taught to meet. Hence it is disappointing to find the average teachers college library relatively weak in these departments. It is encouraging to note that the libraries of the selected teachers colleges make a better showing in these fields.

TABLE 2.—Mean percentage of 56 teachers college and normal school libraries and 29 liberal arts college libraries compared for each subject with respect to (percentage of) holdings among 652 titles

Subject	Teachers college libraries	Liberal arts college libraries	Difference in favor of liberal arts college libraries	50 4-year teachers colleges	6 2-year and 5-year normal schools
1	2	3	4	5	6
Economics.....	31.0	66.4	+34.4	32.0	13.8
General reference.....	61.0	83.0	+22.0	62.4	49.0
Sociology.....	47.8	69.5	+21.7	50.3	30.8
Biology.....	31.8	82.4	+50.6	32.7	21.8
American history.....	66.3	69.8	+3.5	58.1	30.8
Psychology.....	60.0	70.0	+10.0	61.8	44.6
History of education.....	58.6	62.2	+3.6	60.8	30.8
Educational psychology.....	70.8	69.2	-1.6	72.4	30.8

Thus far the two types of libraries have been compared with reference only to the number of titles held. It is next important to know whether the libraries which contained fewer titles in each subject did not also contain the most important titles. If so, they were making the more efficient use of money expended for library purposes.

To meet this question it was necessary to show (1) the extent to which the two types of libraries held the same titles and (2) the relative importance of the titles held by the two types of libraries.

The correspondence between the titles held by the two types of libraries is shown most clearly by a correlation of the percentage of liberal arts colleges having a given title in their libraries with the percentage of teachers colleges holding the same title. Table 3 gives the coefficients of correlation. The books in the two types of libraries were most nearly the same in American history and were most different in economics. The coefficients were all positive and ranged from $+0.426 \pm 0.058$ in economics to $+0.770 \pm 0.025$ in American history. The coefficient for American history was significantly higher than that for any other subject. Next in order came history of education and general reference books. Following these came four subjects, all of which were closely grouped: Sociology, educational psychology, general biology, and general psychology. The difference between sociology (the highest of the four) and general psychology (the lowest) was less than the probable error and hence was not significant. The coefficient for economics was lowest of all and significantly lower than the next in order, general psychology.

TABLE 3.—Coefficients of correlation between percentage of 56 teachers college and normal school libraries and percentage of 29 liberal arts college libraries holding the same title, by subjects

Subject:	Coefficient of correlation
American history.....	0.770 \pm 0.025
History of education.....	.701 \pm .038
General reference.....	.694 \pm .043
Sociology.....	.627 \pm .043
Educational psychology.....	.626 \pm .049
Biology.....	.580 \pm .070
Psychology.....	.575 \pm .055
Economics.....	.426 \pm .058

Coefficients of correlation between the liberal arts colleges and the 22 selected teachers colleges were computed for the two subjects, sociology ($+0.688 \pm 0.043$) and educational psychology ($+0.639 \pm 0.0496$). In these two subjects, and very probably in the others, the correspondence between the selected teachers colleges and the liberal arts colleges was slightly higher than the correspondence between all the teachers colleges and the liberal arts colleges as shown in table 3.

The three subjects in which the two groups of libraries most nearly held the same titles, American history, history of education, and general reference books, were represented by a larger proportion of old books than were the other five subjects. This fact partly explains the agreement, since there was less chance for variation in purchasing standard works published prior to 1910. Additional explanation is found in the closer agreement among instructors of American history and history of education concerning the relative importance of recent books. By contrast, the number and variety of publications in economics and sociology allowed considerable latitude in selecting supplementary readings for the same type of course. Hence the holdings of the two groups of libraries tended to diverge more widely each year wherever differences in the aims of instruction encouraged the selection of different sorts of books.

The coefficients of correlation in table 3, however, do not show which type of library held the most useful books in each subject. Fortunately, evidence on this point was available from the Hilton list, which ranks each title on the basis of instructors' ratings and according to the frequency of its appearance in reputable libraries. Thus a comparison of the two groups of libraries on the basis of the percentage of titles ranking highest in each subject should show to what extent the superiority of liberal arts college libraries, thus far apparent, might be due to their holding a larger number of low-ranking titles.

Table 4 shows that the more important titles, as determined by Hilton's evidence, were better represented in the liberal arts college libraries in all except the strictly professional subjects—history of education and educational psychology. Moreover, the superiority

240 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

of the teachers college libraries in the professional subjects was very small, the differences in percentage amounting to no more than 4 and 7, respectively. For the five other subjects, in which it is no less necessary for teachers to be well read, the discrepancy in favor of the liberal arts college libraries was striking indeed. The figures justify the conclusion that in respect to economics, at least, the teachers college libraries as a group were deficient.

TABLE 4.—Mean percentage of 58 teachers college and normal school libraries and 29 liberal arts college libraries holding titles ranked in the upper fifth of the Hilton list for each subject

Subject	4-year teachers college libraries	Liberal arts college libraries	Difference in favor of liberal arts college libraries	3-year and 3-year normal school libraries	Difference in favor of liberal arts college libraries
1	2	3	4	5	6
Economics.....	68	74	+ 6	26	+42
Sociology.....	67	84	+17	45	+22
Biology.....	63	77	+14	33	+31
Psychology.....	78	83	+ 5	66	+12
American history.....	81	83	+ 2	67	+14
History of education.....	81	74	- 7	67	+14
Educational psychology.....	88	80	- 8	78	+10

The comparison of the 22 selected teachers colleges with the liberal arts colleges was more encouraging. The liberal arts colleges were definitely superior in economics, sociology, and biology, and slightly superior in psychology. The 22 teachers colleges were slightly superior in American history, and considerably better in history of education and educational psychology. Differences in percentage are 7 and 12, respectively. In all subjects the 22 selected teachers colleges definitely surpassed the averages for the entire group of teachers colleges.

If it be granted, as has been assumed, that the possession by teachers college libraries of important titles in the social sciences encourages more students to read them, that the social responsibilities of the teaching profession require teachers to be well read in such fields, and that this responsibility is sufficiently great to justify a comparison of typical teachers college libraries with some of the libraries of some of the better liberal arts colleges, it follows that the teachers college libraries that are weak in the social sciences should proceed to build up their collections in such departments.

CHAPTER II

OTHER COMPARISONS OF TEACHERS COLLEGE LIBRARIES WITH THOSE OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES

In justice to the institutions concerned, the emphatic warning should be given that the comparisons which have been drawn may easily be given too much consideration. Various factors, besides the clear recognition of the importance of strong collections in certain departments, are responsible for the difference between strong college libraries and weak ones. Many of the conditioning factors lie beyond the administrators' immediate control.

One such factor is relative age. It is obvious that if two libraries, having approximately the same book funds, buy the best publications of each year, and if the titles used as a criterion are not limited to recent publications, the older library will be the stronger. While it is true that the larger number of titles in the *Hilton* list have been published since 1920, there are also listed many good old books in the social sciences that the older libraries would be more likely to possess. The disproportionate age of the liberal arts colleges is apparent in table 5. A mean difference of 50 years places the teachers colleges at a serious disadvantage in any title-for-title comparison.

TABLE 5.—Percentage of 45 teachers colleges and 29 liberal arts colleges founded in each decade, 1840 to 1930

Dates of founding	Teachers colleges	Liberal arts colleges
Before 1840.....	2.2	51.7
1840 to 1849.....	0	10.3
1850 to 1859.....	11.1	10.3
1860 to 1869.....	13.3	6.9
1870 to 1879.....	8.9	10.3
1880 to 1889.....	13.3	6.9
1890 to 1899.....	15.6	0
1900 to 1909.....	26.6	3.4
1910 to 1919.....	6.7	0
1920 to 1930.....	2.2	0

Average founding date for liberal arts colleges, 1833; range, 1693 to 1903.

Average founding date for 4-year teachers colleges, 1886; range, 1839 to 1920.

^a Average founding date for 2-year and 3-year normal schools, 1884; range, 1850 to 1928.

This advantage in age is of course apparent in the relative size of the collections. It is not surprising to find the liberal arts college libraries more than four times as large as the teachers college libraries,

as shown in table 6. Differences in size have very little to do with differences in the quality of college libraries containing more than 50,000 volumes, as previous studies have shown.¹ But for college libraries of 20,000 volumes or less, which comprise half of the teachers college libraries examined in this study, the correspondence between size and quality is close. The coefficient of correlation between total number of volumes and number of titles in the Hilton list held by the 56 teachers college libraries was 0.82. Hence it is to be expected that the larger libraries are stronger where both large and small libraries have the same amount of money per student for annual accessions and where a short list of titles is the criterion.

TABLE 6.—Number of volumes held by 56 teachers college and normal school libraries and 29 liberal arts college libraries

Total number of volumes in library	Percentage of teachers college and normal school libraries	Percentage of liberal arts college libraries
Fewer than 20,000.....	50.0	3.4
20,000 to 39,999.....	32.1	17.2
40,000 to 59,999.....	12.5	10.3
60,000 to 79,999.....	1.8	13.8
80,000 to 99,999.....	1.8	10.3
100,000 and more.....	1.8	44.8

Average number of volumes held by liberal arts college libraries, 107,096; range, 17,500 to 332,866.

Average number of volumes held by teachers college libraries, 26,238; range, 5,000 to 137,715.

Average number of volumes held by fifty 4-year teachers colleges, 27,719.

Average number of volumes held by six 2-year and 3-year normal schools, 13,893.

To what extent the liberal arts colleges and the teachers colleges did spend the same amounts for library purposes is shown in table 7. On the average, the liberal arts colleges spent more than twice as much per student as the teachers colleges. This fact is doubtless sufficient explanation for the apparent superiority of the liberal arts colleges, assuming equal energy and equal competence on the part of instructors to select the titles most useful for their purposes.

It might perhaps be expected that a large number of students would require a larger number of different titles for collateral reference purposes than a small number of students. This, however, is not true. To teach a given course adequately necessitates certain reference books, whether the students number 20 or 200. The difference

¹ Progress report of the committee on library standards. North Central Association Quarterly, September 1930. p. 201.

Randall, W. M. The College Library. Chicago, Ill., University of Chicago Press, 1932. p. 95.

in number of students affects merely the number of duplicate copies.² It does not greatly affect either the number or the selection of different titles required. Hence the small institution is committed to a considerably larger expense for new titles per student than the large institution.

TABLE 7.—*Total library expenditures per student for 55 teachers colleges and normal schools and 28 liberal arts colleges, by percentages*

Amount per student	Percentage of teachers colleges and normal schools	Percentage of liberal arts colleges
Less than \$10.....	30.7	10.7
\$10 to \$19.....	53.8	32.1
\$20 to \$29.....	15.4	21.4
\$30 to \$39.....		7.1
\$40 to \$49.....		7.1
\$50 to \$59.....		10.7
\$60 and more.....		10.7

Average annual library expenditure per student by liberal arts colleges, \$36.30; range, \$8.40 to \$92.

Average annual library expenditure per student by teachers colleges, \$14; range, \$1 to \$25.

Average annual expenditure per student for forty-eight 4-year teachers colleges, \$13.

Average annual library expenditure per student by five 2-year and 3-year normal schools, \$16.

It is therefore a highly noteworthy fact that the difference in the average enrollment, in favor of the liberal arts colleges chosen for comparison with typical teachers colleges, amounted to no more than 136 students, as shown in table 8, whereas the average enrollment of the 22 selected teachers colleges was 600 larger than that of the normal schools. Whatever advantages the arts colleges as a group had over the teachers colleges in respect to library support was not due to a larger student enrollment. Recognition of this fact gives additional emphasis to the deficiencies of library appropriation in teachers colleges.

If the foregoing represents the most pertinent evidence obtainable, the teachers colleges, collectively, suffer heavily by comparison with the older liberal arts colleges in respect to the number and selection of books concerning contemporary social issues. To have demonstrated this discrepancy may be sufficient justification for this report. Further justification will consist in the strenuous efforts of teachers college administrators to remedy the deficiencies. While objective proof is lacking, the strong presumption is that if teachers college libraries were better stocked with readable discussions of present social

² Randall, W. M. Op. cit., p. 7. Also *The College Library Book Budget*. *The Library Quarterly*, 1: 421, October 1932.

problems, the public-school teachers of 1940 might take a larger interest in such problems than do teachers of today. The present interest of teachers and prospective teachers in reading upon contemporary issues, and the social attitudes reflected by their reading are discussed in part V of this volume. Parts IV and V are mutually dependent.

TABLE 8.—*Enrollment of 58 teachers colleges and normal schools and 29 liberal arts colleges*

Number of students	Percentage of teachers colleges and normal schools	Percentage of liberal arts colleges
Fewer than 200.....	1.9
200 to 399.....	20.7	10.3
400 to 599.....	22.6	17.2
600 to 799.....	13.2	24.1
800 to 999.....	13.2	8.9
1,000 and more.....	28.3	41.4

Average enrollment of liberal arts colleges, 1,050; range, 260 to 2,875.

Average enrollment of teachers colleges, 914.5; range, 182 to 5,257.

Average enrollment of forty 4-year teachers colleges, 1,004.

Average enrollment of five 2-year and 3-year normal schools, 463.

In conclusion it is in order to explain why almost exclusive attention has been given to the social-science collections of the libraries examined. There are at least three justifications: First, the large importance to American society of public-school teachers who are well read on social subjects; second, the tendency for the social-science collections of a college library to reflect the strong and the weak features of the collection as a whole;³ third, the opportunity to explain in part the narrow social interests and limited social reading of student teachers, described in the chapters of part V, in terms of library deficiencies.

The opportunity just mentioned was not realized. Although the liberal arts college libraries were much stronger than the teachers

³ Coefficients of correlation between total number of titles held on A List of Books for College Libraries by Charles B. Shaw and the number of titles held in particular departments were as follows:

Total number of recommended titles held, minus titles in history versus number of titles held in history.....	0.942
Total number of recommended titles held, minus titles in political science versus number of titles held in political science.....	.928
Total number of recommended titles held, minus titles in sociology versus number of titles held in sociology.....	.915
Total number of recommended titles held, minus titles in economics versus number of titles held in economics.....	.900

Since the quality of all titles represented is assumed to be uniform, it is evident that the strength of the total library holdings may be reliably estimated from the strength of the social science collections alone. Data by courtesy of Prof. W. M. Randall, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago.

college libraries in social-science holdings, their students' social attitudes were much the same as those of students in teachers colleges. The same was true of the subjects in which both groups of students read books. Direct comparison of library holdings and students' attitudes was, of course, largely frustrated by the differences in amount of extracurricular reading. It should, however, be the aim of library administrators to make their efforts produce recognizable effects upon the student mind.

Some evidence on this point was available in terms of students' actual reading, which is further described in part V. Students were asked to list the books they read "last week." Returns were available from 12 of the 22 selected teachers colleges and from 12 others of the whole group of 56 teachers colleges. The returns for women were more complete than those for men. A comparison was made of the mean number of nonfiction books read by (a) freshman and sophomore women and by (b) upperclass women, and the mean number of all books read by both groups in the 12 selected colleges and in the 12 unselected colleges. According to that comparison, students in the 12 selected colleges tended to read a larger number of books, as well as a larger number of nonfiction books than did the students in the other institutions. For the freshmen and sophomores the difference was not highly significant, amounting to only 2.6 times the probable error of the difference in nonfiction reading and 1.4 times the probable error of the difference in total reading. Thus difference in the quality of library facilities was not significantly related to amount of reading done by freshmen and sophomore students in the case of these 24 schools.

For the upper-class women, however, the differences in reading were significant. The difference between the mean number of nonfiction books read by upperclass women in the 12 selected colleges and the mean for the 12 other colleges was 4.9 times the probable error of the difference. In the case of the mean number of total books read, the difference was 3.6 times the probable error. The upper-class women in the colleges with better libraries tended very decidedly to read more nonfiction books and a larger number of both fiction and nonfiction titles than did students in the other colleges. It should also be noted that in the 12 selected colleges the average number of nonfiction books read by upper-class women was an increase of +0.23 books over the average for freshman and sophomore women, while in the unselected colleges the increase was only +0.08 books. Similarly, the increase in total books read by upper-class women over freshman and sophomore women in the selected colleges was +0.26, while in the other colleges an actual decrease of -0.02 was found.

The data on actual reading just presented go considerably beyond previous studies in the direction of criteria for college library collections. They constitute the only objective evidence known to the writers, which upholds the frequent claims for library support. Since the amount and character of student reading is the best single basis on which to judge the educational value of a college library, the consistency between the amounts of student reading and the library's status in respect to books justifies confidence in the findings. It is hoped that individual teachers colleges may be encouraged to record similar evidence for their own benefit.

PART 5

PART V. READING INTERESTS OF TEACHERS¹

CHAPTER I

WHAT TEACHERS WANT TO READ ABOUT

Public education, most Americans believe, is what makes democracy possible. The general welfare demands a large increase in the number of citizens who can distinguish crucial from trivial issues. Presumably, then, the curriculum should take some of its direction from the problems now threatening the social order.

How directly a public-school teacher can deal with present or future social conflicts depends, of course, upon the age of the children taught, upon the prior claims of fundamental subjects, and upon other conditions beyond the teacher's control. But the critical and liberalizing influence of the school as an institution depends less, perhaps, upon the nature and amount of social information supplied than upon the personal attitudes of the teacher.

Even though the teacher be too busy with official duties to keep informed, and even though he make no effort to develop social crusaders among his pupils, his notions regarding constitutional liberty and his freedom from social prejudices affect fundamentally the spiritual integrity and vitality of the American public school. The American public school is, by definition, a school for all classes; an institution dedicated to the purpose of teaching the various elements of our population to live harmoniously together.

The attitudes of teachers and prospective teachers toward certain representative current topics are described in the following pages. For considerations both of convenience and of reliability the description is confined to data on reading. Teachers' attitudes toward the various topics, and the attitudes of many other groups used for comparison, are reflected to some extent in the amount of material they actually read on each topic. Amount of reading, however, is not in itself a trustworthy index of relative interest except when two important conditions are present: When the group concerned has easy access to readable material on all of the topics, and when the group as a whole does a considerable amount of reading.

¹ The section was prepared by Prof. Douglas Waples, of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill., assisted by A. M. W. Birkeland. This study is part of an investigation of the committee on the reading interests and habits of adults of the American Association for Adult Education and the American Library Association. It was also subsidized by the Carnegie Corporation and the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago.

The importance of both conditions should be plain. If a given group of teachers is found to have read much on only 10 out of a possible 100 equally interesting topics, the explanation may be that reading matter on the remaining 90 topics was not available. Furthermore, unless the given group did a sufficient amount of reading to indicate the normal range in preference among subjects that can be read about, the selection of the subjects may be due to mere chance; to the accidental circumstances which led a few members of the group to read certain books that happened to lie within easy reach.

Because such conditions complicated the interpretation of data on the actual reading on the various topics, a better index of relative interest was sometimes obtained simply by asking teachers what topics they found most interesting. The following discussion is based on both types of data—records of actual reading and group ratings for relative interest.

The data are presented in four forms: First, with reference to a typical group of teachers, a description of social attitudes in terms of what teachers want to read about and what they actually read; second, a comparison of the topics of most interest to prospective teachers, teachers in service, and members of other occupations, with the topics selected (by a competent jury) as those of most importance to the Nation at the present time; third, an analysis of the character and amount of actual reading by various professional groups, comparisons being made with the reading of other groups wherever they help to define the general reading of prospective teachers; finally, a description of the reading interests, obtained by comparisons of the contemporary subjects which different groups of teachers consider most interesting to read about.

From the patterns of interest thus defined, the reader may draw many important conclusions regarding the civilizing and liberalizing effect of the professional preparation of teachers, regarding the attitudes of teachers in service toward important issues of the times, and regarding the respects in which the attitudes of teachers differ most widely from those of other occupational groups.

Data on reading interests do not, of course, tell the whole story about the preparation of teachers. There are other things which should be known such as the recreational and informational hobbies of teachers that are not shown by reading and reading interests. But the data here presented do offer a cultural index for the profession as a whole, and point out a possible remedy, assuming that teachers college students have access to readable material on some of the many subjects about which they need to know more. How much access they have, as compared with students in colleges of liberal arts, is indicated in part IV.

ARE TEACHERS INTERESTED IN "DEPRESSION" TOPICS?

The reading practices of public-school teachers enrolled for professional training in a university summer school are used to illustrate certain reading tendencies of teachers in general. The industrial area from which the teachers came probably represents a normal blend of conservative and radical opinion.

The instruments used to collect data on reading interests and actual reading from the group were 2 check-lists, each presenting the list of 60 selected contemporary topics. On the first check-list the teachers were asked to mark the topics according to their relative interest; on the second they were asked to indicate the amount of reading done on each topic during the past 2 weeks and to state whether the reading material was in the daily press, in weekly or monthly magazines, or in books of fiction or nonfiction.

The selection of the 60 topics was based upon 4 years' accumulation of evidence concerning the subjects of most interest to the population at large. Thirty-one of the 60 topics were those on which many more articles appeared in American periodicals during the 6 months, July 1931 to January 1932, than appeared during the 18 months, January 1929 to June 1930. Such topics are consequently those relating to social issues which the present economic situation has rendered acute. They are hereinafter referred to as "depression topics." The other 29 topics included 11 which previous studies had shown to be interesting to nearly everybody, 11 known to be uninteresting to nearly everybody, and 7 usually rated about midway between "interesting" and "not interesting." Hence, the second list of topics serves as a scale by which to estimate the degree of interest expressed by any given group of readers in depression topics as such.²

Returns from the selected group of teachers on the two check-lists are noteworthy and represent teachers in general in the following respects:

1. Some reading was done on every topic.
2. On the average topic, 45 percent of the reading by teachers of each sex was done in the daily press, about 40 percent in weekly or monthly magazines, and about 15 percent in nonfiction books.
3. In general, more reading was done on the interesting topics than on the uninteresting topics. The coefficients of correlation between the 60 topics ranked for relative interest and for relative amounts of actual reading are: For the women teachers, 0.612 ± 0.05 , and for the men, 0.360 ± 0.07 . The correlation between the sexes in respect to the relative interest of the topics is 0.577 ± 0.05 , and the correlation between the sexes in respect to actual reading on the subject is 0.626 ± 0.05 . The last coefficients show that the availability of reading matter had a large effect upon actual reading, since the num-

² Such group ratings have a high statistical reliability. For evidence see Waples and Tyler. *What People Want to Read About*. Chicago, Ill. The University of Chicago Press, 1931, ch. VII.

ber of subjects on which both groups actually read was larger than the number in which both were interested.

4. The 60 topics were ranked separately in order of relative interest to the teachers of each sex in 10 groups of 6 topics each. When so ranked, none of the depression topics appeared among the following 6 topics of most interest to the women teachers: (a) Personal health, (b) personality development, (c) getting along with other people, (d) interesting places in the United States, (e) interesting places abroad, and (f) travel and outdoor life.

5. Only one of the depression topics, unemployment relief, appeared among the next most interesting group of 6 topics. The other 5 were: (a) Stories about statesmen and politicians, (b) parents' treatment of children, (c) the meaning of culture, (d) motives of human behavior, and (e) personal beauty.

6. Thirteen of the 31 depression topics, however, appeared in the upper half; that is, the most interesting half of the list of 60 topics. In order of decreasing interest to women teachers, the 13 topics were: (a) Unemployment relief, (b) social effects of unemployment, (c) Americans in Russia, (d) social responsibilities of the church, (e) problems of the machine age (overproduction, etc.), (f) free trade and protective tariffs in the United States, (g) housing problems, (h) communism in the United States, (i) unemployment insurance, (j) disarmament and preparedness, (k) socialism in the United States, (l) police methods, and (m) cancellation of foreign debts.

7. The women teachers' actual reading on these topics (in newspapers, magazines, and books) was consistent with their interest ratings. Their actual reading on the 10 most interesting depression topics was 88 percent of their actual reading on the 10 most interesting topics of all, which included no depression topics.

8. The lowest fifth of the list of 60 topics, when ranked for relative interest to women teachers, contained 12 topics, including the following 6 depression topics: (a) Economic and industrial planning, (b) pacifists, (c) conscientious objectors, (d) stabilization of business, (e) corruption in politics, and (f) tariff problems of European countries.

9. Only 1 book was read by any of the women teachers on any 1 of these 6 topics, the 1 topic being corruption in politics. Economic and industrial planning was read about by only 30 percent of the teachers in press articles, 13 percent in weekly reviews, and 3 percent in monthly magazine articles.

10. The men teachers showed slightly more interest in the depression topics, and proportionately larger amounts of reading on them. On the entire list of topics, however, the women teachers did 10 percent more actual reading than the men.

Table 1 compares the number of depression topics with the number of other topics ranked in each fifth of the list by the teachers of each

sex. It is apparent that the depression topics cluster about the mid-point of the list when the 60 topics are ranked in order of relative interest to each sex.

TABLE 1.—Number of depression topics placed by men and women teachers in each fifth of the interest scale

Group of topics	Number of topics placed by—			
	Men		Women	
	Depression	Other	Depression	Other
1	2	3	4	5
12 most interesting.....	4	8	1	11
Second 12.....	6	6	7	5
Third 12.....	7	8	11	1
Fourth 12.....	9	3	6	6
12 least interesting.....	5	7	6	6

11. Only 4 depression topics were found in the fifth of the list most interesting to men, namely, (a) problems of the machine age, (b) economic and industrial planning, (c) wages, and (d) social effects of unemployment. The 6 depression topics in the second fifth were: (a) Unemployment relief, (b) free trade and protective tariffs in the United States, (c) disarmament and preparedness, (d) Russia's economic policies, (e) stabilization of business, and (f) unemployment insurance.

12. However, men read more on the depression topics which interested them than on other topics of even greater interest. The amount of actual reading reported on the 9 most interesting depression topics was almost identical with the amount reported on the 9 other topics of most interest. Yet only 1 depression topic stood as high in relative interest as the other 9 general topics. This discrepancy between reading interest and actual reading has already been noted in connection with the reading of women teachers. It is largely explained by the relative difficulty of finding readable material on each topic. The topics most read about were as likely to be those on which attractive reading matter was available as those on which the teachers were most eager to read; and "depression reading" was easily available.

13. Among the topics of least interest to the men teachers, the 5 least interesting were: (a) Stories about kings and queens, (b) personal beauty, (c) superstitions and beliefs, (d) socialism in the United States, and (e) foreign politics. To explain by what early training or present association the students have been influenced to rate the last 2 topics in the same category of interest as the other 3 would require an additional extensive investigation. The conservatism of men teachers is apparently safe so long as personal beauty and socialism are found equally interesting and at the foot of a list of topics widely discussed in contemporary magazines.

CHAPTER II

WHAT TOPICS ARE OF MOST INTEREST TO TEACHERS

ARE PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS INTERESTED IN IMPORTANT SOCIAL ISSUES?

Insofar as teachers in general agree with the typical group just described, it may be said that their interest in the problems rendered acute by the present economic crisis is no greater than their interest in other problems discussed in American periodicals.¹

It may next be inquired whether the problems on which teachers were most eager to read are the problems of most importance to American society at the present time. Since this investigation was primarily concerned with the education of teachers, it was desirable to know also how nearly the students enrolled in teacher-training institutions agreed with teachers in service in their evaluation of such problems. Furthermore, for a proper perspective, the problems of most interest to teachers and prospective teachers should be compared with the problems of most interest to other occupational groups, if only to offset the effects of academic influence.

The comparisons suggested were clearly impossible without some criterion of the "social importance" of the topics in which the various groups are most interested to read. Such a criterion was found in a list of 40 topics upon which a carefully selected jury showed close agreement. Each member of the jury was asked to examine a list of 117 topics, representing all the topics discussed in American publications from 1919 to 1929, and to arrange the topics in 10 groups according to their relative social importance. As might be expected, the results showed some disagreement, especially with regard to the topics at the mid-point of the list. Concerning the 20 most important topics and the 20 least important topics, however, the agreement was unanimous within a range of slightly more than one tenth of the entire list.² The 40 topics thus indicated as shown in table 2, were consequently accepted as a criterion of social importance.

¹ An account of the methods employed in selecting, from articles published in American periodicals since 1919, the topics used for comparison with the depression topics appears in Waples and Tyler, *op. cit.*, ch. VII.

² For the 20 topics judged to be of much social importance, the range of the standard deviations was from 0.8 to 1.9, the quartile deviation of the standard deviations was 0.229. For the 20 topics judged to be of no social importance, the range of standard deviations was from 0.5 to 1.5, and the quartile deviation of the standard deviations was 0.143.

TABLE 2.—*Forty topics on which the selected jury closely agreed*¹

Socially important topics	Socially unimportant topics
Criticism of Government policies Problems of the Federal Government Problems of State and city government United States foreign affairs The next war Preparedness Peace movements Social values of science Public health and medical progress The changing status of woman Social welfare problems Problems of the city Problems of the country Comments on marriage and divorce Eugenics and birth control Child training Elementary and secondary education Adult education Parents' relationships with children Successful marriage	Captains of industry Artists and musicians Authors Actors and actresses Royalty and social leaders Military and naval heroes Sportsmen Developments in aviation Plant life Animals Birds and insects Marine life Interesting places abroad Interesting places in the United States Crimes Writers and writing Language and the art of conversation Sports The home garden The family car

The validity of this criterion rests primarily upon two assumptions, each of which is safe. The first assumption is that the five men composing the jury were well qualified to designate on a given list the topics having the most (and the least) important implications for the American people at the present time. To describe the qualifications of each jury member individually would unfortunately violate the condition of anonymity on which each agreed to help. All hold positions of national importance in the field of contemporary social criticism. Their reputations are established by many years of distinguished research in this field. Their academic positions testify to their economic and political disinterestedness.

The second assumption is that the jury members based their ratings on the same interpretation of the topics. The fact that several topics received widely different ratings by the various members suggests that such topics, at least, were variously interpreted. However, in regard to the 40 on which agreement was close, the strong presumption is that the interpretations were very similar; and, further, that the jury ratings were based on the same essential meanings as were the ratings for relative interest which were obtained, for sake of comparison, from more than 15,000 readers from the general population.⁴

¹ Five leading sociologists ranked 117 topics, found by experiment, to cover the subjects discussed in American periodicals from 1919 to 1929, on a 10-point scale to indicate relative social importance. The standard deviations in the ranking of the topics appearing above ranged from 0.5 to 1.9. The topics on the left had average rankings of first, second, and third on the scale of relative social importance; and those on the right had average rankings of eighth, ninth, and tenth.

⁴ The effects of ambiguity of the topics upon the reliability of the ratings for relative interest have been studied experimentally and found to be small. See Waples and Tyler, op. cit., ch. VII.

The last point is obviously crucial. Unless the jury ratings for importance and the teachers' ratings for interest are based on the same interpretation of the topics, the former do not constitute a valid criterion. On this point, however, we have the empirical test of the comparisons themselves.

The following outline shows the procedure followed in computing the index of the social importance of the reading interests of each of the groups:

1. Find what percentage of the 20 topics rated "socially important" by the jury were rated "highly interesting" * by the given group. (For example, returns from several arts college faculties, rated 10 of the 20 important topics as "highly interesting", a ratio of 50 percent.)
2. Find what percentage of the 20 "socially unimportant" topics were rated "uninteresting" * by a given group. (The college faculties rated 9 such topics as uninteresting, a ratio of 45 percent.)
3. Determine the mean percentage of agreement. (Adding the topics in respect to which the college faculties' ratings agreed with the jury's ratings, 10 and 9, gave 19 agreements out of a possible 40, or an agreement of 47.5 percent.)
4. Find what percentage of the 20 "socially important" topics were rated "uninteresting" by the given group. (No topics were so rated by the college faculties, a ratio of 0 percent.)
5. Find what percentage of the 20 "socially unimportant" topics were rated "highly interesting" by the group. (One topic was so rated by the college faculties, a ratio of 5 percent.)
6. Determine the mean percentage of disagreement. (The mean percentage of 0 percent and 5 percent was 2.5 percent of disagreement between the jury and the college faculties.)
7. Subtract the mean percentage of disagreement from the mean percentage of agreement. The difference is the desired group index. (Subtracting the 2.5 percent representing disagreement from the 47.5 percent representing agreement gave a difference of 45 percent. The relation between the judgments of the jury and the reading interests of the men instructors on liberal arts college faculties, for example, was so close as to substantiate the jury's ratings. The jury's ratings were accordingly accepted as a satisfactory basis upon which to compare the social-mindedness of the various groups.

* Placed in the upper fifth of the list of 117 topics by the ratings of the group as a whole.

* Placed in the lowest fifth of the list of 117 topics by the ratings of the group as a whole.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of agreement between social importance and the reading interests of 34 typical groups, including teachers and prospective teachers*¹

[The indexes represent the difference between percentage of agreement and percentage of disagreement with the jury among the group ratings on 40 contemporary topics]

Group	Percent of agreement on 40 topics	Rank of group	Group	Percent of agreement on 40 topics	Rank of group
1	2	3	1	2	3
<i>Men students</i>			<i>Professional men</i>		
Teachers college (all 4 years).....	20.0	14.5	Farmers (college graduates).....	27.5	2.5
Liberal arts college freshmen.....	5.0	33	Salesmen (college graduates).....	27.5	2.5
University freshmen.....	10.0	27	<i>Professional women</i>		
Liberal arts college seniors.....	20.0	7.5	Housewives.....	25.0	11.5
University seniors.....	27.5	2.5	Miscellaneous business.....	20.0	7.5
<i>Women students</i>			<i>Business men</i>		
Teachers college freshmen.....	10.0	27	Office clerks.....	7.5	31
Teachers college seniors.....	17.5	19	Salesmen.....	20.0	14.5
Liberal arts college freshmen.....	0.0	34	Merchants.....	14.0	23.5
University freshmen.....	10.0	27	<i>Business women</i>		
Liberal arts college seniors.....	7.5	31	Office clerks.....	17.5	19
University seniors.....	10.0	27	Stenographers.....	10.0	27
<i>Men teachers</i>			Sales clerks.....	7.5	31
High school.....	25.0	5	<i>Laboring men</i>		
College faculty.....	45.0	1	Electricians.....	17.5	19
<i>Women teachers</i>			Steamfitters.....	22.5	13
Rural elementary.....	17.5	19	Police men.....	17.5	19
Graded elementary.....	25.0	5	Structural ironworkers.....	27.5	2.5
High school.....	17.5	19	<i>"Laboring women"</i>		
Social science in high school.....	25.0	5	Domestics.....	15.0	23.5
<i>Professional men</i>					
Doctors.....	25.0	11.5			
Lawyers.....	17.5	19			

¹ The 34 typical groups were selected from several hundred on the basis of correlations showing them to be highly typical.

The validity of the group ratings is further supported by the character of the groups found to agree most closely and to disagree most widely with the jury. Such groups are indicated by the group rank² in table 3. The fact that the groups in closest agreement with the jury included men in college faculties, men on high-school faculties, and women high-school teachers of social science, justified confidence in the relative status of the groups; likewise, the fact that the widest disagreement was found among girls and boys in the freshman classes of liberal arts colleges, and among men and women clerks in business offices—groups which are likely to be uncritical.

The social attitudes of the various groups may now be inferred from the comparisons. Among teachers in service, the high-school men

² The group rank is probably more valid than the group index, especially if the group index be taken to imply that the subjects on which any group likes best to read should correspond 100 percent with the subjects considered most important by a group of specialists in the field. Such, of course is not the case. Many "personal" topics are more interesting to everyone than many contemporary "social" topics, however important the latter may be.

teachers and elementary school women teachers were conspicuously interested in important issues; so also, as might be expected, were the teachers of social studies in high schools. The three groups were surpassed only by the men on college faculties, by university senior men, mainly specializing in social sciences, and by farmers who were college graduates—obliged by their calling to take a lively interest in the economic problems confronting the farm industries.

The other two groups of teachers in service, namely, the women high-school teachers of all subjects^a and the rural school teachers, were in the lower half of the 34 groups. Their concern with the selected 40 topics was about the same as that of policemen, electricians, and office girls. They differed much from these groups, however, in respect to other topics.

Prospective teachers are represented in table 3 by 1 group of men and 2 groups of women. Returns from men students in State teachers colleges were too few to furnish reliable samplings of freshman and senior groups separately as were obtained for women students.

The status of the men students in teachers colleges was only the middle rank of the 34 groups, but compared favorably with that of other men students, being about halfway between the freshmen and seniors of colleges and universities combined. This standing, however is lower than would be expected, if the teachers college curriculum emphasized social studies in proportion to their professional value.

The women students in teachers colleges were clearly superior to the other groups of women students with respect to their interest in important social topics. The teachers college seniors ranked above the university seniors, even though the teachers college seniors as a group ranked in the lower half of the 34 groups.

Taken as a whole, the foregoing evidence is far from encouraging. True, students in teachers colleges did not differ greatly from students in general in their attention to important social issues, but what inspires grave concern is the fact that students in general and important groups of teachers in particular were not much more enlightened than a cross section of the population at large. This condition must be changed before the schools can effectively oppose the drift toward social inertia.

^a Percentage distribution of group according to subjects taught: Language teachers, 46.3; commercial teachers, 18.1; mathematics teachers, 12; home economics teachers, 7.8; physical education teachers, 4.3; natural science teachers, 3.5; and social science teachers, 7.

CHAPTER III

COMPARISON OF ACTUAL READING OF TEACHERS WITH OTHER PROFESSIONAL GROUPS

DO PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS READ?

Thus far certain data on reading interests have reflected the attitudes of selected groups of teachers toward depression topics and toward other important issues of the day. The data suggest certain trends very clearly. Further data, covering a wider geographical distribution and as wide a range as possible in topics, were necessary before the findings could safely be assumed to apply to teachers and prospective teachers at large.

Data on the actual reading and subject interests of teachers college students were collected by means of the special form ¹ from 30 groups of students in teachers colleges. For interpretation and comparison, similar data were collected from students in liberal arts colleges and universities and from teachers-in-service. In all, 6,840 returns, representing 85 student and teacher groups in all sections of the United States, were received. Table 4 gives the numerical distribution.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of professional groups reporting*

Group	Men		Women		Total	
	Number of groups *	Number of persons	Number of groups	Number of persons	Number of groups	Number of persons
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teachers college students.....	10	884	20	1,811	30	2,695
Liberal arts college students.....	6	471	10	729	16	1,200
University students.....	4	420	5	374	9	794
Teachers in service.....	7	643	23	1,571	30	2,151
Total.....	27	2,418	58	4,485	85	6,840

* The average number of individuals per group is 80.

¹ This form was developed by extensive experiment to the point where the complete range of subjects discussed in American periodicals from 1919 to 1929 was sufficiently condensed to secure reliable patterns of reading interests from any homogeneous group. The form also called for data on the newspapers and magazines read regularly and on the books read "last" week.

To correct any bias resulting from the fact that the 85 groups were all academic, 2,678 additional returns were obtained from 37 groups of both sexes representing other professions, business executives, skilled trades, and unskilled labor.²

The fact cannot be overemphasized that the data secured from the returns of each group have been separately checked for statistical reliability. The group ratings on the relative interest of various subjects, for example, were checked by dividing each group into random halves and correlating the two sets of ratings. The resulting coefficients, for all groups herein presented, are well above 0.9, which justifies full confidence in the ratings. Had the work been simplified by omitting this laborious precaution, the comparisons would compel less respect. The data hereinafter presented may be accepted as sufficiently reliable.

The reading interests of teachers and prospective teachers will be described in terms of: Amount of reading in newspapers, magazines, and books; time spent in voluntary reading; magazines most read; classes of books most read; most-read authors; and sources from which the reading matter is obtained.

Amount of reading.—Perhaps the most noticeable fact about the average amounts of reading in newspapers, magazines, and books by teachers and students in teachers colleges is their uniformity. Table 5 shows that among the professional groups women did more book reading than men, teachers in service read more magazines than teachers college students, and men read more newspapers than women.

TABLE 5.—Mean amounts of reading by professional groups

Amount of reading	Men		Women			
	High-school teachers	Teachers college students	High-school teachers	Elementary teachers	Freshman and sophomore teachers college students	Junior and senior teachers college students
	3	3	4	5	6	7
Average number of books read per week...	1.23	1.11	1.73	1.34	1.39	1.44
Average number of magazines read regularly	3.48	2.08	4.07	3.46	2.03	2.38
Average number of newspapers read regularly	1.99	2.02	1.90	1.74	1.69	1.76
Average number of hours per week spent in reading	8.50	5.52	7.90	6.87	4.52	5.18

² Full descriptions of any of the groups named, omitted here for lack of space, will be sent on request to persons who may wish more information concerning particular groups in order to utilize the data in other studies.

An analysis of the number of newspapers and magazines read regularly by each group shows an entirely normal distribution. Approximately 40 percent of each of the 6 groups read 2 newspapers regularly, and a larger proportion read 2 papers than read any other number.

In respect to magazines, most high-school teachers of each sex regularly read 4, most women elementary teachers read 3, and all 3 groups of students read 2 magazines regularly.

Magazines most read.—The four magazines preferred by men high-school teachers were: The Literary Digest, The Saturday Evening Post, The National Geographic, and The American Magazine. Most women high-school teachers read regularly the first and last of these, and The Atlantic Monthly and Good Housekeeping. Most women elementary school teachers read regularly: The Literary Digest, The American Magazine, The Saturday Evening Post, and The National Geographic. The fact that The American Magazine was the second most popular among all groups of teachers is significant.

It is not surprising to find that teachers college students showed the same preferences. The two magazines read regularly by most teachers college students of each sex were The Literary Digest and The American Magazine.

Book reading.—In respect to book reading, the returns were less satisfactory, for the reason that in reporting the books read "last" week, the largest number of each of five groups read no books at all. The exception occurred in the group of women high-school teachers, of whom the largest number read two books during the given week. Of the other 5 groups, the largest number reading any books read only 1.

It is pertinent to ask what sorts of books were preferred by each group. The short answer appears in table 6. Disregarding the four columns to the right, as obviously affected by student assignments, perhaps the most interesting facts are that the girls in teachers colleges read so much fiction and that the other groups of women and both groups of men read less fiction than nonfiction.

TABLE 6.—Book reading of various types by each professional group

Group	Number of persons in group	Number of different titles read						Total
		Fiction	Non-fiction	History	Drama	Poetry	Miscellaneous	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Men high-school teachers.....	330	100	251	13	16	7	10	397
Men teachers college students.....	891	375	423	43	32	24	1	897
Women high-school teachers.....	530	332	440	25	29	30	10	875
Women elementary teachers.....	1,232	550	712	44	34	48	12	1,409
Freshman and sophomore women teachers college students.....	1,096	732	572	26	94	57	3	1,484
Junior and senior women teachers college students.....	1,423	919	631	36	106	71	3	1,815
Total.....	5,503	3,017	3,078	187	310	246	39	6,877

Nonfiction.—In nonfiction the following 10 titles were the most widely read by all 6 groups, in the order listed: *The Education of a Princess* (Marie), *Why We Behave Like Human Beings* (Dorsey), *The Royal Road to Romance* (Halliburton), *Trader Horn* (Horn), *The Story of San Michele* (Munthe), *Up From Slavery* (Washington), *Mother India* (Mayo), *Microbe Hunters* (dè Kruif), *Little America* (Byrd), and *The Great American Bandwagon* (Mertz).

While at least the first two suggest the influence of classroom assignments, the list as a whole implies that the teachers and teachers college students who did read nonfiction were reading a good cross-section of the annual publications. Further analysis of nonfiction in terms of titles read by student and teacher groups was discouraged by the difficulty of identifying assigned reading in the student list. Such contrasts, however, appear in the later discussion of topics on which different groups were most eager to read.

Fiction.—In the case of fiction, the contrasts between the actual reading of teachers and teachers college students were perhaps most plainly indicated by data concerning the authors most read by each group. Comparison of the authors suggests, by and large, that more important writers of fiction were read by women students in liberal arts colleges than by women students in teachers colleges, by women high-school teachers than by women elementary school teachers, by women students in the first 2 years of teachers college and men teachers college students than by men high-school teachers.

TABLE 7.—Authors of fiction most read by different professional groups

Author	Men		Women				
	High-school teachers	Teachers in training	High-school teachers	Grade-school teachers	Freshman and sophomore teachers college students	Junior and senior teachers college students	Liberal arts college students
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Austen, Jane						(*)	
Bennett, Arnold		(*)	(*)				
Balsac, Honore							(*)
Bachelor, Irving			(*)				
Bailey, Temple			(*)	(*)			
Bromfield, Louis				(*)			
Conrad, Joseph							(*)
Canfield, Dorothy			(*)		(*)	(*)	(*)
Cather, Willa			(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Cooper, James F.	(*)						
Deesping, Warwick			(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	
Dickens, Charles			(*)	(*)			
Dumas, Alexander		(*)					
France, Anatole			(*)				
Ferber, Edna		(*)			(*)	(*)	
Galsworthy, John	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
Hardy, Thomas		(*)			(*)	(*)	(*)
Hergesheimer, Joseph			(*)				
Hill-Luts, Grace			(*)	(*)	(*)		
James, Henry							(*)
Kipling, Rudyard		(*)				(*)	

* Means most-read authors.

TABLE 7.—*Authors of fiction most read by different professional groups—Continued*

Author	Men		Women				
	High-school teachers	Teachers in training	High-school teachers	Grade-school teachers	Freshman and sophomore teachers college students	Junior and senior teachers college students	Liberal arts college students
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Kyne, Peter B.		()					
Lewis, Sinclair		()		()	()	()	
Lincoln, Joseph				()			
London, Jack		()					
Meredith, George							()
Morrow, Honore				()			
Morley, Christopher		()					
Norris, Kathleen				()	()	()	
Ostenso, Martha					()		
Priestley, J. B.			()				
Rhinehart, Mary B.				()			
Stern, Gladys			()				
Sabatini, Rafael	()	()					
Scott, Walter							
Theackeray, William							()
Tolstoy, Leo			()		()		
Twain, Mark		()					
Undset, Sigrid			()				
Walpole, Hugh			()				
Wharton, Edith			()		()	()	

* Means most-read authors.

Since the groups differ in the total amount of reading reported, there is no uniformity either in the number of authors indicated in each column or in the proportion of each group reading each author.

Sources.—In support of the statement, in the supplementary study on the teachers college library, that teachers college students obtained most of their reading from the college library, the reader will note from table 8 that the teachers college library and the public library supplied most reading to student teachers and teachers in service. The table also shows that student teachers used public libraries to supplement their college libraries; that approximately one-fourth of the women teachers patronized rental libraries for current fiction; that about one-fifth of the high-school women teachers subscribed to book clubs; that almost half of the teachers in service and a fifth of the teachers college students patronized bookstores, and that nearly half of the men and considerably more than half the women of all groups obtained reading matter from friends. On the whole, table 8 justifies the statement that the library is the most important source of what is read by teachers and student teachers alike.

262 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 8.—Percentage of different professional groups obtaining reading matter from the various sources

Source	Men		Women			
	High-school teachers	Teachers in training	High-school teachers	Grade-school teachers	Freshman and sophomore teachers college students	Junior and senior teachers college students
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Number in group.....	330	891	530	1,232	1,423	1,096
Book clubs.....	10.3	3.1	21.3	11.3	2.1	3.2
Bookstores.....	44.5	30.9	49.4	41.6	20.9	22.8
Public libraries.....	87.9	49.3	71.7	76.9	66.3	66.3
School or college libraries.....	47.9	75.7	48.3	29.9	80.5	74.1
Circulating or rental libraries.....	14.8	6.4	28.1	21.9	7.1	7.6
Club libraries.....	5.8	2.7	9.4	4.2	6	4
Friends.....	44.5	47.0	60.4	61.0	88.4	88.6
Special reference libraries.....	9.1	5.8	11.5	5.9	2.8	2.7
Publishers' associations.....	15.8	11.9	18.5	21.2	6.7	8.0

In conclusion, it may be observed that the largest number of each group, about 36 percent, devoted no more than 8 hours a week to reading; that most of the teachers procured their reading from public libraries, the next largest number from school or college libraries, and third largest number from friends; that most teachers college students procured their reading from their college libraries or from public libraries; and that both groups were acquainted with the best contemporary writers of both fiction and nonfiction, even though more than a third of each group did no reading beyond professional or classroom requirements.

The logical inference is that the responsible authorities should give serious attention to four conditions, if the education of teachers is intended to develop intelligent attitudes towards contemporary social issues: First, the relatively significant role of reading as compared with other student activities in respect to the time devoted to each; second, the small proportion of student teachers who read anything beyond course requirements; third, the probable dependence of actual reading upon the advertising of readable titles on current issues by the libraries from which most teachers and teachers in training obtained their readings; and, fourth, the poverty of such libraries in the field of contemporary social criticism, broadly defined.

CHAPTER IV

READING INTERESTS OF DIFFERENT GROUPS OF TEACHERS

TOPICS OF INTEREST TO PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

This final section of the study is, perhaps, the most important. It compares the subjects of most interest to teachers college students, teachers in service, and members of other occupational groups with the subjects on which each group does most reading in books. Such comparisons are somewhat exciting to students of human nature and to anyone else wishing to understand as fully as possible the distinctive traits of any given group. The social attitudes of a given group toward typical aspects of the contemporary scene are revealed by data on their reading interests and the amount of reading done.

Differences in amount of book reading on the various subjects show what effort is made to satisfy curiosities. Assuming equally easy access by all groups to readable books on each subject, the intensity or sincerity of group interest may be estimated by the relative amounts of book reading on each subject by each group. The assumption, however, is at present untenable. In part IV it was shown that teachers college students in different institutions had unequal access to the literature in a given field. Hence relative amounts of book reading cannot be taken as evidence of reading interests until agencies for book distribution have become far more efficient—that is, until their books are selected according to the known subject interests of specified groups. However, the combined data on reading interests and on relative amounts of book reading constitute, at least for student groups, the best objective description of the group mind.

The data are also highly useful in a more "practical" direction. Discrepancies between interesting subjects and the subjects most read about point to certain obstacles, which must be removed before reading interests can be fully satisfied. In the main, the obstacles are: (1) The inability of publishers and librarians to select readable materials on the subjects of most interest to particular groups of readers; (2) insufficient advertising of such titles by college instructors and librarians; and (3) the students' difficulties in securing such titles from the libraries or other sources on demand—the inaccessibility of reading matter on the subjects of major interest. Proper attention to the removal of such obstacles to wider reading in the field of

social criticism should help to remove some of the cultural deficiencies of prospective teachers.

Procedure.—The discussion to follow is largely concerned with the relative interest of different groups in the topics discussed in current publications and with the amount of reading by each group on each topic.

The procedure for determining the topics upon which each group does most reading consisted in ranking the topics according to the number of words read on each by the given group. In the case of book reading this meant examining all the books read by the group to identify the various topics discussed in each book, classifying the books under the topics discussed, and (since a book of nonfiction contains on the average about 100,000 words) crediting each topic with the estimated number of words each book devotes to it. For example, a book relating to one topic only and read by one person only, would credit the given topic with 100,000 words. Another book read by one person only but classified under four topics would credit each of the four topics in proportion: Each topic would be credited with 25,000 words. The justification for this weighting is based on numerous comparisons which show that, in the aggregate, the subject classification of a title corresponds roughly with the amount of space (number of paragraphs, etc.), devoted to each of the topics under which it can be classified by the title and a brief examination.

The procedure used in scoring magazine reading was slightly different. The 10 magazines read by the largest number of each group of readers sampled were first selected. In all, 20 magazines were selected. From an examination of several consecutive issues of each magazine, commencing with the January 1930, issue, the average number of pages devoted to each topic was determined and the number of words on each topic in each magazine was then estimated. Since the record of book reading covered 1 week only, the topic scores for monthly magazines were divided by four in order that relative amounts of reading by each group on each topic in magazines might be directly compared with amounts of book reading. The amount of reading on each topic in newspapers was disregarded, since it was about the same for each group. Typical groups read most on the subjects receiving most space in the press, instead of on the subjects of most interest.¹

The difference between the reading interests of teachers and those of prospective teachers was slight. By extensive intercorrelation of data, the correlation among all groups of teachers college students was found to be never less than 0.8. The correspondence among the subject interests of teachers college students and high-school teachers

¹ Waples, Douglas. The Relation of Subject Interests to Actual Reading. *The Library Quarterly*, vol. 2, no. 1, January 1932.

in service was also close, as is shown in table 9. The table correlates teachers college students with high-school teachers only, because the reading interests of high-school teachers differed most widely from those of teachers college students.

TABLE 9.—*Coefficients of correlation between reading interests of men students in teachers colleges and reading interests of high-school teachers in service*

(Sex and environment are held constant for all groups—Age, education, and experience may vary)

Locality	Group reliability		Correlation between groups
	Students	High-school teachers	
1	2	3	4
Southern States.....	0.848±0.017	0.895±0.015	0.743±0.038
New England States.....	.930±.008	.947±.008	.737±.029
Pacific Coast States.....	.918±.010	.942±.007	.647±.018
Middle Atlantic States.....	.851±.010	.929±.008	.632±.019
North Central States ¹921±.009	.926±.009	.765±.027
North Central States ²879±.014	.926±.009	.824±.030

¹ Freshmen and sophomores. The preceding groups include all classes.

² Juniors and seniors.

Table 10 shows the reading interests of other occupational groups to be very similar. It thus remains to contrast the reading interests of the teaching profession as expressed in particular topics with those of other sex, occupational, and educational groups.

TABLE 10.—Coefficients of correlation among the subject interests of various professional groups

Professional group	Chemists	Doctors	Lawyers	Farmers	Salesmen	Dentists	Draftsmen	Business executives	College faculty	Life insurance agents	Financiers	Independent merchants	High-school teachers
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Chemists.....	0.933±0.008												
Doctors.....	.739±.028	0.912±0.011											
Lawyers.....	.690±.039	.660±.034	0.931±0.008										
Farmers.....	.697±.040	.662±.032	.670±.024	0.917±0.010									
Salesmen.....	.701±.023	.673±.042	.691±.033	.728±.029	0.932±0.005								
Dentists.....	.706±.026	.615±.021	.617±.038	.732±.029	.685±.033	0.849±0.017							
Draftsmen.....	.684±.014	.604±.036	.694±.040	.665±.032	.762±.023	.764±.026	0.929±0.006						
Business executives.....	.806±.022	.490±.048	.606±.039	.682±.033	.876±.015	.632±.037	.796±.024	0.932±0.008					
College faculty.....	.732±.026	.791±.023	.779±.026	.708±.031	.660±.036	.677±.025	.706±.031	.561±.043	0.863±0.013				
Life insurance agents.....	.755±.027	.648±.036	.689±.033	.719±.030	.822±.020	.756±.027	.769±.026	.805±.022	.682±.033	0.907±0.011			
Financiers.....	.726±.030	.533±.045	.696±.032	.700±.032	.900±.012	.730±.029	.755±.027	.848±.013	.656±.036	.844±.018	0.939±0.007		
Independent merchants.....	.844±.018	.711±.031	.766±.026	.787±.024	.905±.011	.776±.026	.832±.019	.809±.022	.789±.024	.841±.018	.845±.018	0.918±0.015	
High-school teachers.....	.696±.032	.699±.032	.639±.037	.689±.033	.619±.038	.741±.026	.767±.026	.539±.044	.812±.021	.669±.033	.631±.038	.715±.031	0.79±0.009

Group comparisons.—From each of some 200 groups, data were obtained on relative interest in contemporary subjects, on the relative social importance of the topic, and on the relative amount of book and magazine reading on each topic. Such data are most conveniently shown by means of tables. A larger number of tables is presented, perhaps, than it is reasonable to expect the reader to examine closely.

As a compromise between completeness and popular interest, the remaining text is based on the topics in which the interests of various groups differed most.¹ On the whole, the topics which interested one group much more than another best reveal important differences in group attitudes.

Findings.—Sex was beyond question the factor making for the widest differences in reading interest within a nation. Tentative comparisons between the subject interests of teachers in training in America and in Germany suggested that nationality is more important than sex, since the subject interests of German groups differing in sex and widely in occupation apparently corresponded far more closely with each other than any German group did with any American group of the same sex and occupation. Such international comparisons, however, have not been carried far enough to support final conclusions.

Because sex has a greater influence than other factors upon reading interests within a national population, it will simplify the following comparisons to discuss groups of the same sex separately.

READING INTERESTS OF WOMEN STUDENTS

The first comparison given is the differences between the reading interests of freshman and sophomore women in liberal arts colleges and those of freshman and sophomore women in teachers colleges. These are shown in table 11.

TABLE 11.—*Differences in reading interests of freshman and sophomore women in liberal arts colleges and freshman and sophomore women in teachers colleges*

Topics more interesting to freshman and sophomore liberal arts college women	Topics more interesting to freshman and sophomore teachers college women
Actors and actresses	PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICAL PROGRESS ²
Advertising and publicity	Prevention and treatment of specific ills
Business ethics and business frauds	PROBLEMS OF THE COUNTRY
Public morals	CHILD TRAINING ³
The reporter and the press	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ⁴
	ADULT EDUCATION ⁴
	Sports

¹ That is, topics which are at least 23 ranks apart in relative interest.

² The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

³ Means that the topic was one on which much book reading was done by both groups.

The table clearly indicates the effect of the professional education of the teachers college students. Five of the seven topics preferred by them were rated socially important and only one (sports) was rated socially unimportant. On the other hand, the reading interests of the liberal arts college students were more diversified.

When comparisons are made between these two groups on the topics which are of most interest to both groups and of least interest to both groups, it is evident that there is a significant amount of agreement. The common interests of the two groups were about an even blend of the academic and the trivial, both among the most interesting and the least interesting lists. This comparison is shown in table 12.

The topics upon which both groups actually read most were considerably more academically respectable than were the topics of most interest, partly, no doubt, as a result of college reading assignments. This difference will be seen by comparing the lists of topics in table 13 with those in table 12.

Note to reader.—Throughout the remainder of this study comparisons will be made between different groups upon the topics which are of most and of least interest and upon which they do the most and the least reading in books and in periodicals. These comparisons are drawn from tables similar to tables 12 and 13, but the tables have not been included in this report because of printing limitations. The originals, however, are on file in the United States Office of Education in case the more detailed data are desired.

TABLE 12.—Topics of common interest to freshman and sophomore women in liberal arts colleges and freshman and sophomore women in teachers colleges

Topics of most interest to both groups	Topics of least interest to both groups
Authors ^a	Captains of industry
Sportsmen	Statesmen and politicians
International attitudes	Royalty and social leaders
PEACE MOVEMENTS ^b	Military and naval heroes
Developments in aviation	Party politics
Personal hygiene	Foreign politics
Personal beauty	Industrial conditions—prosperity
Nature of human nature and intelligence ^b	Organization and administration of big business
Personal qualities analysed	The money market—investments
Getting along with other people	Insurance
Self-improvement	Marketing—sales methods
Characteristics of the American	Business ventures
Interesting places abroad ^a	Business management
Interesting places in the United States	Chemical inventions
Interesting peoples	Mechanical inventions
College and higher education ^a	Electrical inventions

^a The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

^b Means that much book reading was done on topics by both groups.

TABLE 12.—Topics of common interest to freshman and sophomore women in liberal arts colleges and freshman and sophomore women in teachers colleges—Con.

Topics of most interest to both groups	Topics of least interest to both groups
The meaning of culture	Developments in the automobile industry
Religion and the world today *	Engineering
Music *	Developments in farming
Travel and outdoor life	Mining and metal industries
Hobbies and the use of leisure	Trades and manufacturing
	Marine life
	Organizations—social, political, and fraternal
	Civic beauty and architecture
	The home garden
	The family car

TABLE 13.—Similarities in book reading of women students in liberal arts colleges and freshman and sophomore women students in teachers colleges

Topics on which both groups do most reading in books	Topics on which both groups do least reading in books
People of legend and history	Sportsmen
Statesmen and politicians	PREPAREDNESS
Scientists	Business conditions abroad
Authors *	Foreign trade
Educators and religious leaders	Advertising and publicity
Foreign politics	Marketing—sales methods
Facts and theories of pure science	Business ethics and business frauds
The nature of human nature and intelligence *	Business ventures
The un successful life	Personal success in business
Theories about society and social progress	Business management
SOCIAL WELFARE PROBLEMS *	Chemical inventions
Exploration and discovery	Mechanical inventions
Interesting places abroad *	Electrical inventions
Customs of other days and other lands	Science and warfare
EUGENICS AND BIRTH CONTROL	Developments in the automobile industry
CHILD TRAINING	Engineering
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION	Mining and metal industries
College and higher education *	Personal beauty
Religion and the world today *	Characteristics of the American
The use and abuse of reading	Organizations—political, social, and fraternal
Writers and writing	Detection and prevention of crime
Music *	Prohibition violations and enforcement
Language and the art of conversation	Attitudes—men versus women
	The reporter and the press
	Civic beauty and architecture
	Getting along with relatives
	The family car

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

* Means that much book reading was done on topics by both groups.

* Means that the topics were of most interest to both groups.

The data for junior and senior women present a very different picture, particularly with respect to the topics in which the interests of the two groups differed most (table 14). The interests peculiar to the liberal arts college students were wider in scope and more mature in quality. Those peculiar to the teachers college students were secularized; that is, they were less narrowly confined to the conventional interests of teachers. There was little difference, however, in the topics of equal interest to both groups. The students in teachers colleges did more reading on the subjects of most social importance. But both groups read books on important and well-diversified topics.

TABLE 14.—*Differences in reading interests of junior and senior women students in liberal arts colleges and junior and senior women students in teachers colleges*

Topics more interesting to junior and senior liberal arts college women	Topics more interesting to junior and senior teachers college women
Typical personalities	Laws and legislation
Authors ¹	Citizenship
Science and warfare	Natural resources—development and conservation
College and higher education	Business ethics and business frauds
Music ²	Developments in aviation
The theater	Crimes
	Prohibition violations and enforcement
	Motion pictures
	Getting along with relatives

Teachers and teachers college students.—The students in the last 2 years of teachers college compared less favorably with elementary and high-school teachers in service. The topic interests shown in table 15 are fewer than those in table 16 for the reason that the junior and senior students in teachers colleges had many more interests in common with elementary school teachers than with high-school teachers.

TABLE 15.—*Differences in reading interests of women elementary teachers and junior and senior women students in teachers colleges*

Topics more interesting to women elementary teachers	Topics more interesting to junior and senior teachers college women
Authors	Sportsmen
PROBLEMS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT ¹	Business ethics and business frauds
SOCIAL WELFARE PROBLEMS	Facts about mankind
Customs of other days and other lands	Crimes
	Detection and prevention of crime
	Sports
	Getting along with relatives

¹ The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

² Means that much book reading was done by both groups on the topic.

TABLE 16.—*Differences in reading interests of women high-school teachers and junior and senior women students in teachers colleges*

Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to junior and senior teachers college women
Statesmen and politicians	Sportsmen
Authors	THE NEXT WAR
Educators and religious leaders	Business ethics and business frauds
CRITICISM OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES*	Facts about mankind
PROBLEMS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT	Developments in aviation
Party politics	Personal beauty
UNITED STATES FOREIGN AFFAIRS	PROBLEMS OF THE COUNTRY
Business conditions abroad	Crimes
The money market—investments	Detection and prevention of crime
Labor and the labor market	CHILD TRAINING
Facts and theories of pure science	Motion pictures
Comments on modern America	Sports
SOCIAL WELFARE PROBLEMS	Getting along with relatives
College and higher education	PARENTS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH CHILDREN
Writers and writing	
The theater	

The many substantial reading interests common to the students and elementary teachers were not consistent with the differences in their reading, in which respect the students were clearly ahead, chiefly in respect to the social importance of the topics read about. The many topics on which both groups read included those of both collegiate and local interest.

Table 16 repays careful study. The high-school teachers' list was meaty and liberal. The students' list fell into two distinct halves: One included such topics as problems of the country, child training, and parents' relationships with children, clearly emanating from the classroom, which is of course desirable; the other included interests as sensational as their nonfiction horizons permitted, for example, personal beauty, crimes, sportsmen, and motion pictures. The reading interests common to both groups were varied, but again the topics on which neither group read books were, on the whole, fully as important as those on which both groups did read. Also, probably due to college requirements, the topics on which the students read much more than teachers were far more important than the topics on which the teachers read more.

Teachers of different grades.—Because of the similarity between the interests of elementary-school teachers and those of junior and senior teachers college students, a comparison of elementary and high-school teachers adds little to the previous comparison between the high-

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

school teachers and the students. Indeed, the contents of table 17 may almost be anticipated from the other comparisons. The preferences of the high-school teachers were topics clearly essential to a competent grasp of current events.

TABLE 17.—*Differences in reading interests of women high-school teachers and women elementary teachers*

Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to women elementary teachers
Party politics	Animals
UNITED STATES FOREIGN AFFAIRS*	CHILD TRAINING
Business conditions abroad	PARENTS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH CHILDREN
Labor and the labor market	SUCCESSFUL MARRIAGE
Facts and theories of pure science	
Writers and writing	
The theater	

The list of subjects in which neither group was interested contained several surprises, such as foreign politics, administration of big business, political organizations, and problems of the country. The list of subjects on which neither group read books is still more surprising on account of such entries as: Criticism of government policies, the next war, business conditions abroad, problems of the country, administration of justice, and prohibition enforcement. While highly academic, the topics on which both groups reported book reading were, for the most part, commendable.

Teachers of different subjects.—Though necessarily restricted to high-school teachers, comparisons among the topics preferred by teachers of different subjects suggested not merely the effect of the subject taught upon the teachers' attitudes, but also the relative influence of the various high-school departments in the direction of social criticism.

Table 18 reveals a striking contrast between the reading interests of high-school teachers in general and those of social-science teachers. The teachers of social science were obviously more concerned with the topics of greater social importance. The topics preferred by both groups in common, however, included 6 socially important topics and only 2 topics of least social importance. The topics avoided by both groups included eight topics of negligible importance.

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

TABLE 18.—*Differences in reading interests of women high-school teachers and women high-school teachers of social sciences*

Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers of social sciences
Authors	People of legend and history
Actors and actresses	Statesmen and politicians
Facts and theories of pure science	Military and naval heroes
Characteristics of the American	CRITICISM OF GOVERNMENT
Interesting peoples	POLICIES *
College and higher education	Party politics
Writers and writing	PROBLEMS OF STATE AND CITY
The theater	GOVERNMENTS
	Foreign politics
	THE NEXT WAR *
	PREPAREDNESS
	Facts about mankind
	Developments in aviation
	Organizations—political, social, and fraternal
	Courts and the administration of justice

TABLE 19.—*Differences in reading interests of women high-school teachers of English and women high-school teachers of social science*

Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers of English	Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers of social science
Authors	Captains of industry
Actors and actresses	Successful business men and women
Interesting peoples	Statesmen and politicians
Public morals	CRITICISM OF GOVERNMENT
Attitudes—men versus women	POLICIES *
College and higher education	Party politics
The use and abuse of reading	PROBLEMS OF STATE AND CITY
Writers and writing	GOVERNMENTS
Language and the art of conversation	United States foreign affairs
Music	Foreign politics
The theater	PREPAREDNESS
	Organization and administration of big business
	Foreign trade
	Facts about mankind
	Courts and the administration of justice

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

Like the teachers of social studies, the teachers of English, in table 19, stood close to their guns. They were apparently as fully dedicated to the ideals of literary excellence as the teachers of social studies were devoted to ideals of social justice. To what extent ideals of social justice should be diffused among all public-school teachers is perhaps an open question. It would be easy to argue for a more general diffusion than is found in table 19. The reading interests common to teachers of English and to teachers of social studies are reassuring. Even though certain subjects like criticism of government policies disappeared from the preferred list, all the remaining subjects are important. Similar comparisons between teachers of social studies and teachers of mathematics, commercial courses, and other subjects told the same story. Separate discussion is therefore unnecessary. The women teachers of each high-school department, excepting the teachers of social studies, had a definite pattern of interest which gave no larger place to contemporary social issues than did that of the average citizen.

High-school teachers and women in other vocations.—The final comparisons in this description of the reading interests of women teachers are those of women high-school teachers as a group with housewives (table 20) and with business women (table 21). From the standpoint of the social importance of the topics read, the teachers were at a disadvantage in both comparisons. It is, however, obvious that the teachers' interests were less narrowly vocational than those of the contrasted group, which is undoubtedly in their favor. The preferences peculiar to both the housewives and the business women were either strictly vocational (notwithstanding their greater social importance) or trivial.

TABLE 20.—Differences in reading interests of women high-school teachers and housewives

Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to housewives
Educators and religious leaders	Typical personalities
Party politics	EUGENICS AND BIRTH CONTROL
UNITED STATES FOREIGN AFFAIRS*	CHILD TRAINING
Business conditions abroad	Superstitions and beliefs
Labor and the labor market	Motion pictures
Developments in farming	PARENTS' RELATIONSHIPS WITH CHILDREN
	SUCCESSFUL MARRIAGE
	Household management and food preparation

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of social importance.

TABLE 21.—*Differences in reading interests of women high-school teachers and business women*

Topics more interesting to women high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to business women
Statesmen and politicians	THE NEXT WAR
Actors and actresses	EUGENICS AND BIRTH CONTROL
Educators and religious leaders	Motion pictures
Party politics	SUCCESSFUL MARRIAGE
Labor and the labor market	
Developments in farming	
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION*	
Arts and art crafts	
Writers and writing	

Reading interests common to women high-school teachers and housewives and to high-school teachers and business women naturally approximated the interest patterns of educated women in general. They were therefore chiefly noteworthy in respect to the low ratings of topics relating to business, sports, adventure, and other masculine interests.

READING INTERESTS OF MEN

Men teachers, like the women teachers, have certain dominant reading interests determined by their sex and certain others attributable to their profession. Inasmuch as the reading interests of women teachers have been described in considerable detail, the remaining discussion will omit, wherever possible, previously given generalizations that apply equally to both sexes.

Liberal arts college students and teachers college students.—The chief distinctions apparent in table 22 lie between (a) a predilection for science and, of course, for subjects of vocational importance on the part of the teachers college students, and (b) a preference for subjects relating to social theory, business, and sensational aspects of modern life on the part of the liberal arts college students. Since a large proportion of the teachers college students were preparing to teach science in high school, their interest in scientific subjects (inventions and the like) might have been in part vocational. To about the same extent, a vocational motive explained the interest of the liberal arts college students in subjects relating to business.

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

TABLE 22.—*Differences in reading interests of men students in liberal arts colleges and men students in teachers colleges*

Topics more interesting to men students in liberal arts colleges	Topics more interesting to men students in teachers colleges
Successful business men and women	PREPAREDNESS
Authors	Chemical inventions
UNITED STATES FOREIGN AFFAIRS [*]	Mechanical inventions
Organisation and administration of big business	Electrical inventions
Advertising and publicity	Engineering
Theories about society and social progress	Plant life
Comments on modern America	Animals
Modern styles, manners, and customs	Birds and insects
PROBLEMS OF THE CITY	CHILD TRAINING
Crimes	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
Criminals and the treatment of criminals	Vocational guidance and training
Prohibition violations and enforcement	Developments in aviation

The liberal arts college students seemed to enjoy a somewhat wider horizon, even though the reading interests common to students of both types were predominantly academic and "collegiate." There are perhaps three exceptions to this statement, namely, laws and legislation, citizenship, and international attitudes. In these topics, both groups express a keen interest which apparently has no vocational explanation.

The comparison of the books read by men students in teachers colleges and men students in liberal arts colleges indicates more favorable library facilities in the liberal arts colleges. The 14 topics which liberal arts college students preferred, and on which they did more book reading than teachers college students, were important and were well diversified. The fact that there were no topics on which the teachers college students did more reading than the liberal arts college students points to a serious deficiency in their education as prospective teachers. The topics on which both groups of students did considerable book reading would tend to mitigate this deficiency somewhat, though the many important topics on which neither group read left much to be desired.

Students and teachers in service.—As contrasted with the reading interests peculiar to men high-school teachers, those of men students in teachers colleges were also narrowly restricted, according to the evidence in table 23. The teachers in service were more interested in business, in social theory, and in politics than were the students.

^{*} The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

The topics which were of common interest to both groups had a satisfactory range and degree of social importance. They did not, however, suggest a critical attitude toward prevailing social values. The topics on which both groups read books were likewise somewhat remote from current social issues.

Teachers of different subjects.—The reading interests of men high-school teachers related more closely to the special subjects they taught than did those of women high-school teachers. The only group of men teachers primarily interested in social problems were the teachers of social studies. Table 24 reflects the expected relationship between the topics which are of peculiar interest to the teachers of any two subjects. Their professional interest in social conditions is revealed only when the data on topics of common interest are examined.

TABLE 23.—*Differences in reading interests of men high-school teachers and men teachers-college students*

Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to men teachers-college students
Successful business men and women	
Statesmen and politicians	
Scientists	
PROBLEMS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT ^a	THE NEXT WAR
Prices and costs of living	Business conditions abroad
The successful life	Mechanical inventions
Comments on modern America	Electrical inventions
SOCIAL WELFARE PROBLEMS	Science and warfare
ADULT EDUCATION	PROBLEMS OF THE COUNTRY
	Crimes
	Sports

TABLE 24.—*Differences in reading interests of men high-school teachers of English and men high-school teachers of mathematics*

Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers of English	Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers of mathematics
People of legend and history	Sportsmen
Authors	Chemical inventions
The meaning of culture	Mechanical inventions
The use and abuse of reading	Electrical inventions
Writers and writing	Engineering
Language and the art of conversation	Plant life
The theater	Birds and insects
Hobbies and the use of leisure	Marine life

High-school teachers and college faculties.—When men high-school teachers as a group are compared with a typical group of men instructors in colleges (table 25), the reading interests peculiar to the college teachers show primary concern for fundamental social problems and only a minor concern for topics related to their teaching subjects, if indeed farming and engineering may be so regarded. The

^aThe topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

topics in which the high-school teachers express considerably greater interest also include two vocational subjects, but consist mainly of biographical and business subjects.

The subjects high in interest to both groups, however, constituted a fairly satisfactory list. Certain topics, such as criticism of government policies, were missing; and the list as a whole reflected an academic remoteness from issues considered acute by the man in the street. If the teaching profession would read widely and wisely on the subjects of major interest, as shown in table 26, the effectiveness of teachers would undoubtedly be greatly increased. Unfortunately the evidence showed teachers to be reading magazines and books on only about half of the interesting subjects, with most of their non-professional reading confined to magazines.

TABLE 25.—*Differences in reading interests of men high-school teachers and men on college faculties*

Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers	Topics more interesting to men on college faculties
Captains of industry	CRITICISM OF GOVERNMENT
Successful business men and women	POLICIES
Statesmen and politicians	United States foreign affairs
Sportsmen	Foreign politics
Industrial conditions—prosperity	THE NEXT WAR
Self-improvement	Business conditions abroad
The successful life	Developments in farming
Characteristics of the American	Engineering
Vocational guidance and training	
The use and abuse of reading	
PARENTS' RELATIONSHIPS	
WITH CHILDREN ¹	
Household management and food preparation	

TABLE 26.—*Subjects of common interest to men high-school teachers and men on college faculties*

Topics of most interest to both groups	Topics of least interest to both groups
Scientists	Artists and musicians
PROBLEMS OF THE FEDERAL	Actors and actresses
GOVERNMENT ¹	Royalty and social leaders
Laws and legislation	Military and naval heroes
International attitudes	Marketing—sales methods
PREPAREDNESS	Business ventures
PEACE MOVEMENTS	Personal success in business
Natural resources—development and conservation	Business management
Prices and costs of living	Mining and metal industries
SOCIAL VALUES OF SCIENCE	Trades and manufacturing
Facts and theories of pure science	Personal beauty
	Marine life

¹ The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

TABLE 26.—*Subjects of common interest to men high-school teachers and men on college faculties—Continued*

Topics of most interest to both groups	Topics of least interest to both groups
Prevention and treatment of specific ills	Modern styles, manners, and customs
Personal hygiene	Organisations—political, social, and fraternal
The nature of human nature and intel- ligence	Exploration and discovery
Getting along with other people	Crimes
Modern civilisation	Attitudes—men versus women
Interesting places in the United States	Writers and writing
Courts and the administration of jus- tice	Arts and art crafts
EUGENICS AND BIRTH CON- TROL	Music
CHILD TRAINING	Getting along with relatives
ELEMENTARY AND SECOND- ARY EDUCATION	The home garden
College and higher education	The family car
ADULT EDUCATION	
Religion and the world today	

High-school teachers and men of other professions.—The concluding comparisons of groups concern differences between the subjects appealing to high-school teachers and those of interest to men engaged in other professions. Of the various professional groups, perhaps those of medicine and law will serve to distinguish the reading interests peculiar to men in the teaching profession (Tables 27 and 28).

TABLE 27.—*Differences in reading interests of men high-school teachers and doctors*

Topics more interesting to doctors	Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers
People of legend and history	Statesmen and politicians
THE NEXT WAR ¹	Educators and religious leaders
Insurance	Party politics
Chemical inventions	PROBLEMS OF STATE AND CITY GOVERNMENT
Electrical inventions	PEACE MOVEMENTS
PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICAL PROGRESS	Organization and administration of big business
Animals	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
Interesting places abroad	Vocational guidance and training
Interesting peoples	Religion and the world today
Customs of other lands and other days	Sports
Crimes	
The theater	

¹ The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

TABLE 28.—*Differences in reading interests of men high-school teachers and lawyers*

Topics more interesting to lawyers	Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers
People of legend and history	Captains of industry
Statesmen and politicians	Educators and religious leaders
CRITICISM OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES*	Natural resources—development and conservation
Party politics	SOCIAL VALUES OF SCIENCE
PROBLEMS OF STATE AND CITY GOVERNMENTS	Facts and theories of pure science
UNITED STATES FOREIGN AF- FAIRS	Self-improvement
Foreign politics	The successful life
THE NEXT WAR	Birds and insects
Business conditions abroad	Characteristics of the American
The money market—investments	Interesting places in the United States
Developments in farming	CHILD TRAINING
PROBLEMS OF THE COUNTRY	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
Crimes	Vocational guidance and training
Prohibition violations and enforcement	Hobbies and the use of leisure
COMMENTS ON MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE	PARENTS' RELATIONSHIP WITH CHILDREN
	Household management and food prep- aration

From the standpoint of the jury of experts on current social problems, the teachers clearly occupied a middle position. Compared to doctors, the teachers were more interested in politics, business, religion, and sports, and to subjects of vocational interest. The doctors were more interested in the romantic aspects of life: People of legend and history, the next war, interesting places abroad, interesting peoples, customs of other lands and other days, crimes, and the theater. The other subjects of major interest to doctors might all be explained on professional grounds.

Lawyers, on the other hand, were more interested in politics of a fundamental sort, business, historical characters, and farming, in addition to subjects in which they were interested by virtue of their profession, such as: Crimes, prohibition violations and enforcement, and divorce.

Other professional groups studied in this investigation fell between doctors and lawyers, in that they tended to agree more closely with teachers. Of somewhat unusual interest, however, were the subjects preferred by salesmen who were college graduates, table 30. As contrasted with the subjects preferred by teachers, the reading inter-

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

ests of the salesmen were perhaps as "typically American" as any. That is, the group of college graduates employed as salesmen showed a higher mean correlation with each of the other groups sampled than did any other single group.

Of the 18 topics, 11 referred specifically to business, a ratio which probably represents the interest of the population at large. Of the remaining 7 topics, 3 related to politics in what are, perhaps, its most acute phases: (a) Criticism of Government policies; (b) United States foreign affairs; and (c) the next war. Two related to applied science: (a) Electrical inventions and (b) engineering. The other two were: (a) Interesting peoples and (b) music.

If the writers were asked to present a list of topics best representing the dominant interests of the American people at large, and were not constrained by statistical considerations, this list of topics in which salesmen were more interested than teachers might well be their answer.

TABLE 29.—*Differences in reading interests of men high-school teachers and salesmen*

Topics more interesting to salesmen	Topics more interesting to men high-school teachers
Successful business men and women	Educators and religious leaders
CRITICISM OF GOVERNMENT POLICIES*	Laws and legislation
UNITED STATES FOREIGN AFFAIRS	PEACE MOVEMENTS
THE NEXT WAR	SOCIAL VALUES OF SCIENCE
Business conditions abroad	Science and warfare
Organisation and administration of big business	Facts about mankind
Advertising and publicity	PUBLIC HEALTH AND MEDICAL PROGRESS
Marketing—sales methods	Prevention and treatment of specific ills
Business ethics and business frauds	Plant life
Business ventures	Birds and insects
Personal success in business	Characteristics of the American
Business management	SOCIAL WELFARE PROBLEMS
The money market—investments	Public morals
Electrical inventions	CHILD TRAINING
Engineering	ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
Trades and manufacturing	Vocational guidance and training
Interesting peoples	Religion and the world today
Music	Household management and food preparation

* The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

TABLE 30.—*Subjects of common interest to men high-school teachers and professional men*

Topics of most interest to both groups	Topics of least interest to both groups
Scientists ¹	Artists and musicians
PROBLEMS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT ²	Actors and actresses
International attitudes	Royalty and social leaders
Prices and costs of living	Mining and metal industries
Personal hygiene	Personal beauty
EUGENICS AND BIRTH CONTROL ²	Modern styles, manners, and customs
College and higher education	Attitudes—men versus women
	Writers and writing
	Arts and art crafts
	Getting along with relatives
	The family car

The topics of common interest and those of least interest to teachers and to college graduates engaged in medicine, law, farming, salesmanship, and college teaching, are presented in table 30. Taken by and large it would be hard for Americans to agree on a list of more important topics, appearing in the better nonfiction periodicals, than those on the left or a less important list than those on the right. Of more significance, however, is table 31, which compares the topics on which the most books were read and those on which no books were read by the teachers and the other professional groups combined. Generally speaking, the topics on which books were read were irrelevant to the major social problems. The topics on which no book reading was done were thus more indicative of educational needs. This list (the right-hand column of table 31) includes citizenship, the next war, detection and prevention of crime, courts and the administration of justice, and adult education. The reader should note that on these topics the professional men read no books. It is true that they did read some magazines. It is also highly probable that lawyers failed to report routine professional reading on such topics as crime and the administration of justice. Few lawyers, however, reported reading critical literature on these topics of the sort addressed to the general reader.

The social importance of these topics is such that the more intelligent men of our society should read on them whatever is most authoritative, namely, well-written books. In any case, the education of teachers has apparently failed to develop interest in reading of this sort beyond the point reached by other college graduates of the same sex.

¹ The topics in capitals are those judged to be of much social importance.

² Means that much book reading was done by both groups on the topic.

TABLE 31.—*Similarities in book reading of men high-school teachers and professional men*

Topics on which both groups read much in books	Topics on which neither group read books
People of legend and history	Sportsmen
Statesmen and politicians	Citizenship
Scientists ^a	THE NEXT WAR ^b
Artists and musicians	Insurance
Authors	Developments in the automobile industry
Educators and religious leaders	Personal beauty
Royalty and social leaders	Modern styles, manners, and customs
Foreign politics	Detection and prevention of crime
The money market—investments	Courts and the administration of justice
Chemical inventions	Prohibition violations and enforcement
Facts and theories of pure science	Attitudes—men versus women
The nature of human nature and intelligence	ADULT EDUCATION
Personal qualities analyzed	The use and abuse of reading
Comments on modern America	Motion pictures
Interesting places abroad	Getting along with relatives
Interesting peoples	SUCCESSFUL MARRIAGE
Religion and the world today	The family car
Writers and writing	

CONCLUSIONS

The socially important topics of most interest to all groups considered were: (a) Peace movements; (b) elementary and secondary education (the high rating here might be explained by the large number of teachers represented); (c) the changing status of women; (d) medical progress and public health; and (e) adult education.

The subjects of most concern to public-school teachers indicated a conventional and insufficient awareness of social issues confronting the next generation. Teachers and, more particularly, teachers in training were found to be insufficiently concerned with socially important topics. This is particularly significant because the school population should look to its teachers for leadership.

Prospective teachers had limited access to interesting reading on the subjects they should be most concerned about, such subjects having been selected by the most competent authorities available. Thanks to curriculum requirements, teachers in preparation did more substantial reading on similar topics than did teachers in service. The teachers in service, however, took important social issues more seriously than did the students in teachers colleges.

^a The topics in capitals are those judged to be of social importance.

^b Means that the topic was also high in interest for both groups.

The social attitudes of teachers in service, as reflected by their reading interests, were similar to those of the population at large. They could accordingly be criticized as provincial, conventional, or sensational. As compared with those of a typical American group such as college-trained salesmen, the topics most interesting to teachers were in several instances removed from the problems of most pressing concern to the average citizen. Hence, whatever action can be taken to put students who are preparing to be teachers in the way of exciting reading on such problems should go far toward removing some of the reading deficiencies which characterize many public-school teachers.

PART 6

PART VI. IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS¹

CHAPTER I

AN EVALUATION OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

Professional teacher education in this country is generally considered to be approximately a century old. In fact, it is as old as organized education. Some form of systematic supervision and some plans for teachers' meetings were adopted when schools were first organized.

Supervision, group discussion, lectures, and many other professional activities of teachers conducted or sponsored by staff members of local schools or school systems are as truly contributory to the professional improvement of teachers as those activities and programs provided during the last hundred years by institutional agencies of teacher education. The professional education of teachers dates back to 1839; that is to say, organized, publicly supported preservice programs of teacher education began in the United States at that time. Since then many developments have taken place both in the preservice preparation of teachers and in the in-service education programs.

A common notion of teacher education is that it is largely an institutional matter. This is easily understood. Private normal schools, State and municipal teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and, particularly during the last quarter century, schools and departments of education in both public and private colleges and universities have become so prominent in teacher education that other agencies have been submerged as direct contributors to the professional improvement of teachers. The result has been a well-deserved emphasis on preservice education, but too little attention to in-service education.

In spite of this situation many forms of in-service education have developed. Millions of dollars are spent annually on teachers' meetings. Staff members of local school districts have meetings on the basis of buildings, grades, and departments. General meetings are held for the entire staff and special meetings for the administrative and supervisory staff members. State meetings are held either as all-State, regional, or zone meetings. County, intercity, and specialized group meetings are also held within the borders

¹ This section of the Survey was prepared by Dr. Ned H. Dearborn, director of the Institute of Education, New York University, and principal specialist in in-service training for teachers.

of a given State. National meetings are too numerous to mention. There are few, if any, specialized groups of educators which are not organized on a national scale, and organization usually means meetings.

Local school districts have supervision in varying kinds and amounts. They provide for committee work, visiting days, and leaves of absence for study and travel. They promote informal discussion groups, experimentation, reading circles, exchange of teachers, research projects, and educational clinics. They encourage self-help through reading, contributions to educational literature, membership in professional organizations, and teacher self-rating. They provide library and museum aids, professional bibliographies, circulars and bulletins, and teacher "center" work. Even school surveys, substitute teaching, and teachers' examinations may be utilized to promote the professional advancement of the staff members of a local school system.

More indirectly than by the means named above, but nevertheless positively, teachers can benefit professionally from active participation in civic life and from affiliations with nonprofessional groups. Indeed, social contacts and participation in community life often provide an effective stimulus in vitalizing some phases of the work of the school. The press, the public forum, the cinema, and the radio are other important influences in teacher education.

Each of these agencies and methods plays some part in teacher education. All of them are used to some extent and with more or less effectiveness. It is the purpose of this investigation to ascertain the extent of their use and what teachers think of their values. The investigation relates wholly to in-service education, which is defined broadly as any activity on the part of teachers in service that tends to improve their professional services. The following are summary lists of the agencies engaged in the education of teachers in service and the methods or means used by one or more of the agencies in promoting in-service education of teachers.

Agencies	Means
Recognized institutional agencies:	Teachers meetings
Private normal schools	Supervision
Municipal and State normal schools and teachers colleges	Committee work
Special schools—proprietary and eleemosynary	Visiting days
Public and private colleges of arts and sciences	Leaves of absence
Schools, colleges, and departments of education in private and public universities	Informal discussion
	Experimentation
	Reading circles
	Exchange of teachers
	Research projects
	Educational clinics
	Demonstration teaching

Agencies	Means
State education departments	Contributions to educational literature
Local school systems	Membership in professional groups
Professional organizations for teachers:	Teacher self-rating
Local	Group extension classes
State	Correspondence study
National	Summer schools
	Regular academic-year study
	Late afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes
	Short field trips for study
	Educational exhibits
	Libraries
	Museums
	Bibliographies
	Circulars and bulletins
	School surveys
	Substitute teaching
	Teachers examinations
	Press books, magazines, and newspapers
	Radio
	Cinema
	Participation in civic affairs

As a part of this Survey, several doctoral theses were developed on particular phases of the in-service education of teachers. Dr. Francis J. Brown, assistant professor in the School of Education of New York University, conducted a survey and evaluation of practices entitled "College and University Education for Teachers in Service." Dr. Lalla H. Pickett, formerly a staff member of the Jamaica Teacher-Training College, conducted another survey, entitled "An Analysis of the In-Service Training Programs of 25 Selected Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges." Dr. Mark E. Stine, dean of the faculty of the Millersville (Pa.) State Teachers College, completed a study on "State Certification as a Potential Influence on the Education of Teachers in Service." Dr. Anna M. Fuda, also of Jamaica Training School for Teachers, studied the problem, "Teacher Judgments of In-Service Education." Studies (which were not completed at the time this report was prepared) for which preliminary reports are available, are being conducted by Supt. Charles G. Hetherington, of Penn Yan, N.Y., and Stephen C. Clement, of the State Teachers College at Buffalo. Their topics are, respectively, "The Relation of Promotion Schemes and Group Extension Study" and "The Influence of Total Service Loads on In-service Education."

Two other doctoral theses have made valuable contributions in this Survey: One by Dr. Walter A. Zaugg, dean of the faculty of the State College at Bowling Green, Ohio, entitled "Permanent Certification of Teachers; Its Relation to Improvement of Instruction," and

the other (not completed at the time of this report) by Charles E. Decker, professor of education in the Illinois State Normal University, entitled "A Comparative Study of Correspondence and Campus Courses for Teachers."

An exhaustive bibliography was prepared by Joseph E. Poole, Alfred H. Skogsberg, Alfred F. Mayhew, and Nobel F. Greenhill, graduate students in the New York University School of Education. The bibliography extends to March 1, 1932.

These sources provided the facts and opinions presented in this report. Needless to state, the phases of in-service education open to further study are innumerable. At the conclusion of this report certain problems are proposed with the hope that their statement will lead to later studies. This field of in-service education of teachers is too important to leave as much to chance as has been true in the past. It presents a challenge to develop practicable plans for the improvement of organized education.

A NEW DEPARTURE IN STUDYING THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

The habit of identifying teacher education with established institutional agencies—schools and colleges—presented a problem at the beginning of this investigation. How can these agencies be studied in proper relation to other agencies—State education departments, local school systems, and professional teacher organizations? One way is to approach the problem by studying in-service education from the consumer's viewpoint. This approach results in a healthful overview of the agencies and means. The overview suggests at once that there are agencies other than the institutional ones and a variety of means many of which are not the exclusive prerogative of institutional agencies.

The study made by Fuda, "Teacher judgments of in-service education," provides this approach. It specifically "seeks to ascertain the value which teachers place upon the different kinds of in-service education * * * in terms of the improvement of teaching efficiency." Efforts were made to obtain judgments from a large and representative number of classroom teachers, supervisors, and administrators in cities and communities selected according to population classes on the basis of the 1930 census, and representing every State and the District of Columbia: 228 cities with a population of more than 3,000 and 145 smaller communities, including 69 communities of less than 2,500 population. Data were obtained from 1,588 individuals: 123 superintendents and assistant superintendents; 138 supervisors; 119 high-school principals; 91 junior high school principals; 164 elementary school principals; 284 high-school teachers; 251 junior high school teachers; and 418 elementary school teach-

ers. The administrative and supervisory groups, hereafter referred to as administrative, totaled 635; the teacher groups 953.

The request for cooperation in filling out the inquiry blank, over the signature of William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education and director of the Survey, was sent to 413 superintendents of schools and 20 State rural school directors. They were asked to select superior staff members who were provided with franked envelopes in which they could mail their replies direct to the Office of Education without having them pass through the hands of local administrative officers.

The staff members were asked to observe the following directions:

- (a) Express judgments with complete candor in terms of the value of each item in the improvement of teaching efficiency.
- (b) Express judgments in terms of total experience with each item, not in terms of the latest or a single experience.
- (c) Express judgments in the column at the left of each item in terms of numbers, using the following scale values:
 - 3—if the item has been of great value.
 - 2—if the item has been of average value.
 - 1—if the item has been of little value.
 - 0—if the item has been of no value.
 - 1—if the item is undesirable to the point of being detrimental.
 - X—if you have had no experience with the item. (It will not be surprising to find X's in your reply in connection with many of the items, but put a numeral or an X opposite each item in the column at the left.)
- (d) Teachers who fill out these blanks should evaluate each item in terms of the improvement of their own teaching efficiency.
- (e) Administrators and supervisors who fill out these blanks should evaluate each item in terms of the improvement of the classroom efficiency of the teachers and not in terms of the improvement of their own administrative or supervisory efficiency.

The weighted-value method was used to calculate the composite judgments for each item on the inquiry blank. The values assigned by those replying were multiplied by the frequency of occurrence for a given item, the products were added, and the sum was divided by the sum of the frequencies. Since only five steps were used in expressing judgments, a difference of one-tenth of a point is more significant than would be true if the range of values were greater.

The term "value" as used in this report is, most emphatically, not a true value. There is no measure of true value. The term as here used represents the composite judgments of administrators and teachers. If the means of in-service education used were judged to be more effective the "values" would naturally be higher, and vice versa. These "values" or composite judgments should be useful for the guidance of all agencies of in-service education in formulating their programs, in emphasizing their most worth-while activities, and

in expanding their services. The items judged lowest in this report might conceivably have the highest potential true value if developed and applied properly. Again, it is stated that the study by Fuda merely sets forth composite judgments of administrators and teachers on items of in-service education in terms of past experience.

On the basis of statistical study, it was found that geographical and population group differences were negligible. Differences due to total number of years, teaching experience and to continuity of service in present school system were also inconsequential. Differences in the level of teaching made no appreciable difference in judgments; accordingly, all teacher judgments were combined in one classification and all administrative and supervisory judgments in another. Though the differences between these two groups are also slight, the separate classifications have been retained to show similarities of judgment.

The tables which follow were chosen from Fuda's report to show the composite judgments of administrators and teachers. It will be noted that wherever possible each means of in-service education is analyzed into purposes. Thus, for example, teachers' meetings are judged in terms of 22 different kinds of meetings or varieties of matters considered at such meetings.

TABLE 1.—Distribution of judgments of administrators and supervisors, and judgments of classroom teachers, by number and weighted value, concerning the matters considered at teachers meetings, 1932

Item considered	Administrators and supervisors		Classroom teachers	
	Number of judgments	Weighted value of judgments	Number of judgments	Weighted value of judgments
1	2	3	4	5
(A) General educational objectives.....	580	2.3	885	2.1
(B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program.....	575	2.5	848	2.4
(C) General curriculum patterns.....	451	1.6	644	1.8
(D) Methods of curriculum revision.....	483	1.9	679	1.9
(E) Content of separate units or courses of the school program.....	538	2.2	765	2.1
(F) Methods of teaching related to separate units or courses of the school program.....	516	2.2	763	2.1
(G) Extra curricular or co-curricular activities, such as drama and athletics.....	500	1.9	682	1.8
(H) Coordinate activities, such as medical and dental service.....	433	1.8	555	1.9
(I) Relation of school and home.....	654	2.2	843	2.2
(J) Relation of school and local community.....	534	2.1	817	2.1
(K) General inspirational topics.....	530	2.0	836	2.1
(L) International talks related to fields outside of school work.....	457	1.6	608	2.0
(M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency).....	540	2.4	796	2.2
(N) Modern educational movements.....	550	2.2	800	2.1
(O) Recent educational literature.....	557	2.1	791	2.1
(P) Recent educational research or experimentation.....	498	2.0	762	2.1
(Q) Use of educational measurements.....	527	2.1	765	2.0
(R) Organization and management of the local school system; that is, the structure and plan of administration.....	473	2.0	638	2.0
(S) Buildings, grounds, and equipment.....	478	1.7	631	1.7
(T) Local educational policies; for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program.....	553	2.4	816	2.2
(U) Routine administrative duties of teachers; for example, keeping records and reports.....	555	1.8	848	2.0
(V) Duties of teachers related to classroom management; for example, attention to heating, lighting, ventilation, cleanliness, appearance of room.....	565	2.0	822	2.0

The items discussed at teachers' meetings that were considered, according to composite judgments of administrators, as of most value are: (B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program; (M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency); (T) Local educational policies; for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program; (A) General educational objectives; (E) Content of separate units or courses of the school program; (F) Methods of teaching related to separate units or courses of the school program; (I) Relation of school and home; and (N) Modern educational movements. According to composite judgments of teachers they are: (B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program; (A) General educational objectives; (F) Methods of teaching related to separate units or courses of the school program; (N) Modern educational movements; (E) Content of separate units or courses of the school program; (I) Relation of school and home; (M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency); (O) Recent educational literature; and (T) Local educational policies; for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program. While the order of these items on the basis of weighted values varies, the same items occur in both lists with the exception of item O. Five of the 22 items are rated by both groups as of less than average value but none are rated as of "no value" or "undesirable."

There are many methods of conducting teachers' meetings. Some are more effective than others. Below is a list of different methods which are numbered to correspond with the tabulated data in tables 2, 3, and 4.

Methods of conducting teachers' meetings

1. Scheduled addresses by local staff members.
2. Scheduled addresses by "outside" speakers.
3. Group discussion led by local staff members.
4. Group discussion led by "outside" talent.
5. Scheduled addresses and group discussion by local staff members.
6. Scheduled addresses by "outside" speakers, followed by group discussion.
7. Demonstration teaching with a group of children by local staff members, followed by discussion.
8. Demonstration teaching with a group of children by "outside" talent, followed by discussion.
9. "Clinical" demonstration by local staff members of a process or an activity not involving teaching problems; for example, keeping attendance records, explaining technicalities of radio transmission and reception, making a pudding, constructing a bulletin board.
10. "Clinical" demonstration by "outside" talent of a process or activity not involving a teaching problem (illustrated in no. 9).
11. Exhibits of books, equipment, special materials in instruction or pupils' work, conducted by local staff members.
12. Exhibits of books, equipment, special materials of instruction or pupils' work, conducted by "outside" agencies.

292 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 2.—Distribution of judgments of administrators and supervisors (expressed in terms of percentages) as to the most helpful methods of conducting teachers' meetings, 1932

Matters considered at teachers' meetings	Method ¹												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
(A) General educational objectives	23.8	23.5	20.0	1.9	11.3	7.1	2.7	0.3		0.2	0.4	0.3	
(B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program	17.6	7.3	40.5	4.7	10.2	4.9	4.9	1.0	0.3		1.1	3	
(C) General curriculum patterns	18.0	21.3	34.2	7.7	10.5	11.7	2.2	4		2	2.8	4	
(D) Methods of curriculum revision	18.6	11.7	28.0	16.0	12.3	8.6	2.5	1.1	3		1.9	1.6	
(E) Content of separate units or courses of the school program	12.6	4.6	30.3	5.2	16.7	4.6	6.2	1.2	5		6.7	1.6	
(F) Methods of teaching related to separate units or courses of the school program	3.5	4.6	23.5	2.5	10.5	7.7	22.7	3.2	1.7		4.4	1.6	
(G) Extracurricular or cocurricular activities, such as dramatics and athletics	11.6	3.2	22.6	4.7	11.4	7.4	11.4	3.5	2.9	1.3	2.7	3	
(H) Coordinate activities, such as medical and dental service	18.3	25.4	17.1	6.6	9.4	10.2	2.1	5	2.1	6.4	1.1	5	
(I) Relation of school and home	20.0	21.4	24.2	6.9	11.5	11.5	2	4	5	6	1.6	5	
(J) Relation of school and local community	21.4	20.9	29.3	7.0	12.1	8.5	2		5	4	1.1	1.0	
(K) General inspirational topics	18.7	22.2	10.2	4.9	5.5	8.7	2	3		5	2	5	
(L) Informational talks related to fields outside of school work	11.0	22.1	4.9	5.5	4.2	9.6		1.0	1.2	1.5	5	5	
(M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievements (teaching efficiency)	17.5	12.2	20.0	3.5	14.4	6.6	7.6	2.9	1.5	4	2.3	1.0	
(N) Modern educational movements	20.0	20.0	13.1	4.7	9.5	10.0	2.5	5	2	5	2.0	2.7	
(O) Recent educational literature	17.5	18.5	28.5	2.2	10.5	4.1	1.2	3	2		12.2	6.2	
(P) Recent educational research or experimentation	23.4	20.6	19.4	5.0	12.5	10.2	4.1	6	6	4	2.6	2.1	
(Q) Use of educational measurements	20.1	11.7	20.5	5.1	12.7	8.6	3	1.9	2.5	1.0	1.5	1.0	
(R) Organization and management of the local school system, that is, the structure and plan of administration	43.6	5.6	26.2	2.0	14.5	1.0		5	1.2	1.0	1.0		
(S) Buildings, grounds, and equipment	22.5	5.6	24.4	1.2	11.1	2.2	4.2		1.6		1.0	2.1	
(T) Local educational policies; for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program	22.2	5.1	23.5	2.5	12.0	4.4	1.6	1.6	2.0	4	1.0		
(U) Routine administrative duties of teachers; for example, keeping records and reports	27.4	2.1	26.3	5	10.5	2		5	10.4	1.7	1.4		
(V) Duties of teachers related to classroom management; for example, attention to heating, lighting, ventilation, cleanliness, appearance of room	22.6	5.6	41.5	2.7	10.7	7	5		6.2	7	4		

¹ The numbers in the column headings refer to the methods listed on p. 291.

TABLE 3.—Distribution of judgments of classroom teachers (expressed in terms of percentages) as to the most helpful methods of conducting teachers' meetings, 1932

Matters considered at teachers' meetings	Methods ¹												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
(A) General educational objectives	25.9	26.2	14.2	2.5	7.6	2.4	1.5	0.9		0.2	0.7	0.6	
(B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program	19.4	12.7	21.4	5.5	12.6	7.4	5.1	2.6	0.6	1	1.6	9	
(C) General curriculum patterns	19.6	20.2	22.1	0.5	8.2	11.2	2.5	1.9	0		1.2	1.4	
(D) Methods of curriculum revision	14.5	12.8	21.1	7.8	12.5	12.7	2.0	1.7	5		1.7	9	
(E) Content of separate units or courses of the school program	16.2	7.0	24.7	4.9	15.1	5.9	4.9	2.1	3		5.2	2.3	
(F) Methods of teaching related to separate units or courses of the school program	8.4	7.1	12.7	3.9	10.2	5.2	25.4	11.2	1.1	6	4.9	2.0	
(G) Extracurricular or cocurricular activities, such as dramatics and athletics	17.2	12.8	24.2	2.1	8.5	6.6	11.7	4.7	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.1	
(H) Coordinate activities, such as medical and dental service	20.4	22.2	11.6	3.5	4.5	10.7	2.1	6	7.6	12.2	1.2	2	
(I) Relation of school and home	22.4	22.2	24.5	6.5	8.5	2.9	1.1	1.1	1	5	1.6	4	
(J) Relation of school and local community	24.2	22.7	24.2	6.5	9.4	2.6	4		5	1.1	1.7	4	
(K) General inspirational topics	17.2	20.0	6.0	2.9	2.2	9.2	6	5	1.2	6	6	1.1	
(L) Informational talks related to fields outside of school work	6.6	65.2	2.2	2.6	2.1	6.5	2	17	2.5	2.1	5	7	
(M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency)	21.6	12.2	25.2	4.2	12.2	2.5	7.6	2.5	2	6	2.6	2.5	

¹ The numbers in the column headings refer to the methods listed on p. 291.

TABLE 3.—Distribution of judgments of classroom teachers (expressed in terms of percentages) as to the most helpful methods of conducting teachers' meetings, 1938—Continued

Matters considered at teachers' meetings	Methods											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
(N) Modern educational movements.....	19.1	25.8	10.9	4.5	8.8	10.9	1.2	1.9	0.0	0.5	1.0	2.7
(O) Recent educational literature.....	18.2	18.0	18.9	2.8	7.7	5.0	2.2	2.4	2.2	10.1	16.0	
(P) Recent educational research or experimentation.....	19.9	22.9	14.0	4.7	8.0	11.5	2.0	2.8	1.2	1.0	2.8	5.5
(Q) Use of educational measurements.....	21.0	16.2	24.8	4.7	6.1	7.7	4.1	2.4	1.8	1.5	2.7	2.4
(R) Organization and management of the local school system, that is, the structure and plan of administration.....	43.2	4.1	24.2	2.1	20.8	2.2	2.2	0.1	1.2	2.2	0.0	0.0
(S) Buildings, grounds, and equipment.....	41.0	8.0	25.1	1.8	7.2	2.0	2.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.4	2.4
(T) Local educational policies, for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program.....	22.0	6.5	21.4	6.2	14.0	4.2	7.2	2.8	1.9	1.1	1.9	4.0
(U) Routine administrative duties of teachers, for example, keeping records and reports.....	21.0	6.0	24.2	2.1	8.0	2.2	2.7	2.1	4.1	1.9	1.7	1.1
(V) Duties of teachers related to classroom management; for example, attention to heating, lighting, ventilation, cleanliness, appearance of room.....	35.1	17.5	25.0	3.0	8.2	2.0	2.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	0.0	0.0

TABLE 4.—Comparison of the most helpful methods¹ of conducting teachers' meetings (expressed in terms of percentages) for the materials considered as stated in table 1, 1938

Items considered	As rated by administrators and supervisors		As rated by classroom teachers	
	Method showing highest percent	Method showing lowest percent	Method showing highest percent	Method showing lowest percent
1	2	3	4	5
(A) General educational objectives.....	2	10	2	10
(B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program.....	2	9, 12	3	10
(C) General curriculum patterns.....	3	10	3	9
(D) Methods of curriculum revision.....	3	9	3	10
(E) Content of separate units or courses of the school program.....	3	9, 10	3	9, 10
(F) Methods of teaching related to separate units of courses of the school program.....	7	10	7	10
(G) Extra-curricular or co-curricular activities, such as dramatics and athletics.....	3	12	3	12
(H) Coordinate activities, such as medical and dental service.....	3	8	2	12
(I) Relation of school and home.....	3	7	3	9, 9
(J) Relation of school and local community.....	3	7	1, 3	9
(K) General inspirational topics.....	3	7, 8, 11	2	7
(L) Informational talks related to fields outside of school work.....	2	11, 12	2	7
(M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency).....	3	10	2	10
(N) Modern educational movements.....	3	9	2	10
(O) Recent educational literature.....	3	8, 9	3	7, 9
(P) Recent educational research or experimentation.....	2	10	2	10
(Q) Use of educational measurements.....	3	7	2	10
(R) Organization and management of the local school system; that is, the structure and plan of administration.....	1	8	1	7, 10
(S) Buildings, grounds, and equipment.....	3	4	1	7
(T) Local educational policies; for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program.....	3	11	3	10
(U) Routine administrative duties of teachers; for example, keeping records and reports.....	3	6	1	6
(V) Duties of teachers related to classroom management; for example, attention to heating, lighting, ventilation, cleanliness, appearance of room.....	11	11	1	8

¹ The numbers in the table refer to the methods listed on p. 291.² 2 or more figures indicate that the designated methods have the same percentage of judgments.

It is clear, even from a casual glance at these tables that group discussion by local staff members, scheduled addresses by "outside" speakers, and scheduled addresses by local staff members in the order named are the most popular methods of conducting teachers' meetings as they are now employed.

Administrators and teachers recorded their opinions regarding the purposes that need additional emphasis in teachers' meetings. Table 5 presents their judgments on this matter. Relation of school and home, modern educational movements, and standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency) are among the first five in the opinion of both administrators and teachers.

Among the agencies listed in making teachers' meetings helpful, both administrators and teachers rate local school systems and professional organizations as by far the most helpful (table 6). State education departments are rated a poor third, and educational institutions receive only 1 favorable vote in 10. That is something to ponder. How can normal schools, teachers colleges, colleges, and universities be more helpful in teachers' meetings?

TABLE 5.—Judgments of administrators and supervisors and judgments of classroom teachers as to items which should be included more often in teachers' meetings (according to order of merit)

Item considered	Administrators and supervisors		Classroom teachers	
	Percentage	Rank	Percentage	Rank
1	2	3	4	5
(D) Relation of school and home.....	8.52	1	7.18	4
(B) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program.....	7.92	2	6.07	8
(M) Standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency).....	7.71	3	7.30	3
(N) Modern educational movements.....	7.32	4	9.34	1
(A) General educational objectives.....	7.08	5	4.74	11
(F) Methods of teaching related to separate units or courses of the school program.....	6.62	6	5.69	9
(I) Relation of school and local community.....	6.41	7	5.14	10
(O) Recent educational literature.....	6.03	8	6.09	7
(T) Local educational policies; for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, "activities" program.....	5.50	9	4.69	12
(P) Recent educational research or experimentation.....	5.47	10	6.36	6
(K) General inspirational topics.....	4.80	11	8.10	2
(Q) Use of educational measurements.....	4.02	12	4.09	13
(C) Content of separate units or courses of the school program.....	3.99	13	3.58	14
(L) Informational talks related to fields outside of school work.....	3.66	14	6.18	5
(G) Methods of curriculum revision.....	2.84	15	3.09	15
(J) Extra curricular or co-curricular activities, such as dramatics and athletics.....	2.24	16	2.23	17
(H) Coordinate activities, such as medical and dental service.....	2.10	17	2.25	16
(V) Duties of teachers related to classroom management; for example, attention to heating, lighting, ventilation, cleanliness, appearance of room.....	2.10	18	1.38	19
(O) General curriculum patterns.....	1.96	19	1.98	18
(R) Organization and management of the local school system; that is, the structure and plan of administration.....	1.68	20	1.24	20
(U) Routine administrative duties of teachers; for example, keeping records and reports.....	.98	21	.76	21
(N) Buildings, grounds, and equipment.....	.74	22	.62	22

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of judgments of administrators and supervisors and judgments of classroom teachers as to agencies considered most efficient in making teachers' meetings helpful*

Agency	Administrators and supervisors		Classroom teachers	
	Number of judgments	Percentage of judgments	Number of judgments	Percentage of judgments
1	2	3	4	5
Local school systems.....	473	44.2	508	36.6
Professional organisations.....	309	28.9	522	33.6
State education departments.....	181	16.9	265	17.1
Teachers colleges and normal schools.....	54	5.1	101	6.5
Colleges and universities.....	52	4.9	66	6.2

Visiting days.—Both administrators and teachers are in complete agreement as to the value of visiting days as a means of in-service education. The purposes agreed upon in the order listed below indicate their judgments in this matter. Seven-tenths of a point difference in weighted values is found between the first (2.55) and the last (1.85). This suggests that a display of buildings and equipment falls considerably short of the mark for teachers visiting other schools. The actual work of education and its results are of much greater value.

Special educational projects or activities; e.g., a reading method, student-government plans, pupil classification.

Classroom organisation and management.

Educational exhibits of materials and results achieved by local teachers and pupils.

Special rooms for extra-curricular or cocurricular activities of pupils; e.g., assembly halls, gymnasiums, club rooms.

Equipment.

Committee work.—Studies of total service loads for teachers show that committee work of various kinds is an important matter from the standpoint of time required. The in-service value of this work is rated high by administrators and teachers alike. Table 7 presents the purposes of committee work in order of merit according to the composite judgments of both groups.

TABLE 7.—Purposes of committee work

Items considered	Administrators and supervisors		Classroom teachers	
	Weighted value	Rank	Weighted value	Rank
1	2	3	4	5
(C) Revising courses of study (local or State).....	2.6	1	2.6	1
(A) Selecting textbooks, supplementary books, equipment, teaching materials, etc.....	2.4	2	2.5	2
(B) Analyzing critically courses of study from other school systems.....	2.3	3.5	2.3	4.5
(D) Studying problems of (and suggesting plans for) classification and (or) promotion of pupils.....	2.2	3.5	2.3	4.5
(E) Devising plans for creating and promoting interest and cooperation of pupils in school activities of the extra-curricular or co-curricular type.....	2.1	6.5	2.3	4.5
(G) Devising plans for creating and promoting interest and cooperation of parents in school work.....	2.1	6.5	2.2	7.5
(H) Confering with staff officers on matters of school administration.....	2.1	6.5	2.2	7.5
(I) Discussing with pupils problems of student government or student participation in school management.....	2.1	6.5	2.3	4.5
(F) Devising plans for creating and promoting interest and cooperation of pupils in out-of-school activities to supplement the work of the school program.....	1.9	9	2.1	9

Supervision.—Among all the forms of in-service education supervision is one of the oldest and potentially most valuable. Supervision, like teachers' meetings, is conducted along many different lines and it has suffered from many abuses. Fuda's analysis included 23 activities all based on the premises that supervision is to promote classroom efficiency and that it operates in terms of supervisor-teacher relationships. Table 8 presents the 23 activities and the weighted values for each that express the judgments of administrators and teachers.

The three items to which administrators assign the highest value are (C) Helping analyze and solve personality and adjustment problems of individual pupils; (R) Helping by recognizing and commending good work; and (M) Observing teaching and discussing the work observed. The teachers, however, find the following items most helpful: (W) Helping you to maintain wholesome physical and mental health; (V) Helping to develop a more pleasing teaching personality; and (S) Advising as to helpful academic or professional courses which you might take in order to improve your teaching.

Radio education.—The purposes, rated in this study, for which radio education is considered valuable do not in every case have a direct bearing on teacher education. The field is relatively new and, hence, a report on the kinds of programs available should be studied before conclusions are made regarding the values of the several purposes. With this reservation table 9 will be interesting and useful.

TABLE 8.—Distribution of judgments of administrators and supervisors and of judgments of classroom teachers, as to the value of individual conferences with local supervisors, principal, or head of department, following classroom visits

Item	Administrators and supervisors		Classroom teachers	
	Number of judgments	Weighted value of judgments	Number of judgments	Weighted value of judgments
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
(A) Discussing the physical conditions of the classroom, such as light, heat, and ventilation.....	494	2.0	647	1.8
(B) Talking about disciplinary cases in the class.....	537	2.0	749	2.1
(C) Helping analyze and solve personality and adjustment problems of individual pupils.....	531	2.6	794	2.5
(D) Suggesting devices for saving time and effort in matters of routine.....	517	2.2	669	2.0
(E) Advising and assisting in the collection of collateral materials, visual aids, etc.....	465	2.1	639	2.0
(F) Helping in the selection and in the securing of materials for teaching, such as books, maps and paper.....	530	2.2	706	2.2
(G) Giving or helping to give standardized tests to pupils.....	507	2.1	696	1.9
(H) Taking the class for a whole or part of a period to teach or to test the pupils.....	462	1.9	492	2.0
(I) Advising and assisting in diagnostic and remedial work with pupils.....	511	2.0	640	2.3
(J) Directing in the proper use of textbooks.....	477	2.4	544	2.0
(K) Helping classify and instruct the pupils so as to provide for individual differences among the children.....	515	2.4	632	2.4
(L) Giving specific help in planning and executing units of work.....	494	2.3	606	2.2
(M) Observing teaching and discussing the work observed.....	522	2.6	698	2.5
(N) Discussing the results of a lesson which the supervisor helped to plan.....	396	2.3	332	2.2
(O) Helping to evaluate the outcomes of specific activities.....	454	2.2	538	2.1
(P) Giving suggestions for developing worthwhile pupil activities.....	511	2.3	667	2.3
(Q) Encouraging you in your teaching by giving constructive as well as destructive criticism.....	502	2.0	791	2.6
(R) Helping by recognizing and commending good work.....	517	2.6	799	2.7
(S) Advising as to helpful academic or professional courses which you might take in order to improve your teaching.....	492	2.1	528	2.2
(T) Aiding to understand and to make the necessary adjustment to the school and community.....	487	2.1	510	2.0
(U) Helping to improve your use of good English.....	421	1.8	373	1.8
(V) Helping to develop a more pleasing teaching personality.....	465	2.0	467	2.7
(W) Helping you to maintain wholesome physical and mental health.....	425	2.0	461	2.3

The five items valued highest by administrators, in order of rank, are: (F) Providing pure enjoyment through music programs; (H) Keeping you informed on current topics and problems; (A) Disseminating new viewpoints on matters of general information; (D) Inspiring you through speeches by prominent men and women in the various fields of life activity; and (G) Developing an appreciation for classical music. The same five items, though in different rank, are valued highest by classroom teachers also.

The limitations on this part of the study, just noted, apply to the agencies providing radio education. Table 10 shows the order of agencies as judged by administrators and teachers.

Miscellaneous.—Eighteen other methods of in-service education were included in this study. The judgments of the two groups are presented for each method in table 11.

TABLE 9.—*Purposes for which radio education is considered valuable, on the basis of judgments of administrators and supervisors and classroom teachers*

Item	As rated by administrators and supervisors		As rated by classroom teachers	
	Weighted value	Rank	Weighted value	Rank
1	2	3	4	5
(F) Providing pure enjoyment through music programs.....	2.5	1	2.7	1
(H) Keeping you informed on current topics and problems.....	2.3	2	2.6	2
(A) Disseminating new viewpoints on matters of general information.....	2.2	4	2.3	4
(D) Inspiring you through speeches by prominent men and women in the various fields of life activity.....	2.2	4	2.2	5
(G) Developing an appreciation for classical music.....	2.2	4	2.4	3
(B) Disseminating new viewpoints regarding particular phases of educational theory.....	1.7	6	1.8	7
(I) Guiding you in a better understanding of the mental and physical health of the child.....	1.6	7	1.7	8
(O) Acquainting you with new methods of teaching.....	1.5	9	1.6	9.5
(E) Promoting voluntary research and study.....	1.5	9	1.6	9.5
(J) Supplementing your classroom instruction through the work of a "radio" teacher.....	1.5	9	1.9	6

TABLE 10.—*Agencies most effective in providing radio education, on the basis of judgments of administrators and supervisors and judgments of classroom teachers*

Agency	As rated by administrators and supervisors		As rated by classroom teachers	
	Percentage of judgments	Rank	Percentage of judgments	Rank
1	2	3	4	5
Private broadcasting companies.....	36.03	1	42.16	1
Private "schools of the air".....	20.90	2	16.94	3
Colleges and universities.....	17.03	3	12.14	2
Local school systems.....	12.40	4	8.47	6
State education departments.....	7.77	5	8.99	4
Teachers colleges and normal schools.....	5.70	6	4.50	6

TABLE 11.—*Distribution of judgments on additional factors related to the in-service education of teachers*

Item	Administrators and supervisors		Classroom teachers	
	Number of judgments	Weighted value of judgments	Number of judgments	Weighted value of judgments
1	2	3	4	5
(A) Leave of absence for:				
1. Study.....	270	2.7	238	2.6
2. Travel.....	225	2.1	201	2.3
3. Study and travel.....	225	2.9	190	2.7
(B) Research projects:				
1. When you are a participant.....	385	2.7	481	2.6
2. When you are not a participant.....	326	1.4	397	1.6
(C) Experimentation:				
1. In classroom organization and control:				
(a) With new methods suggested by others.....	438	2.1	785	2.3
(b) With new methods which you have devised.....	447	2.4	777	2.6
2. In methods of teaching:				
(a) Suggested by others.....	469	2.2	784	2.4
(b) Devised by yourself.....	456	2.4	789	2.5
(D) Help secured from educational clinics:				
1. In diagnosing cases of maladjustment.....	289	2.2	265	2.1
2. In remedying such cases.....	270	2.0	274	2.0
(E) Museums:				
1. Visits to.....	337	2.2	495	2.4
2. Materials from.....	273	2.0	302	2.3
(F) Libraries:				
1. Visits to.....	419	2.2	667	2.5
2. Materials from.....	457	2.5	749	2.7
(G) Self-help through reading:				
1. Current professional periodicals.....	525	2.6	833	2.5
2. Current literary or nonprofessional periodicals.....	513	2.0	819	2.3
3. Professional books, monographs, etc.....	515	2.7	806	2.5
4. Nonprofessional books, monographs, etc.....	456	1.7	756	2.0
(H) Your contributions (books or magazine articles) to educational literature.....	190	1.8	174	1.8
(I) Reading circles.....	168	1.8	255	2.0
(J) Selected bibliographies of professional books and periodicals sent by a supervisory officer.....	301	1.8	442	2.1
(K) Membership in teachers' organizations:				
1. National.....	448	2.1	605	2.1
2. State.....	498	2.2	786	2.2
3. Local.....	478	2.2	730	2.3
(L) Exchange of teachers among:				
1. Classrooms in the same building.....	227	1.7	223	1.8
2. Buildings in the same school system.....	184	1.8	157	1.8
3. School systems.....	131	1.6	133	1.9
(M) Circulars and bulletins from local supervisory officers:				
1. To convey ideas and instructions concerning specific teaching problems.....	444	2.2	657	2.3
2. To convey ideas and instructions concerning classroom organizations and management.....	430	2.0	623	2.1
3. To give help regarding programs for special occasions.....	431	2.0	630	2.1
4. To send announcements regarding administrative regulations.....	467	2.3	739	2.4
5. To send summaries of local research or experimentation.....	419	2.2	571	2.2
(N) School survey work:				
1. In which you participated.....	295	2.4	493	2.0
2. In which you did not participate.....	273	1.5	252	2.4
(O) Apprentice or probationary teaching in centers staffed by superior or master teachers prior to your regular appointment in that school system of which the "centers" are a part.....	81	2.4	133	2.5
(P) Substitute teaching as preparation for regular appointment, under the direct supervision of principal or supervisor.....	197	2.3	293	2.3
(Q) School publicity when it brings to your attention information about:				
1. Your school or school system.....	445	2.2	712	2.3
2. Other schools or school systems.....	445	1.9	695	2.1
(R) Teachers' self-examination outlines or self-rating plans.....	309	1.8	492	2.1

CHAPTER II

STATE CERTIFICATION

RELATION OF CERTIFICATION TO IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

The study made by Dr. Mark E. Stine was sponsored by the survey for the purpose of determining the relationships of State teacher certification and the education of teachers in service. It is not surprising that he finds, as every other student of this field has found, that practice varies widely in the 48 States. Dr. Stine restricted his study to renewable and exchangeable certificates since they obviously affect the in-service education of teachers. He defines them as follows:

Renewable certificates are those whose validity may be renewed for an additional definite period of time. They may be renewed one or more times.

Exchangeable certificates are those that may be exchanged for an advanced grade of certificate in the same field or class.

He states further:

State laws, rules, and regulations concerning certification make no direct reference to in-service education. The mere statement that a certificate may be renewed or exchanged on the basis of professional study is not sufficient evidence of required in-service education.

In-service education occurs only after the holder of the certificate has taught. In-service education is limited to professional study for the improvement of teaching in the field for which the certificate is valid. Education for another type of certificate in a field of school service new to the holder of a certificate is actually preservice education for that position. Hence in reading the teacher certification laws, rules, and regulations of the various States the requirement of experience as well as that of additional training was basic to the classification of certificates in their relation to in-service education. Whether the experience preceded additional training or vice versa, or whether experience and additional training are coextensive, are immaterial to the definition and classification of terms used in this study. The key to the interpretation of the laws, rules, and regulations is experience plus additional training.

In the original report, Stine listed by States the names of every renewable and exchangeable certificate issued, the basis of issuance, scope of validity and requirements for renewal or exchange. A numerical summary of this part of his study is found in table 12.

TABLE 4—Summary of renewable and exchangeable certificates

State	Number of kinds of renewable certificates			Number of kinds of exchangeable certificates		
	Requiring in-service education for renewal	Not requiring in-service education for renewal	May or may not require in-service education for renewal	Requiring in-service education for exchange	Not requiring in-service education for exchange	May or may not require in-service education for exchange
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alabama.....	0	23		0	15	
Arizona.....	5	0		1	0	
Arkansas.....	3	6		4	3	
California.....	2	22		0	11	
Colorado.....	2	5		3	3	
Connecticut.....	2	4		3	6	
Delaware.....	11	0		4	1	
Florida.....	0	8		0	7	
Georgia.....	0	2		3	0	
Idaho.....	1	4		0	3	3
Illinois.....	5	0		5	0	
Indiana.....	12	0		24	0	
Iowa.....	5	7		2	5	1
Kansas.....	2	1		1	1	
Kentucky.....	0	8		1	3	
Louisiana.....	1	2		0	5	
Maine.....	4	2		12	2	
Maryland.....	10	5		6	0	
Massachusetts.....	0	2		0	0	
Michigan.....	3	0		1	2	
Minnesota.....	1	5		3	1	1
Mississippi.....	0	3		0	0	
Missouri.....	3	5		3	5	
Montana.....	2	1		3	0	
Nebraska.....	4	3		6	1	
Nevada.....	0	5		0	3	
New Hampshire.....	0	0		1	16	
New Jersey.....	3	5		9	6	
New Mexico.....	2	6		0	4	
New York.....	1	2		7	7	
North Carolina.....	4	2		6	4	3
North Dakota.....	1	3		1	0	
Ohio.....	1	5	1	3	1	
Oklahoma.....	2	3		1	6	
Oregon.....	0	2		0	4	
Pennsylvania.....	4	2		2	2	
Rhode Island.....	1	12		7	1	
South Carolina.....	3	0		1	3	
South Dakota.....	0	4	2	1	2	
Tennessee.....	3	3		0	2	
Texas.....	0	1		0	5	
Utah.....	2	4		3	1	1
Vermont.....	2	0		2	1	
Virginia.....	4	0		1	1	
Washington.....	0	0		4	2	
West Virginia.....	6	0		4	5	
Wisconsin.....	2	1		1	2	
Wyoming.....	0	5		5	1	
Total.....	120	153	3	145	151	9

	Renewable	Exchangeable
Total number of kinds.....	305	304
Total number requiring in-service education.....	120	145
Percentage requiring in-service education.....	39.3	47.7

302 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

As shown in the table summary, 39.2 percent of the total number of kinds of renewable certificates require in-service education for renewal, 47.7 percent of the total number of kinds of exchangeable certificates require in-service education for exchange.

The following summary of information is essential to a general overview of State practices:

Kind of certificate:

Renewable:

	Number
Issued on examination.....	52
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	17
Issued on less than 1 year of preservice education.....	27
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	14
Issued on 1 year of preservice education.....	33
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	17
Issued on 2 years of preservice education.....	70
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	28
Issued on 3 years of preservice education.....	23
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	9
Issued on 4 years of preservice education.....	79
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	28
Elementary certificates.....	114
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	47
Secondary certificates.....	36
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	14
Supervisory certificates.....	34
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	18
Special certificates.....	68
Requiring in-service education for renewal.....	19

Life or permanent:

Issued.....	152
Requiring in-service education for issuance.....	83

Exchangeable:

Issued on examination.....	35
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	14
Issued on less than 1 year of preservice education.....	18
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	11
Issued on 1 year of preservice education.....	34
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	17
Issued on 2 years of preservice education.....	82
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	41
Issued on 3 years of preservice education.....	28
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	6
Issued on 4 years of preservice education.....	88
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	43
Elementary certificates.....	107
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	47
Secondary certificates.....	57
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	25

Kind of certificate—Continued.

Exchangeable—Continued.

	Number
Supervisory certificates.....	29
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	18
Special certificates.....	48
Requiring in-service education for exchange.....	25

The following statements are quoted from the concluding chapter of Stine's report:

Certification regulations are formulated for the purpose of guaranteeing to the child a professionally prepared teacher, and to protect the State against the employment of incompetent teachers.

The emphasis upon the professionalization of teaching is a commendable feature of the certification regulations of the several States. In some States, however, high-school graduates, by passing an examination based purely upon the traditional content subjects, are given permits to teach. Frequently, the applicants are not examined on their knowledge of professional subjects.

Higher certification standards will do much to place the teaching profession above the level of the laity. Members of the legal and medical professions are licensed because they possess a body of technical knowledge with which their clients are unfamiliar. When teachers are required to submit evidence of professional preparation before being certified, the profession will become differentiated from those vocations requiring little or no training.

A study of the certification regulations in force during the past decade reveals a growing tendency to abandon local certifying agencies and place full responsibility for certification upon the several State departments of education. In many States, teacher certification fails to apply specifically to all forms of the teaching service. For each field of service there should be a specific type of preparation.

Teaching methods and techniques are constantly changing, and teachers must keep abreast of the times. Institutionalized preparation is not sufficient. College graduates should be required to continue their education during a period of service, and a means of study and additional professional growth should be provided. Hence, numerous agencies have arisen to further their development and efficiency. Even though the day of the unprepared teacher appears to be passing, school administrators will be faced with the problem of in-service education. No effort must be spared to make the beginning teacher a master teacher.

The in-service education of teachers has many local aspects but there is much that can be done by the State. In addition to adequate facilities in the teacher-training institutions and the adoption of salary schedules which will warrant additional preparation by teachers, a sound certification law can accomplish much in the way of stimulating in-service education. The study reveals that only 39 percent of the kinds of renewable certificates issued require in-service education for renewal. The need of rigid renewal requirements for those teachers desiring to remain in the teaching profession is at once apparent. In nine States—Arizona, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, and West Virginia—all renewable certificates are renewed on the basis of in-service education. In the following States renewable certificates may be renewed without any in-service education: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Nevada, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, and Wyoming. Forty-seven and seven-tenths percent of the kinds of exchangeable certificates require in-service education for exchange. If the value of in-service education is admitted in the matter of renewal requirements, the importance of in-service education as a requirement for exchanging a low-grade certificate to one of higher grade in the same field cannot be minimized.

In the following States all exchangeable certificates are exchanged on the basis of in-service education: Arizona, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Montana, and North Dakota. In the following States no in-service education is required for the exchange of certificates: Alabama, California, Florida, Idaho, Louisiana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Tennessee, and Texas * * *.

Life certificates are issued in all States with the exception of Arizona, Delaware, Maryland, Massachusetts, and Virginia. Life certificates which are granted on the basis of experience alone lack meaning, and are not an indication of superior teaching skill. The practice of granting permanent certification is being questioned by educational experts. The permanent certificate, unless based upon a long probationary period and additional professional training, may become a means of bringing about an undesirable state of professional complacency on the part of the teacher. The study shows that only 54.6 percent of the various kinds of life certificates are issued on the basis of in-service education * * *.

Life certificates in Alabama, California, Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Louisiana, Michigan, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Wisconsin, are issued without in-service educational requirements in addition to the basic certificate requirements. In 14 States—Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Utah, Vermont, Washington, and West Virginia—all life certificates are issued on the basis of additional in-service education * * *.

A study of the renewal and exchange requirements for certificates issued upon varying amounts of preservice preparation brings to light some interesting facts. Certificates granted on credentials are usually based on (1) graduation from 4-year courses in either arts or teachers colleges, (2) graduation from 2- or 3-year normal schools, (3) credentials earned by summer-school attendance, extension, or correspondence courses.

The investigator makes no attempt to evaluate certificates on the basis of the amount of preservice preparation involved. It is only fair to assume that in general those certificates which require the greatest amount of preservice preparation for issuance are a better guarantee of success in the teaching profession. High scholastic requirements tend to bar the unfit. Low scholastic standards make entrance to the profession easy. In order to safeguard the interests of the child and the State, certificates issued on low preservice scholastic standards should have high renewal and exchange requirements. In other words, the deficiency in preservice preparation must be offset by increase in-service education.

The investigation reveals that there is no great variation in the percentage of certificates issued on varying amount of preservice preparation requiring in-service education for renewal.

In the exchange of certificates issued on varying amounts of preservice preparation a marked difference is noted. Sixty-one and one-tenth percent of the kinds of exchangeable certificates issued on less than one year of preservice preparation require in-service education for their exchange, while only 21.4 percent of the kinds of exchangeable certificates issued on 3 years of preservice preparation require in-service education for exchange. There is no justification for the low exchange requirements for certificates issued on 3 years of preservice preparation. Again, only 48.9 percent of the kinds of exchangeable certificates issued on 4 years of preservice preparation require in-service education for exchange.

The practice of differentiating among certificates is established in nearly all States. In some States, certificates for special fields of service include a wide variety of subjects, as in Connecticut, New Jersey, California, and Wyoming. In others the amount of differentiation is more limited as in Arizona and Pennsylvania.

The percentage of elementary, secondary, supervisory, and special certificates requiring in-service education for renewal varies in a marked manner. Forty-one and two-tenths percent of renewable elementary, 38.9 percent of renewable secondary, 52.9 percent of renewable supervisory, and 27.9 percent of renewable special certificates are renewed on the basis of in-service education. Forty-three and nine-tenths percent of exchangeable elementary certificates, 43.9 percent of exchangeable secondary certificates, 62.1 percent of exchangeable supervisory, and 52 percent of special certificates are exchanged on the basis of in-service education. In the matter of exchanges the in-service education standards appear to be fairly uniform. A much smaller percentage of secondary and special certificates require in-service education for renewal than is the case in the supervisory and elementary field * * *.

PERMANENT CERTIFICATION OF TEACHER

In an investigation made in 1931, Dr. Walter A. Zaugg studied the relationship of permanent certification to the improvement of instruction. He pointed out the question of placing greater emphasis in the future on in-service education than at present because of the trend toward an increasingly longer period of service for the individual teacher. The forces bringing about this change are: (1) The growth of tenure laws, (2) the development of retirement systems, (3) longer periods of preservice education, (4) increase in salaries, (5) increased social prestige of teachers, (6) encouragement given to married women to remain in teaching, and (7) a growing body of influential professional ethics.

Dr. Zaugg summarized his findings as follows:

1. Certifying agencies and basis for granting certificates:
 - (a) There is a decided tendency toward the centralization of the certifying power of the State in the State department of education.
 - (b) In 10 States, training institutions grant life diplomas.
 - (c) County life certificates are possible to teachers in 6 States.
 - (d) The most outstanding tendency in all States is the universal acceptance of standard training credentials as a basis for permanent certification.
 - (e) In 43 States, permanent certificates may be obtained by approved training credentials. This always implies post-high-school training.
 - (f) In 18 States, certificates leading to permanency may be secured, wholly or in part, by examination.
 - (g) The method of securing permanent certification wholly by examination will automatically eliminate itself.
 - (h) In the District of Columbia, certificates are issued only on examination.
2. Duration, lapsing, and restoration of certificates:
 - (a) There is no tendency toward permanent certification or away from it.
 - (b) Forty-three States and the District of Columbia have some form of permanent certification of teachers.
 - (c) Nine States invalidate permanent certificates through "disuse"; one through "incompetency", and one through "nonattendance at summer school."

2. Duration, lapsing, and restoration of certificates—Continued.
 - (d) Five States place a maximum time limit on all certificates. In the District of Columbia, the certificate expires when tenure in the District culminates. North Carolina grants the superintendent's and supervisor's permanent certificate only.
 - (e) In all, 17 States do not, in some way or other, recognise unlimited, unrestricted permanent certification.
3. Classes or differentiation of certificates:
 - (a) There is a decided tendency to certify teachers for specific fields of service, for which definite professional training is a prerequisite.
 - (b) Among the unique phases of differentiation of educational service, the following are significant: California certifies for educational research; California and Minnesota have added the junior college teacher certificate; Connecticut requires that normal-school faculties be certified; and Rhode Island extends this control to all State college teachers.
4. Probationary experience required for permanent certificates:
 - (a) Twenty-five States require successful teaching experience as the only probationary factor for securing the permanent certificate.
 - (b) In the States that require probationary teaching prior to receiving permanent certificates, the amount varies from 9 months to 15 years.
 - (c) From 2 to 5 years is the time range required by 30 States for probationary service.
 - (d) In 10 States, it is possible to receive a permanent certificate without probationary training experience.
5. Provision for professional growth in plan of certification:
 - (a) Thirty-one States exercise no control over the professional life of teachers after the permanent certificate is granted.
 - (b) Fourteen States require that extra professional training be taken during the probationary period for some forms of permanent certificates.
 - (c) Pennsylvania uses a system of teacher rating during the period of probationary teaching.
 - (d) Rhode Island presents the one extreme of definitely prescribed professional growth during a 5-year probationary period; whereas Georgia's 70 months, South Dakota's 72 months, with no professional requirements, and West Virginia's 15 years, with one summer-school session or the reading of two professional books, present the other extremes.
 - (e) Six States attempt to control the entire service life of the teacher through a system of certificate renewals based on definite types of professional growth.
6. Miscellaneous factors influencing the granting of permanent certification:
 - (a) Only two States, Tennessee and Utah, require a different minimum age limit for a permanent certificate than for the original. The District of Columbia places a maximum age limit.
 - (b) Two States demand certification for teachers employed in other than public schools.
 - (c) Thirty-seven States use the name "certificate"; 2 use "license" and 4 designate the permanent credential by the name "life diploma"; 1 State uses "diploma" for State, and "certificate" for county permanent. Six States also use "diploma" with "license" and "certificate."

His conclusions have a direct bearing on the education of teachers in service. They are quoted below:

The certification laws and departmental regulations of the several States of the United States present a variation of conditions and trends from which general conclusions are drawn. These are stated with the definite concern for the relationship of the permanent certification of teachers to improvement of instruction. The factors influencing this problem most intimately are:

1. Certification has developed from local, nonprofessional control to that of State control based upon standardized training.
2. All States issuing permanent certificates grant such to those presenting approved training credentials. In 18 States permanent certificates may also be obtained wholly or in part by examination.
3. Permanent certificates are granted without probationary experience in 10 States; with probationary experience but without additional training in 25 States; with the limitation factors of nonuse and professional neglect in 11 States. Permanent certificates in some form or other may be issued in 43 States. The problem of interstate recognition is rapidly meeting solution through professional certification on the basis of standard training.
4. In 10 States permanent certification, with State-wide validity, and in some cases with conflicting variations, are issued by more than one agency.
5. With the certificate in continuous use, 40 States show no concern for the professional growth of teachers after the issuance of the permanent certificate.
6. The State has attempted to control the age, subjects to be taught, academic and professional preparation, character, personal habits, social conduct, citizenship, and retirement age of teachers.
7. Various factors indicate that the professional life of the teacher will be extended and also that the present social age is stressing rapid changes and correspondingly rapid adaptations. To meet such conditions, the tendency of educational theory and practice is to provide for professional growth of teachers in service.
8. Fourteen States are requiring a short probationary training period for professional growth, prior to the issuance of permanent certificates.
9. Seven States¹ are exercising periodic check-ups of the professional growth and successful experience of teachers, throughout their entire tenure.
10. Permanent certification of teachers, unrestricted as to in-service professional growth, is incompatible with present-day educational philosophy and practice.

¹ Vermont issues permanent certificates but requires school attendance every 6 years for sustaining the certificates.

CHAPTER III

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

ANALYSIS OF PROGRAMS; COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS IN SERVICE

The purposes of the studies undertaken by Dr. Lalla H. Pickett (an analysis of the in-service training programs) and by Dr. Francis J. Brown (college and university education for teachers in service) were: (1) To analyze the in-service education of teachers now being given in representative sections of the United States through a survey of this kind of training as now offered by selected normal schools, teachers colleges, colleges, and universities; (2) to present outstanding features in the programs offered; (3) to present the evaluation of the in-service education offered by colleges and professional schools from the point of view of 1,010 consumers of in-service education; and (4) to indicate current institutional tendencies in in-service education. The terms used in these studies are defined as follows:

IN-SERVICE ACTIVITIES of the institutions include all services designed for the improvement of teachers in service except residence and summer study.

EXTENSION includes all types of organized courses available to teachers in service. Among the major types of services are the following:

INTRAMURAL COURSES, those given on the campus usually meeting in the late afternoon, evening, or Saturday.

EXTRAMURAL COURSES, those given off the campus but definitely organized and meeting in regular class session.

FIELD COURSES, those in which the work is conducted largely by occasional conference, but with the major portion of the work carried on by the student in the field.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES, those in which the work is conducted wholly or largely by mail through individual assignment sheets.

RADIO COURSES, those in which definitely organized instruction is conducted wholly or largely by radio, with students registered for such courses.

FOLLOW-UP WORK is any means employed, other than extension courses, of aiding teachers in their professional adjustment.

FIELD WORKERS are members of the faculty of the institution who are specifically employed for follow-up of graduates who are actually engaged in teaching.

The data were gathered from a combined check list and inventory, reference reading, and catalogs. The check-list inventory was sent to 25 State teachers colleges and 56 colleges and universities selected by the Survey³ as representative of better practices in the education of teachers. Another source of data was the expression of judgment by 1,010 administrators and teachers regarding the services of these institutions in relation to in-service education.

Follow-up work for graduates.—An analysis of the activities of these representative institutions in visiting graduates who are teachers in the field was made and the results are given in table 13.

The differences in these weighted values can be explained only by speculation. They are important, however, in providing a starting point for analysis for institutions seeking ways to improve the work of visiting their graduates who are teaching.

Follow-up through personal correspondence.—Institutions (reported in both studies) consider correspondence follow-up important. It falls into three forms: (1) Answering questions raised by teachers in service; (2) calling attention to services available and offering cooperation; and (3) asking for reports of progress of teachers who are alumni.

Lecture service.—Nine of the normal schools and teachers colleges reported single lectures given by staff members in the field for the year 1930-31 ranging from 15 to 400, or an average of 78 per institution; 15 colleges and universities, 25 to 29. Four of the normal school and teachers college group reported series of lectures ranging from 2 to 10; 9 colleges and universities reported from 2 to 125. Six normal schools and teachers colleges reported lectures in teachers' institutes ranging from 1 to 61; colleges and universities did not report comparable data, although it is clear they were also active in this work.

TABLE 13.—Visiting of teachers in the field

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Teaching the class or classes as a demonstration.....	2.2	2.7
2. Confering with teacher following observation of her work to—		
(a) Point out weaknesses in her teaching.....	2.6	1.9
(b) Point out commendable elements in her teaching.....	2.7	2.2
(c) Offer constructive suggestions for improvement.....	3.0	2.7
(d) Offer encouragement of a rather general character.....	1.9	1.7
(e) Discuss problems raised by teacher.....	2.6	2.8
3. Helping teacher plan her work by going over her lesson plans.....	2.1	2.2
4. Lending materials which will be a help to the teacher.....	2.0	2.4
5. Assisting or directing experimental work conducted by the teacher.....	2.2	2.7
6. Giving adverse criticisms of local principals and supervisors.....	-.04	0
7. Assisting in selection of textbook reference reading and other materials for use in classroom.....	1.6	1.8
8. Helping in selection of books for school library.....	1.9	2.2
9. Recommending books for school or individual professional library.....	2.2	2.1
10. Sustaining institutional loyalty.....	2.3	1.4
11. Assisting in selection of tests and classification of pupils.....	2.0	2.1
12. Holding group conferences with teachers.....	2.3	2.3
13. Conducting teachers' meetings.....	2.0	2.0
14. Discussing new developments of their alma mater.....	2.1	1.8

TABLE 13.—*Visiting of teachers in the field*—Continued

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
15. Conferring with principal or superintendent—		
(a) Regarding teachers visited in his school.....	2.6	2.4
(b) Regarding weaknesses of pre-service or in-service program of your own institution.....	2.8	2.2
(c) Regarding former procedures of the institution that are now used in his school.....	1.9	1.5
(d) Professional problems of the school.....	2.7	2.6
16. Planning alumni social meetings.....	1.8	2.1
17. Urging change of position to another school position.....	1.0	1.3
18. Checking up on value of visitation through—		
(a) Progress report from teacher.....	2.4	2.7
(b) Report of principal or superintendent.....	2.7	2.8
(c) Later visitation.....	2.4	2.8

Library service.—On the whole, colleges and universities place higher values on various types of their library service than normal schools and teachers colleges do. Table 14 presents the activities under this heading and the weighted values ascribed to each.

An excellent example of free library service to teachers is found in Indiana University. Table 15 gives data on the services rendered.

Museum service.—A small number of institutions educating teachers provide museum service. It consists of (1) lending visual aid material, (2) recommending excursions, (3) conducting excursions, and (4) other services, such as arranging and classifying materials.

Closely allied with this service is that of providing sound motion picture films. One university reports available sound picture films prepared by staff members, and three report the distribution of such films prepared by other agencies.

Radio service (other than courses by radio).—Table 16 shows 5 activities in radio service and the weighted value given by each of the 2 groups of institutions. The colleges and universities rate this service higher than do the normal schools and teachers colleges.

TABLE 14.—*Weighted values of library service activities*

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Lending books to school libraries.....	1.9	2.5
2. Lending books to individual teachers.....	2.0	2.3
3. Recommending outstanding or new books.....	2.2	2.3
4. Sending out professional reading lists.....	2.0	2.7
5. Preparing bibliographies on topics submitted by children or teachers.....	2.2	2.4
6. Directing reading-circle groups among the teachers.....	1.7	1.9
7. Managing circulating school libraries.....	1.1	2.0
8. Providing a school library van with regular trips to schools.....	1.5	1.8
9. Preparation of briefs or mimeographed materials on topics for school debates and for special programs.....	1.8	1.0

TABLE 15.—*Bureau services provided by Indiana University, 1929-31*

Service	1929-30	1930-31
Package library loans.....	5,903	5,777
Plays lent for inspection.....	3,513	3,370
Club-study package loans.....	413	450
Special information.....	187	215
Schools enrolled in discussion league.....	180	101
Schools in Latin contest.....	440	392
Pupils in Latin finals.....	65	54
Boys enrolled in mathematics contest.....		222
Students enrolled in music contest.....	65	97
Approximate total persons served.....	50,000	47,800

TABLE 16.—*Radio service (other than courses by radio)*

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Isolated lectures.....	1.0	2.1
2. Series of lectures.....	1.3	2.3
3. Questions and answers program on problems of teaching.....	1.6	1.5
4. Demonstration lessons.....	1.6	2.3
5. Others—music program.....	.2	

Services of research bureaus.—Both groups of institutions rate the services of research bureaus very high. Table 17 shows the four activities and the weighted values ascribed to each.

Placement bureau services.—Twenty normal schools and teachers colleges and a like number of colleges and universities rate the various activities of placement service as unusually valuable. Catalogs and bulletins also emphasize the importance of this service. Table 18 presents the questionnaire results on this point.

Individual conferences at the home institution.—The service rendered in individual conferences at the institution is rated high by both groups of institutions. Table 19 presents the results of this part of the study.

Group conferences at home institution.—The service of group conferences compares favorably with the individual conference plan in the judgment of representatives of the two groups of institutions, as shown in table 20.

Provisions made for work of instructors on field work.—The work of faculty members absent from the campus for follow-up work is provided for in the following ways: (1) Divided among other faculty members; (2) in charge of student assistants; (3) in charge of a student member of class; (4) students sent to observe in training school; (5) students are sent to do work in library; (6) written work assigned students to hand in; (7) instructor makes up work on return.

312 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 17.—*Services of research bureaus*

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Conducting surveys of local schools.....	2.6	2.5
2. Working out programs for improvement of instruction.....	2.9	2.5
3. Cooperating in educational experiments.....	2.2	2.6
4. Preparing abstracts of recent investigations for local schools.....	2.2	2.0

TABLE 18.—*Follow-up service rendered by placement bureaus*

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Placing recent graduates.....	2.9	2.7
2. Assisting teachers to procure other positions.....	2.6	2.6
3. Confering with public-school administrators as to—		
(a) Their needs.....	2.6	2.7
(b) Types of training desired in prospective candidates.....	2.7	2.6
(c) Suggestions for improvement of in-service education program conducted by your institution.....	2.7	2.8
4. Keeping in touch with graduates to determine—		
(a) The degree of their success.....	2.7	2.8
(b) Causes of success or failure.....	2.8	2.6
5. Arranging conferences between prospective teachers and school authorities.....	2.9	2.6
6. Cooperating with commercial teachers agencies.....	1.4	1.6
7. Keeping permanent record of each teacher, pre-service, in-service, education, experience, and reports or work by field visitors.....	2.6	2.8

TABLE 19.—*Use made of individual conferences at the home institution*

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Talk over problems raised by teacher.....	2.5	2.8
2. Discuss possible improvement in in-service education.....	2.6	2.9
3. Suggest professional reading.....	2.4	2.6
4. Give constructive suggestions for improvement of teaching.....	2.3	2.6
5. Others—suggest textbook and reference material.....	2.0	
6. Others—make suggestions for professional and personal advancement.....	2.0	

TABLE 20.—*Use of group conference at home institution*

Activity	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Give demonstration lessons.....	2.4	2.3
2. Hold round-table discussions of educational problems.....	2.7	2.8
3. Provide educational exhibits.....	2.4	2.4
4. Assist in developing courses of study.....	2.5	2.3
5. Provide for exchange of experience.....	2.3	2.4
6. Suggest or furnish visual aid materials.....	2.2	2.0
7. Listen to inspiring speakers:		
(a) Professional.....	2.2	2.4
(b) Nonprofessional.....	1.8	2.1

Problems of successful follow-up work.—There are many factors that may seriously interfere with follow-up work. They are listed in table 21 and ranked in order of the seriousness attached to each factor by both groups of institutions. The two groups show general agreement in this matter.

Other services.—Other services reported by these two groups of institutions are intramural, extramural, field, correspondence, and radio courses, and cooperative research. No statistical reports in tabular form are made by Pickett or by Brown on these matters. The services are not uncommon, however.

These and the services reported earlier are made known through various ways: Catalogs; bulletin board posters; talks before groups of teachers; magazine advertisements; newspaper advertisements; news stories; field agent; bulletins; direct mail; form letters; personal letters; calling of committees representing interested groups.

Methods of determining field needs.—The methods of determining what kind of extension services to provide are set forth in table 22. The high rating given to these various methods does not check with the judgments of administrators and teachers regarding the values of their services. This discrepancy is of the utmost importance to institutions interested in developing and improving programs of education for teachers in service.

TABLE 21.—*Factors which may interfere with effective follow-up work*

Factor	Rank in seriousness by normal schools and teachers colleges	Rank in seriousness by colleges and universities
1. Inadequate records concerning present positions of graduates.....	4	3
2. Inadequate forms for reporting and recording "follow-up" work.....	5.5	5
3. Insufficient personnel to conduct work.....	1	1
4. Personnel not adequately prepared for such service.....	5.5	6
5. Lack of cooperative attitude on part of faculty.....	11	8.5
6. Lack of cooperative attitude on part of teachers in service.....	8	7
7. Insufficient funds.....	2	2
8. Lack of cooperation of State education department.....	10	11
9. Lack of confidence in value of work.....	9	8.5
10. Belief that responsibility rests with other agencies.....	7	10
11. Distance too great or means of transportation inadequate.....	3	4

314 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

TABLE 22.—Means of determining field needs

Method	Weighted value for normal schools and teachers colleges	Weighted value for colleges and universities
1. Conferring with extension committee of public school system	2.6	2.1
2. Informal visits to the field	2.8	2.3
3. Reports of field representatives	2.5	2.5
4. Reports of State field workers	2.8	2.0
5. Conference with graduates at home institution	2.5	2.7
6. Letters to or from graduates	2.2	1.8
7. Letters to or from superintendents	2.3	2.3
8. Questionnaire to superintendents or teachers	2.3	1.7
9. Surveys of the field	2.6	2.6
10. Requests from alumni	2.7	1.4
11. Others (added)—conference with groups of teachers	3.0	

"Consumers' " judgments of services.—Administrators and teachers in the field evaluated the extension services of both groups of institutions. Table 23 presents the judgments in terms of weighted values. These values represent 1,010 replies. Here is food for serious thought.

TABLE 23.—Judgments of administrators and teachers on in-service activities of normal schools and teachers colleges, and of colleges and universities

Activity	Weighted values given by—			
	Normal schools and teachers colleges		Colleges and universities	
	Administrators	Teachers	Administrators	Teachers
1	2	3	4	5
1. Professional bibliographies	1.7	2.0	1.9	2.1
2. Reports of current practices in teaching	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.1
3. Reports of current practices in classification and promotion	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.7
4. Bulletins on methods of research and experimentation	1.8	2.0	2.1	1.9
5. Bulletins on results of research and experimentation in local school systems	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.6
6. News bulletins	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.5
7. Teacher-certification standards	1.7	3.0	1.6	1.9
8. Loan of books	1.5	2.0	1.6	2.2
9. Loan of museum materials	1.0	1.8	1.6	1.8
10. Loan of visual aids	1.1	1.9	1.9	2.2
11. Extension courses (by and large)	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.6
12. Correspondence courses (by and large)	1.6	2.0	1.9	2.2

The summary of the study of the in-service education programs of the 25 normal schools and teachers colleges was given in 36 statements.¹ Some of these may not relate to matters included in this report but are substantiated by evidence presented in her study.

1. The normal schools and teachers colleges studied, are becoming aware of their responsibility in the "follow-up" of their products. This statement is borne out by the results of the replies to the inventory sent out in this study and upon other studies previously made in the field.

¹ Pickett, Lalla H. An Analysis of the In-Service Training Programs of 25 Selected Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges. Doctor's thesis. New York, N.Y., New York University, 1932.

2. Nine of the 25 institutions studied reported an organized program of "follow-up." Sixteen reported no organized program.
3. Eleven of the 16 schools reporting no organized program of "follow-up" work stated that they conducted some sort of in-service training activities.
4. The tendency is shown to conduct such in-service training first for graduates of the institutions, and second, for other teachers who desire it.
5. Only two of the institutions studied reported full-time field workers. Three reported part-time field workers. From this study it would appear that there is a tendency to employ field workers specifically for "follow-up" work.
6. The "follow-up" activities which are regarded of greatest value by the normal schools and teachers colleges reporting are: Conferring with the teacher following observation of her work to offer constructive suggestions for improvement; conferring with principals or superintendents regarding weaknesses of preservice or in-service programs of their institutions; and conferring with principal or superintendent regarding teachers visited in his school.
7. The "follow-up" activities which are valued least were: Giving adverse criticisms of local principals and supervisors and urging change of position to another school system.
8. Seventeen institutions use bulletins and publications as a means of in-service training.
9. Nineteen institutions report personal correspondence with students of greater than average value in in-service training.
10. Lectures to teachers in the field are reported by 17 institutions, 702 such lectures being given.
11. Fourteen institutions report some sort of library service for the assistance of teachers both in their own professional growth and in their everyday classroom training.
12. Very little is being done by these 25 institutions in rendering museum service; only 8 of them reported lending visual aid materials.
13. Very little use is being made by these institutions of radio service, only 4 institutions reported such use.
14. Research bureaus play a significant part in the in-service programs of these 25 schools; 52 percent of them have such bureaus, whose chief activity is conducting surveys of local schools.
15. Placement bureau service is reported by 20 of the normal schools and teachers colleges whose in-service activities were studied. The placing of recent graduates is its chief service and conferring with administrators as to their needs in prospective candidates is next in rank.
16. The use of group conferences at home institution is used by only 9 institutions; group conferences are reported more frequently used than individual conferences.
17. Where "follow-up" is conducted by regular faculty members no satisfactory solution of caring for their work while they are absent has been found.
18. The factors which interfere to the greatest degree in effective "follow-up" of the 20 schools studied are insufficient personnel and insufficient funds.
19. Of the 25 normal schools and teachers colleges studied, 20 offer some form of extension work. The extramural course is the activity most used; radio courses are least used.
20. The determination of the courses to be offered in extension is largely done by the faculties of the institution rather than by the teachers in the field.

316 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

21. Library facilities offered extension students are inadequate, although there seems to be a recognition of this situation and a tendency to work out adequate library service for such students.
22. Two institutions have the members of the extension staff teach for a definite period each year in the regular college, as a means of keeping the academic standards of extension classes equal to those of regular college classes.
23. The most frequently used means of publicity for extension courses is the college catalog. The least used, the field agent.
24. The extension courses are not carefully planned to promote progressive growth and a well-balanced program of study.
25. No organized, uniform, or effective method of determining in-service needs is used. Fourteen institutions report conferring with extension committee of public-school system; 15 send questionnaires to superintendents or teachers; and 10 use survey of the field. The ultimate "consumer", the teacher, has not a great voice in stating his needs.
26. The modification of practice in the light of in-service needs is made by 16 institutions. These institutions state that such modification takes place in the content of courses; 11 institutions modify the method of conducting courses; and 8 change instructors.
27. The replies of "consumers" indicate that junior high school and elementary school teachers believe that teachers meetings conducted by staff members of normal schools and teachers colleges are valuable in improving instruction and should be included more often.
28. "Consumers" valued supervision by staffs of normal schools and teachers colleges more highly than they valued teachers meetings conducted by these institutions.
29. Thirty-three and six-tenths percent of the elementary school teachers favor supervision by staffs of normal schools and teachers colleges, while only 12.56 percent of senior high-school teachers favor it.
30. Small towns and rural districts value supervision by normal schools and teachers colleges less than do large cities and cities of medium size.
31. The opinions of administrators and teachers are in accord on the value of supervision as given by teachers colleges and normal schools.
32. Replies of "consumers" indicate very little experience with radio education conducted by normal schools and teachers colleges.
33. Fifty percent of the "consumers" reporting experience with the item think bulletins on methods of research and experimentation sent out by normal schools and teachers colleges are of less than average value in the improvement of teaching.
34. There is an agreement in the opinion of "consumers" that extension courses are of more than average value.
35. Correspondence courses are regarded as of less than average value by "consumers".
36. The study made of catalogs and bulletins from the 25 normal schools and teachers colleges indicates that the in-service activities offered correspond to those listed in the inventory and check-list sent out to these institutions.

The recommendations resulting from the study of the in-service programs of the colleges and universities are included in the following quotation:³

³ Brown, Francis J. College and University Education for Teachers in Service. Doctor's thesis. New York, N.Y., New York University, 1932.

One major recommendation grows out of this study: That, through the cooperative efforts of both the college and university and the teacher in service—the producer and the consumer—a unified, coordinated, and comprehensive program of teacher training be developed. Included in the implications of this recommendation are:

1. That careful studies be undertaken by colleges and universities of their pre-service and in-service education for teachers in order to provide a continuous and coordinated program for professional growth.
2. That all in-service activities be coordinated under a single administrative unit with such subdivisions or bureaus as the extent and nature of the service demand.
3. That a careful analysis be made of the follow-up services provided by colleges and universities, leading toward their modification and expansion in the light of the values ascribed to such services by consumers. Increasing emphasis should be placed upon such personal services as visitation and both individual and group conferences; results of research should be made available to the consumer in nontechnical terms and so written as to point out specifically their application in the improvement of instruction; news bulletins of comparatively little worth should either be modified to be of greater practical value to consumers or discontinued and the effort so expended be used in extending personal contacts with the field.
4. That both the university administration and directors of in-service education give serious consideration to the administrative relationship of in-service education to the general university. The "orphan child" has grown to manhood, his chair should stand on a par with that of other colleges at the university council table. Discriminations in apportionment of budget, in provision for library service and advisement, and in compulsory minimum registration for full compensation are no longer justified or excusable.
5. That the opportunistic policy in the choice of courses be supplanted by the careful planning of curricula over a period of years to provide for sequence and a proper balance between undergraduate and graduate courses. Such planning should be done cooperatively by administrators and teachers and all agencies of the university which have field contacts.
6. That the liaison between producer and consumer be established on a more permanent basis. Consultative committees of administrators and teachers should be established on a permanent basis to learn the needs of the field and make recommendations for needed modifications or new developments in both follow-up and extension service.
7. That greater freedom be permitted for exploration and experimentation in various types of in-service education. Equivalent rather than identical standards should be used in determining the effectiveness of extension as compared with residence education.
8. That the faculty members of the college and university be kept in active touch with the vital problems of and conditions in the field. No member of the staff who teaches teachers should be relieved of the necessity of classroom visitation in the public schools, whether in the academic or professional field.

Among the many problems for further research which are raised by this study are the following:

1. To what extent may follow-up service be developed by colleges and universities without beginning to supplant rather than supplement the supervisory service of the local school system.
2. To develop objective criteria for determining the relative value of the various types of in-service education.

3. To determine the allocation of specific in-service education activities among the various agencies for the education of teachers.
4. What discriminations are made against in-service as contrasted with pre-service education and to what degree do such discriminations curtail the development of the former.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES FOR TEACHERS

Charles E. Decker, in a preliminary report on correspondence courses in teachers colleges, and schools of education in State universities located in the area of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools discovered that 61, or 57.1 percent, of these institutions conduct correspondence courses. A comparison of the faculty members who conduct this work with members of the regular faculty is presented in table 24.

TABLE 24.—*Professional preparation of members of regular faculty and of correspondence study faculty*

Item	Regular faculty	Correspondence study faculty
Average amount of college work in years	6.39	6.39
Average semester-hours of extension work taken	.72	.63
Average semester-hours of correspondence work taken	.79	.86
Percentage of faculty holding doctor's degree	26.3	26.3
Percentage of faculty holding master's degree	59.0	63.8
Percentage of faculty holding bachelor's degree	13.1	9.9
Percentage of faculty holding no degree	2.0	0.5
Percentage of faculty who classify as professors	37.0	43.1
Percentage of faculty who classify as associate professors	26.8	28.0
Percentage of faculty who classify as assistant professors	19.4	9.0
Percentage of faculty who classify as instructors	23.8	19.9
Average number of years experience as public-school teacher or supervisor	7.7	8.6
Average number of years other than as teacher in a teachers college	3.1	2.4
Average number of years teaching in a teacher-training institution	8.6	7.4
Percentage of those who teach in the field in which they made their major preparation	92.6	90.5
Percentage of those who teach in the field of minor preparation	7.4	9.5
Average number of occupations other than teaching	.04	.79
Average number of countries in which traveled	1.39	1.39
Average number of education associations in which they hold membership	2.61	2.73
Average number of contributions to educational periodicals during the past 2 years	1.16	.67

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXTENSION LOAD AND CERTAIN OTHER FACTORS IN THE TEACHER'S DISTRIBUTION OF TIME

Mr. Stephen C. Clement undertook a study to answer the following questions:

1. When the teacher devotes a given amount of time to extension courses, from what other activity does she deduct time?
2. How does this deduction affect quantitatively her professional duties and responsibilities?
3. As the amount of extension work increases, is there increasing deduction from professional duties?
4. Is there a critical point at which extension work becomes a decided detriment to professional performance?

A time schedule was prepared in quarter-hour periods covering a space of 7 days. The activities listed on the schedule are as follows:

1. Taking extension courses.
2. Preparation for extension courses.
3. Travel to and from extension courses.
4. Preparation for teaching.
5. Participation in the work of supervised study periods.
6. Regular classroom teaching or supervision.
7. Correcting papers, notebooks, examinations, etc.
8. Office relationships, reports, etc.
9. Conferences or visits with parents.
10. Conferences with students.
11. Supervision, chaperoning student extracurricular activities, coaching.
12. Committee work in connection with school duties.
13. Reading nonfiction for enjoyment.
14. Entertainments, concerts, theaters (not movies).
15. Reading fiction for enjoyment.
16. Moving pictures.
17. Dances, cards, billiards, etc.
18. Physical exercise, e.g., walking, tennis, bowling, swimming, handball.
19. Household or home duties.
20. Professional meetings and conferences.
21. Research in education, e.g., experimental work, special investigations, and study of original source materials.
22. Writing books or magazine articles.

Seven hundred and three replies were used in his tabulations. His data (only partially tabulated at this time) justify only tentative conclusions. These are summarized and presented in very brief form at this point.

The extension load increases regularly from the kindergarten-primary grades to the senior high school. A similar increase is noted in the extraclass load and in professional duties. Recreation and home duties show a declining trend from senior high school through kindergarten-primary. Teaching load is highest in the intermediate grades and in the senior high school.

As extension load increases the teacher tends to deduct time from extraclass load, recreation, and home duties. There is a slight deduction of time in teaching load but only in the upper quartile of those taking extension work. Professional duties tend to increase with the increase in extension work.

There is evidence that critical points exist at which increasing amounts of extension work create relative rapid decrease in other factors. This critical point is not readily apparent in teaching load except in the upper quartile. It is apparent that instead of a single critical point at which the taking of extension work causes a decided decrease in other factors, there is a group of critical points depending upon the activity involved. No definite conclusions can be drawn which are entirely true of the whole group. The distribution of time of any individual is a highly personal matter and one which can be regulated in the individual case alone.

CHAPTER IV

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

The most positive, definite, and aggressive program of in-service education among the specialized or subject-matter fields is found in vocational education. Leaders in this field admit that necessity forced them into vigorous action. They were faced at the beginning of the vocational education movement by indifference and even hostility from other groups in education. Laymen were skeptical of this new aspect of school activities. There was a lack of a generally accepted philosophy of vocational education to place the movement in proper perspective with the rapidly changing industrial civilization and to the growing needs in adult education. There was a dearth of adequately prepared teachers.

The leaders had the following classifications of teachers to consider in developing vocational education: (1) Those with technical skills but lacking professional education, (2) those without technical skills but having general professional preparation, (3) those having both technical and professional abilities, and (4) those lacking both requirements. The last classification at the outset was composed of large numbers and the third of relatively small numbers. The leaders, happily, recognized the seriousness of the problem and set themselves vigorously to the task of solving it. How well they are succeeding is evident from the facts obtained from the Federal Board for Vocational Education (now part of the Office of Education), through the courtesy of Dr. J. C. Wright, director, Dr. Charles R. Allen, special adviser, and their associates.

The Federal Board was requested to assist in this part of the study (1) by guiding the investigator in an analysis and classification of the various kinds of in-service education for vocational teachers, (2) by providing special bulletins and lists of references, and (3) by describing, briefly but systematically, good examples of the various kinds of in-service education practiced in different parts of the country.

The sources of information for this part of the survey are, then, the personal reports of members of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, the publications of the Board and, in addition publications of the Office of Education, master's and doctor's theses, Federal and

State laws and regulations, institutional publications, State plans and annual reports, and other books on education and related topics.

The agencies that stimulate or direct the various forms of in-service education of vocational teachers are the Federal Board, State boards, local or regional agencies, and individual schools, colleges, and universities. The forms are influenced by Federal and State legislation, State regulations, and local requirements. The different kinds of in-service education are classified by the Federal Board as follows:

1. Undefined mandatory requirements—that is, as may be established by the State board responsible for the administration of vocational education.
2. Special summer-school study. In some places special summer programs of study are conducted for vocational teachers, varying from 2 to 6 weeks in length.
3. Special group work. Representatives of a given phase of school work or of industry meet to plan a special type of work; e.g., foreman training.
4. Specialized summer-school courses. Courses of a particular nature in the field of vocational education given as only a part of a varied program of courses in other fields.
5. Supervision. Varies from periodic inspection to close follow-up work with teachers.
6. Institutional extension service. Usually consists of group extension courses for teachers although it may take the form of individual advisory relationship.
7. Itinerant teacher training. Teaching for demonstration purposes and advising on individual teacher problems.
8. Required additional occupational experience. Supplementary to occupational and for professional qualifications.
9. Committee work. Special assignments for small group work; e.g., revision of a course of study.
10. Conference of vocational teachers. Programs planned to meet professional needs of teachers and other staff members.

These teacher-education activities are found in the fields of trade and industry, agriculture, home economics, and commercial education. It should be noted that the Federal Board concerns itself only with vocational commercial education which is relatively but a small part of commercial education as it is administered generally in the public schools of the country.

The agencies responsible for the organization and conduct of the in-service activities are Federal, State, local, and institutional. The Federal Board for Vocational Education does not regard itself as a supervisory or directing agency. It acts as a clearing house of information on conditions in vocational education, and provides individual conference and advisory service upon request. The Board provides special summer schools, conducts regional conferences, and publishes lesson sheets, special bulletins, and reports, but these services are for the purpose of providing guidance through suggestions and accounts of existing practices, and are not required by the regu-

lations, except in the administration of the Smith-Hughes law, in which case the Board gives considerable leeway to State and local initiative. Attendance at the summer schools and regional conferences is voluntary.

In each of the four fields of vocational education, examples of good practice in the education of teachers in service, as stated earlier, have been provided by the Federal Board for Vocational Education. From a list of 60 such reports 10 have been selected for purposes of illustration. Lack of space prevents the presentation of others.

Trade and Industry

Example no 1:

Agency: State.

Type: Mandatory requirement.

A. Descriptive title:

Mandatory requirement for professional improvement of trade and industrial teachers in service, prescribed by a State (Michigan).

1. Purpose of plan: To bring about the professional improvement of teachers in service through a mandatory requirement prescribed by the State board of Michigan.
2. Agency and its location: Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education in cooperation with the University of Michigan through resident and extension courses.
3. Scope of influence: State-wide, in the field of trade and industrial education in all phases.
4. Entrance requirements: Employment in teaching or contract for employment.
5. Character of work: Professional teacher-training courses, solving of professional problems, securing of approved occupational experience, etc., based upon case history and analysis of individual needs.
6. Character of methods used: Group instruction and discussion, seminar, and individual study and solving of professional problems associated with local job.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: University of Michigan and State board.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: Work conducted under this plan is given degree credit by the University of Michigan.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Mandatory, by action of the State board.
10. Additional comment: The incentive to stimulate the continued professional improvement of teachers in service is provided by a system of four different grades of teachers' certificates, carrying different percentages of reimbursement to the local communities.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: Figures not available at Federal Board offices.
2. Spread throughout the country: State-wide in scope.

C. Descriptive material:

Printed description of the plan available from Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education, under caption: Requirements for the Certification of Shop, Related Subjects, and General Continuation Teachers in Michigan.

Example no. 2:

Agency: Institutional.

Type: Extension service.

A. Descriptive title:

Extension teacher-training service by an institution (University of Pittsburgh):

1. Purpose of plan: To offer opportunities for pre-service teacher training and professional improvement work for those qualified to enter the courses.
2. Agency and its location: Conducted at the University of Pittsburgh and two or more outlying centers. The classes are held in the late afternoons or evenings.
3. Scope of influence: Attended by those teaching in vocational classes in the public-school system of Pittsburgh and by tradesmen preparing to teach and teachers of vocational schools within a radius of 50 miles of Pittsburgh.
4. Entrance requirements: Those in attendance must meet the standards set up in the Pennsylvania State Plan for Vocational Education.
5. Character of work: Following are some of the courses offered during the year:
 - A. Philosophy of vocational education.
 - B. Modern industries.
 - C. Plan and organization of instruction material.
 - D. Improvement of vocational education through supervision.
6. Character of methods used: The chief methods used in instructing were the informational and group discussion. Several of the courses were conducted on the seminar plan.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: The faculty is composed of full-time and part-time instructors from the University of Pittsburgh.
8. Relation to degree granting agency: College credit is given for satisfactory completion of courses. The certification department of the State board of education accepts these credits toward certification of teachers.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Attendance is entirely voluntary.
10. Additional comment: Two other institutions, Pennsylvania State College and the University of Pennsylvania, conduct similar types of work in the State.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: The total enrollment in vocational classes for the year 1931 was 450.

Example no. 3:

Agency: State.

Type: Committee work.

A. Descriptive title:

Committee work having training value under State control:

1. Purpose of plan: To improve the courses of study in the various trade schools in the State.
2. Agency and its location: Conducted by the office of the State board for vocational education, Hartford, Conn. The work was carried on through committees of instructors and committee meetings were held at such times and places within the State as were convenient.

324 NATIONAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Example no. 3.—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

3. Scope of influence: There were a considerable number of these committees including the one on electrical theory, the one on electrical shop work, the one on blueprint reading, the one on English, and the one on general science.
4. Entrance requirements: Each committee was organized under a chairman appointed by the State supervisor of trade and industrial education.
5. Character of work: Revised courses were worked out and in most cases are ready for use in the schools next year.
6. Character of methods used: Chief methods used were various forms of content analysis and discussion.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: Committees were composed entirely of instructors employed in the State schools.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: This work had no degree value.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Service on committees was voluntary.
10. Additional comment: This work represented a general attempt on the part of the State office to draw upon the experience of the instructing staff in the various State schools in the setting up of improved courses of training.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: These committees averaged about five members on each committee and the total membership of all committees represented a very large proportion of the instructing staff of the State schools. Copies of these courses can be secured in mimeographed form from the State supervisor of trade and industrial education, State department of education, Hartford, Conn.

Agriculture

Example no. 4:

Agency: State

Type: Special group work

A. Descriptive title:

Special group work on one subject only, namely, farm shop training, conducted under the direction of the Maine State Board for Vocational Education.

1. Purpose of plan: Technical and professional improvement of teachers of vocational agriculture in the field of farm mechanics.
2. Agency and its location: Conducted under direction of the State board at Bangor High School, Bangor, Maine.
3. Scope of influence: Attended by 14 teachers of vocational agriculture out of a total of 26 in the State.
4. Entrance requirements: Attendance was optional on the part of the teachers.
5. Character of work: The 2-weeks course in farm shop training included wood, metal, and leather work.
6. Character of methods used: The chief methods used were demonstration and supervision of practice on selected farm shop jobs.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: The instructors were regular farm shop teachers of the Bangor High School staff.

Example no. 4—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

8. Relation to degree-granting agency: No college credit was given for this work.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Attendance was voluntary.
10. Additional comment: There was no expense to the teachers other than their own maintenance while in attendance on this course. Most of the teachers who elected this work felt that they were deficient in certain farm shop skills which they expected to teach. Technical improvement in other phases of agricultural instruction has been given for shorter periods at the University of Maine.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: Total enrollment was 14. The school was in operation for 2 weeks and whole day periods.
2. Spread throughout the country: Similar training courses without credit having been given in some of the other States, but the general tendency is to handle such work as a part of regular summer-school work.

C. Descriptive material. (None available.)

Example no. 5:

Agency: State.

Type: Supervision.

A. Descriptive title:

State supervision: Virginia is used as an example.

1. Purpose of plan: To improve quality of supervision and provide adequate aid to teachers.
2. Agency and its location: State board for vocational education located at Richmond, Va.
3. Scope of influence: The entire State of Virginia.
4. Entrance requirements: All men who are receiving State and Federal aid for vocational education in the teaching of vocational agriculture.
5. Character of work: The character of the supervision is classified under the following heads:
 - (a) Aiding teachers in the formulation of their annual and long-time teaching programs.
 - (b) Aiding teachers in the development of content for teaching.
 - (c) Giving definite instruction and demonstration in methods of instruction.
 - (d) Carefully checking work of teachers in order to discover weak phases of the program.
6. Character of methods used: Three definite procedures are found, namely:
 - (a) State conferences.
 - (b) Conferences within a district of the State with more localized problems.
 - (c) Individual aid.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: The supervisors are engaged from the teaching force, the State supervisor having, also, experience as a teacher trainer, and district supervisors that of a superior teacher.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: None.

Example no. 5—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

9. Mandatory or permissive: All teachers are obliged to submit to the State supervisor and district supervisor in personal supervision. Attendance at conferences is semimandatory.
10. Additional comment: The State of Virginia has approximately 153 white and 27 colored teachers of vocational agriculture, and the State is divided into four districts, each presided over by a district supervisor and State supervisor, responsible for the work of the four district men. The district supervisor's work is confined entirely to improvement of teachers in service, while the State supervisor has this responsibility plus administrative duties.

Example no. 6:

Agency: State

Type: Committee work

A. Descriptive title:

Committee work having training value conducted by the Ohio State Board for Vocational Education.

1. Purpose of plan: To secure participation of teachers in setting up a State program of work in vocational agriculture.
2. Agency and its location: Conducted by the State board for vocational education through 11 district committees and the State executive committee of the State association of agricultural teachers.
3. Scope of influence: Participated in by the majority of the teachers in the State under the direction of the State supervisory staff and with the assistance of the teacher-training staff.
4. Entrance requirements: Each district committee consisted of the whole of the teachers in the given district. These teachers discussed items for the program at one of their regular meetings. The State executive committee consisted of the chairmen from the 11 districts. The State executive committee discussed the work at their annual meeting at which members of the State supervisory staff and teacher-training staff were present.
5. Character of work: This title does not apply.
6. Character of methods used: The chief methods used were conference and group discussion.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: No formal instruction was involved. The work was done through conference procedure under the immediate charge of district and State chairmen, respectively, and under the general supervision of the State supervisor.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: No relation.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Attendance of teachers at the district meetings and of district chairmen at the meetings of the State executive committee is expected of the teachers as a part of their regular activities but was not strictly mandatory.
10. Additional comment: The State supervisor has encouraged the work of the State agricultural teachers association in order to promote initiative on the part of the teachers and secure their voluntary participation and assistance in developing a State program of work and objectives to which they could wholeheartedly subscribe.

Example no. 6—Continued.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: Practically all of the 200 agricultural teachers in the State participate.
2. Spread throughout the country: The majority of the States, notably Illinois and North Carolina, have associations of agricultural teachers which function in a similar way.

C. Descriptive material:

The vocational agricultural program of work in Ohio showing a report of progress from 1927 to 1930. (Mimeographed report.)

Home Economics

Example no. 7:

Agency: Institutional.

Type: Special summer schools.

A. Descriptive title:

Special summer schools (source courses) for the classification of teachers of homemaking in the part-time schools of Wisconsin.

1. Purpose of plan: To maintain well-trained teachers for the home economics programs in the part-time schools of Wisconsin.
2. Agency and its location: The University of Wisconsin at Madison, Wis., and the Stout Institute at Menomonie, Wis.
3. Scope of influence: From 30 to 40 are enrolled in these part-time home economics education courses each summer. While the majority are home economics teachers from high schools and part-time schools of Wisconsin, there are usually a few local supervisors from the larger vocational centers in the State and a few home economics teachers from other States enrolled in the courses.
4. Entrance requirements: Courses are open to those who are teaching or supervising in part-time schools.
5. Character of work: Analysis and organization of home economics in the part-time school: A viewpoint of the part-time school girl; an original analysis of 1 homemaking subject; organization of the content of the course; short-unit courses of 9 lessons; and formulation of general and specific aims for the course.

Methods of teaching home economics in the part-time school: Difficulties involved in teaching homemaking in the part-time school; different methods of instruction as adapted to part-time school instruction; a comparative study and critical analysis of material; evaluation of reference material, education exhibits, charts; and bulletins; problem-solving and directing study in connection with teachers' plans and pupils' instruction sheets.

Advanced course in teaching of home economics in the part-time school: Problems common to experienced teachers of this group; home projects; difficulties in use of problem-solving method; conference method; adult classes; directing study; testing results of teaching.

6. Character of methods used: Group discussion, conference procedure, solving of pertinent problems, demonstration and directed reading are the commonly used methods. Courses of study and individual lesson sheets are revised or prepared by individuals and small groups as the need arises.

Example no. 7—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: At the University of Wisconsin the State supervisor of home economics education conducts the classes. At the Stout Institute the itinerant teacher trainer employed by the State department of vocational education conducts the classes.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: Credit for these courses which are offered each summer applies toward raising classification in the scale as set up for vocational teachers by the State department of vocational education and also full institutional credit toward degrees.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Attendance at summer school is required once in each 2- or 3-year cycle and credit for these courses is allowed for classification.
10. Additional comment: Since graduate credit is granted for these courses at the University of Wisconsin, the enrollment in them is somewhat larger there than it is at the Stout Institute.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: 30 in 1931.
2. Spread throughout the country: 11 States represented; 50 percent from Wisconsin schools.

C. Descriptive material:

Teacher-training bulletins nos. 6, 7, and 15.

Example no. 8:

Agency: State

Type: Special school

A. Descriptive title:

Special school of instruction for vocational teachers in home economics in Alabama.

1. Purpose of plan. To improve the teaching of home economics in the State of Alabama.
2. Agency and its location: Conducted by the State department of education in Alabama at the Woman's College at Montevallo.
3. Scope of influence: The enrollment is made up of teachers from all parts of the State.
4. Entrance requirements: Home economics teachers who have been selected to teach in vocational schools.
5. Character of work: This varies from year to year according to the needs of the teachers. Topics dealing with 10-month program and laboratory management are wholly new this year. The content of several of the others has been much revised. A list of courses offered in 1932 follows:
 - (a) Introduction to vocational work.
 - (b) Methods of teaching home economics.
 - (c) Management of laboratory classes.
 - (d) Home economics with out-of-school groups.
 - (e) Home improvement.
 - (f) Setting up objectives, testing progress, grading.
 - (g) Home projects and joint programs.
 - (h) A program of work.
 - (i) The 10-month program.
 - (j) The underlying philosophy of a home-economics program.
 - (k) Basic principles of learning.

Example no. 8—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

6. Character of methods used: The discussion method is used. Problems are collected throughout the year from teachers on visits made them and teachers also present their problems in the class. In home improvement, actual work is done in refinishing furniture or whatever the group needs. In the home projects course, visits are made to home projects in operation. In the laboratory management class, high-school girls were taught for observation purposes.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: The faculty is composed of the State supervisor of home economics and 3 assistant supervisors of home economics, 1 teacher trainer, and 1 high-school teacher, who was last year an assistant supervisor. In addition, special talks are being given by a foods subject-matter teacher, a clothing teacher, and another teacher trainer.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: Credit for home economics education on the graduate and undergraduate level is given and will be accepted by this institution toward a degree.
9. Mandatory or permissive: It is mandatory for all home economics teachers who have been chosen to teach in vocational schools and who have not had previous experience in teaching. The regulation is that teachers will attend 2 summers out of the first 3 in which they are engaged in vocational work. In addition, certain teachers are urged to come when it is felt they have a special need.
10. Additional comment: One of the most important features is the opportunity for conferences on special programs for the making out of tentative programs of work for the following year.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: 100. This is the largest group we have ever had for the entire 3 weeks. It includes 2 teachers of vocational economics who were not reelected and will not teach in such schools next year, and 2 general home economics teachers who do not expect to be approved for vocational work; the rest are approved teachers.
2. Spread throughout the country: The success of this project has become known and similar projects adapted to the needs of the particular State have been undertaken in other parts of the country.

C. Descriptive material. (None reported.)

Example no. 9:

Agency: State

Type: Specialized summer school courses

A. Descriptive title:

Specialized summer school course in home economics education conducted by the State department of vocational education, Oregon.

1. Purpose of plan: To improve the content and methods of teaching in day home economics classes in Oregon high schools.
2. Agency and its location: Conducted by the State department of vocational education at Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oreg., in June 1931.
3. Scope of influence: Attended by home economics teachers from high schools in Oregon and 6 other States in the Pacific region, 2 State supervisors, and 2 teachers of part-time classes.

Example no. 9—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

4. Entrance requirements: The course was planned for experienced teachers who were graduates in home economics. The two or three who did not meet this requirement received no credit for the course.
5. Character of work:
 - (a) A brief consideration of choice of content for home economics classes in high schools based upon present personal and home needs.
 - (b) Consideration of effective methods and teaching materials for the different phases of home economics work. Emphasis on the use of problems and projects.
6. Character of methods used: The chief methods used were conference and group discussion with some demonstration. This was supplemented by committee work and assigned readings.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: Faculty consisted of Federal agent for home economics education for the Pacific region and State supervisor of Oregon and a visiting supervisor.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: Oregon Agricultural College granted 2 hours' graduate credit for 10 days' intensive work. Five hours daily were spent in group discussion beside study and committee work.
9. Mandatory or permissive: The teachers of home economics day vocational classes in Oregon were expected to attend, but for others attendance was voluntary.
10. Additional comment: The course was offered because there was a feeling of need on the part of the supervisor and teachers. Therefore members of the group came with a definite purpose and it was felt that effective work was done.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: The total enrollment was 51. Five hours daily for 10 days gave a total of 50 hours of class work.
2. Spread throughout the country: Teachers from six other States besides Oregon attended the conference in Corvallis. The State supervisor in a neighboring State who attended the course in Oregon conducted a similar conference course in cooperation with a teacher-training institution in her own State during the present summer session.

C. Descriptive material:

Report of Oregon State Vocational Home Economics Conference, June 1931.

Example no. 10

Agency: Federal
Type: Conference

A. Descriptive title:

Central regional conference committees in home economics education.

1. Purpose of plan: To provide opportunity for professional growth of teacher trainers and supervisors in this region.
2. Agency and its location: Organized by the Federal regional agent in home economics education and held at Chicago, Ill.

Example no. 10—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

3. Scope of influence: Participated in by any State and local supervisors and teacher trainers in the central region who are interested in the committee problems undertaken.
4. Entrance requirements: Supervisors and teacher trainers working in the vocational program compose most of the members, although other teacher trainers and supervisors in the region who are interested may also participate.
5. Character of work: Committees have been organized on a variety of problems of significance in improving the vocational program and the professional development of the group in the region. Some of the committees have worked on the evening school program in home economics; the difficulties and responsibilities of day school teachers and means of improving preservice and inservice training of these teachers; the itinerant teacher-training program—techniques and procedures; the home project—its contribution, organization, and supervision; child development courses in the teacher-training institution and in the day and part-time schools.
6. Character of methods used: Members of the conference group are invited to suggest committee work which is needed and to participate in the committee work in which they are most interested and most able to make a contribution. A chairman is appointed who plans the program of work for the year after discussion with the group; the chairman sends out letters collecting the material needed from the members of the group. This is compiled and studied by the group when they meet together at the conference, conclusions are drawn, interpretations made, the further studies needed planned, these results presented to the whole conference group for criticism, and the plans carried out in a similar way during succeeding years until the problem is solved or until other methods such as research are needed for further progress on the problem. Sometimes institutions, individuals, or agencies have been secured to do the needed research.
7. Sources of teachers, lecturers, and discussion leaders: The regional agent acts as general consultant and the chairman of the committee as discussion leader. Specialists are often called in, however, to help with the details of certain difficult problems; for example, this year the child development committee has sought the advice and help of the child development specialist in the teacher-training institutions and the field worker in child development of the American Home Economics Association has consulted with the committee throughout the year and met with them in the committee meetings in Chicago.
8. Relation to degree-granting agency: No credit is offered for this work. Occasionally, however, members of the committee use parts of these problems for further study as problems or as theses at institutions where they may enroll for advanced study.
9. Mandatory or permissive: Attendance is voluntary among teacher trainers, supervisors, and heads of home economics departments in colleges in the region.

Example no. 10—Continued.

A. Descriptive title—Continued.

10. Additional comment: Each year 4 to 6 committees are working in the region. One person is urged to be an active member of only one committee, although she may be a contributing member of others if she desires. Committee meetings are from 1 to 2 days in length each year.

B. Statistical information:

1. Enrollment: The conference group averages from 50 to 60 in number attending. It lasts 5 or 6 days each year, although the committee work is carried on by correspondence throughout the year.
2. Spread throughout the country: Each region has committees of this character which work throughout the year and meet annually at the regional conferences to evaluate progress, make reports, and plan for the succeeding year. In addition certain States have committee groups working on similar problems within the State during the year.

C. Descriptive material:

Central regional conference reports. Federal Board for Vocational Education.

CHAPTER V

A UNIFIED PROGRAM; ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS

A UNIFIED PROGRAM OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: THE CAMDEN PLAN

The Camden (N.J.) plan is unique and presents the only example of a unified program of in-service education found in this investigation. Supt. Leon N. Neulen recognized the importance of unity and sequence in this field. Working through the Camden Teachers' Association, the superintendent enlisted the cooperative action of his staff in developing such a plan. The group discussed Camden school needs and reached agreement on five problems common to the different administrative units of the Camden school system. The forms of in-service education used and usable in Camden were chosen and committees for each form and representing each unit, department, or phase of the school program were appointed to develop detailed plans. These committees will direct their efforts primarily the first year to one problem, the next year to another, and so on for 5 years or until the 5 problems have been covered.

If, for example, pupil adjustment is the problem for next year, the whole staff led by committees will be concentrating on it. Group extension course work will direct its energies in the same direction; teachers' meetings will have for their central theme pupil adjustment; directed professional reading will emphasize that problem; educational research will be planned accordingly; and so on through the list of in-service activities to be used in Camden. The following year a similar, corrected, cooperative attack will be made on another problem. Other problems will not be slighted, and at the end of a given year the problem just studied will not be dropped or forgotten.

It is believed that this unification of effort, this emphasis on common problems, one each year (possibly two or three is feasible), will result not only in teacher growth but in a more rapid improvement of the school program than could otherwise be expected. The Camden plan is worthy of attention.

ADDITIONAL PROBLEMS

The following are proposed as urgent problems requiring further study and research in the field of the in-service education of teachers:

1. The relation of in-service education to salary schedules is still a matter of speculation. Should salary increments depend upon evidence of professional growth? If so, what measures of professional growth are feasible and wise? Should there be a point on the salary scale below which these measures should not apply, the increments being automatic if the teacher is retained, but above which measurable requirements should be enforced? What are the advantages and dangers of relating salary increments to professional improvement?

2. The relation of certification to tenure is still undetermined in many States. The variety of practices in both fields complicates the problem. The principles on which certification and tenure should be based are too unsettled at present to justify any positive conclusions. This problem is clearly related to the education of teachers in service.

3. The coordination of pre-service and in-service teacher education presents another unsolved problem. What should be the length and nature of preservice preparation for the several phases of school service? What should be the nature of in-service education?

4. What constitutes a satisfactory program of in-service education? To what extent should it be unified?

5. What agencies should be primarily responsible for developing a program of in-service education in a given school community? The local school system? The State education department? Professional teachers organizations? Recognized institutions of teacher education? The last four questions raise four separate yet related problems. What part should each agency play?

6. Can or should the present distinction between "consumer" and "producer" in teacher education be eliminated? If so, how?

7. What constitutes "promotion?" How can it be properly related to the education of teachers in service? Should it be so related?

8. What bearing have service loads of teachers on the character and extent of their efforts to improve professionally?

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Nearly all organized in-service education of teachers is conducted under the auspices of four agencies: (1) Recognized institutional agencies; (2) State education departments; (3) local school systems, and (4) professional organizations of teachers.
2. Among the recognized institutional agencies are included: (1) Private normal schools; (2) municipal and State normal schools and teachers colleges; (3) special schools, proprietary and eleemosynary; (4) public and private colleges of arts and sciences; and (5) schools, colleges, and departments of education in private and public universities.
3. The means used by the four agencies of in-service education are: (1) Teachers' meetings; (2) supervision; (3) committee work; (4) visiting days; (5) leaves of absence; (6) informal discussion; (7) experimentation; (8) reading circles; (9) exchange of teachers; (10) research projects; (11) educational clinics; (12) demonstration teaching; (13) contributions to educational literature; (14) membership in professional groups; (15) teacher self-rating; (16) group extension classes; (17) correspondence study; (18) summer schools; (19) regular academic-year study; (20) late afternoon, evening, and Saturday classes; (21) short field trips for study; (22) educational exhibits; (23) libraries; (24) museums; (25) bibliographies; (26) circulars and bulletins; (27) school surveys; (28) substitute teaching; (29) teachers' examinations; (30) the press (books, magazines, and newspapers); (31) the radio; (32) the cinema; and (33) participation in civic affairs.
4. Due to institutional domination of thought regarding in-service education of teachers, the "consumer's" viewpoint is stressed early in the report. This emphasis tends to place all agencies and all means in proper perspective one with another.
5. Composite judgments of school administrators and teachers of the various agencies and means of in-service education are reported in terms of their actual experience. These judgments are not, therefore, real or absolute values.
6. "Consumers'" judgments do not vary materially on the bases of geographical location, size of school communities, continuity of service in present school system, or levels of teaching service.

In fact the judgments of administrators and of teachers do not differ widely from each other.

7. In the study of judgments each form of in-service activity was analyzed, as far as practicable, into specific purposes.
8. Administrators and teachers agree on the high value of teachers' meetings, particularly if the following topics are under consideration: (1) Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program; (2) standards for evaluating classroom achievement (teaching efficiency); (3) local educational policies, for example, homogeneous grouping of children, directed study, and "activities" program; (4) methods of teaching related to separate units of courses of the school program; (5) relation of school and home; and (6) modern educational movements.
9. The methods of conducting teachers' meetings were studied according to the following classification: (1) Scheduled addresses by local staff members; (2) scheduled addresses by "outside" speakers; (3) group discussion led by local staff members; (4) group discussion led by "outside" talent; (5) scheduled addresses and group discussion by local staff members; (6) scheduled addresses by "outside" speakers, followed by group discussion; (7) demonstration teaching with a group of children by local staff members, followed by discussion; (8) demonstration teaching with a group of children by "outside" talent, followed by discussion; (9) "clinical" demonstration by local staff members of a process or an activity not involving teaching problems, for example, keeping attendance records or constructing a bulletin board; (10) "clinical" demonstration by "outside" talent of a process or activity not involving a teaching problem; (11) exhibit of books, equipment, special materials in instruction or pupils' work, conducted by local staff members; and (12) exhibit of books, equipment, special materials in instruction of pupils' work, conducted by "outside" agencies.
10. Teachers' meetings were judged to be of greatest value when the following three methods are used: (1) Group discussion by local staff members; (2) scheduled addresses by outside speakers; and (3) scheduled addresses by local staff members.
11. Administrators believe that the following five topics should be included in teachers' meetings more often than they are now: (1) Relation of school and local community; (2) recent educational literature; (3) local educational policies; (4) recent educational research or experimentation; and (5) general inspirational topics.
12. Teachers placed the following five topics first in their list of suggestions regarding the improvement of teachers' meetings: (1)

- Specific objectives related to separate units of the school program; (2) methods of teaching, related to separate units or courses of the school program; (3) relation of school and local community; and (4) general educational objectives.
13. Both administrators and teachers rank the following topics for teachers' meetings very low in importance: (1) Routine administrative duties of teachers, and (2) buildings, grounds, and equipment.
 14. Administrators and teachers rate the following agencies as most helpful in teachers' meetings: (1) Local school systems and (2) professional organizations. They rank State education departments low. Educational institutions receive only 1 favorable vote in 10.
 15. Visiting days are judged helpful when used to study special educational projects or activities, classroom organization and management, and educational exhibits of materials or results achieved by local teachers and pupils.
 16. Committee work is rated high by administrators and by teachers as a means of in-service education. The 2 activities rated highest in a list of 9 purposes are: (1) Revising courses of study (local or State), and (2) selecting textbooks, supplementary books, equipment, teaching materials, etc.
 17. Supervision was subdivided into 23 activities. The three rated highest by administrators are: (1) Helping analyze and solve personality and adjustment problems of individual pupils; (2) helping by recognizing and commending good work; and (3) observing teaching and discussing the work observed. The three rated most valuable by teachers are: (1) Helping maintain wholesome physical and mental health; (2) helping to develop a more pleasing teaching personality; and (3) advising as to helpful academic or professional courses to improve teaching efficiency.
 18. Radio education is rated high as a potential means of direct-teacher education. At present its indirect educational value is highly regarded.
 19. Private broadcasting companies clearly outdistance any other radio agency in providing programs of an educative nature for teachers in service. They are rated by administrators and teachers as twice as effective in this regard as radio broadcasts from colleges and universities. This is a distinct challenge and applies with increased weight to other educational agencies that use radio as a means of improving the work of teachers in service.

20. There is a miscellaneous list of means of in-service education that is highly regarded by administrators and teachers. The list includes: (1) Leaves of absence for study and travel, (2) research projects, (3) experimentation, (4) educational clinics, (5) museums, (6) libraries, (7) individual reading, (8) writing, (9) reading circles, (10) selected bibliographies, (11) membership in teachers' organizations, (12) exchange of teachers, (13) circulars and bulletins, (14) school surveys, (15) apprentice teaching, (16) substitute teaching, school publicity, and (17) teacher self-rating.
21. The data in the report related to consumers' judgments should be studied by all interested in the education of teachers in service as a basis for improving the means used by the various agencies. Causes should be traced, new ways developed for handling the means and studies of an experimental nature undertaken to determine actual values of the several means. The judgments recorded should be a challenge to new and renewed effort on the part of all in-service agencies.
22. In the 48 States there are 306 kinds of renewable certificates issued by the State education departments, 120, or 39.2 percent, of which require some form of in-service education for renewal. Renewable certificates in the study made are defined as those whose validity may be renewed for an additional definite period of time.
23. In the 48 States there are 304 kinds of exchangeable certificates issued, 145, or 47.7 percent, of which requires some form of in-service education for exchange. Exchangeable certificates are those which may be exchanged for an advanced grade of certificate in the same field or class.
24. The two statements above indicate that State certification is by no means a negligible factor in the education of teachers in service. The large number of renewable and exchangeable certificates issued, however, suggests that careful study of the problem might result in more desirably uniform practice. The details of this part of the report clearly indicate the need for studying certification of teachers to the end that this means be developed as an increasingly effective means of teacher improvement.
25. Permanent certificates to teach may be obtained in 43 States on the basis of approved credentials and in 18 States on the basis of examination. The policy of permanent certification is a questionable one because of its possible detrimental effect on professional growth.

26. Recognized institutions of teacher education (colleges, universities, teachers colleges, and normal schools were studied as a part of this investigation) are performing valuable services especially for their graduates according to judgments of staff members of these institutions and of school administrators and teachers. These services are reported under the following heads: (1) Visitation of teachers in the field, (2) follow-up work through personal correspondence, (3) lecture service, (4) library service, (5) museum service, (6) radio service, (7) service of research bureaus, (8) placement bureau service, (9) individual and group conferences at the home institution, (10) intramural courses, (11) extramural courses, (12) field courses, (13) correspondence courses, and (14) cooperative research.
27. There are many difficulties in the development of successful plans for conducting these services, nearly all of which are institutional in character. These difficulties are not insurmountable and are partly due to failure to consider such services from the viewpoint of the consumer. The last point is not well supported by the data of this report, but is clearly implied in the original studies from which data for this report were drawn. The need for new services and for a more vitalized program of teacher education among these institutions is conspicuous to any student of their service programs and the administration of them.
28. A comparative study of regular faculty members and correspondence study faculties in the North Central Association area with reference to professional qualifications reveals that they are approximately equal. Quality of work done and results obtained with students are matters on which there is no conclusive evidence available at present. Correspondence study for teachers in service is still a moot question but one worthy of careful study. There is probably a too-ready condemnation of correspondence study partly justified, of course, by the early history of the movement.
29. Evidence regarding the relation of extension load and various aspects of the total service load of teachers is too meager to warrant positive conclusions. The evidence presented suggests that it is an individual teacher problem and that, therefore, it is impossible to generalize for all teachers or even for groups of teachers.
30. The in-service education of vocational teachers is an outstanding example of positive and definite action. There are four general fields of vocational education as classified by the Federal Board for Vocational Education: (1) Trade and industry,

(2) agriculture, (3) home economics, and (4) commercial education. The Federal Government, States, local school systems, and recognized schools and colleges are the agencies responsible in varying degrees for the development, promotion, and conduct of the means used.

31. There are 10 means reported for the conduct of in-service education of vocational teachers: (1) General mandatory requirements, (2) special summer school study, (3) special group work, (4) specialized summer school courses, (5) supervision, (6) institutional extension service, (7) itinerant teacher training, (8) required additional occupational experience, (9) committee work, and (10) conferences. A study of these means as they are practiced in the four fields of vocational service has value in the development of plans for other aspects of the school program that are less well provided for in the matter of in-service education.

32. A unified program of in-service education is found in the Camden (N.J.) plan. This idea or some modification of it seems to be of great importance in considering ways and means of providing for the in-service education of teachers. The present haphazard method generally found in local school systems throughout the country must give ground to systematic planning. Unification of effort among all in-service agencies seems to be one feasible solution to the problem.

The studies and literature in the field of in-service education of teachers is growing rapidly in volume. More than 400 references, most of which are annotated, were assembled as a part of the study of in-service education of teachers. Many of these references may be found in volume I of the Survey report. The complete list referred to at the beginning of part V is on file at the Office of Education and at New York University.

PART 7

PART VII. THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS¹

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Social-economic influences.—Education should be interpreted at all times against a background of social and economic life. This is especially true of education in rural areas where the local nature of schools makes them particularly sensitive to community influence. For this reason at least passing reference must be made in this chapter to the recent social-economic conditions of American farm life and their effect upon the general welfare and teaching personnel of rural schools.

Summarized in simplest terms, our present agricultural distress is now understood to be fundamentally related to the World War. This is best illustrated by a comparison of rural and urban prices during the last two decades. From 1910 to 1914 the price index of farm products coincided almost identically with the urban price index, resulting in a period of normal economic balance in rural-urban relationships. Then came the World War, and all prices began to soar. For various reasons, food prices soon outstripped others, giving American farm life its "Golden Age" of prosperity between the years 1915 and 1919. This was the greatest period of expansion ever known in the history of agriculture, finding expression in extreme land speculation, expensive machinery, costly consolidated schools, better salaries for teachers, and other upward trends with which we are now familiar.

Suddenly the war closed, and European war-enhanced markets disappeared over night. But American farmers, artificially stimulated by the memory of high prices, continued to produce abundantly and thus created the unmarketable "surpluses" which have since wrecked the prices of agricultural commodities and reduced farm income to its present low level. For a decade this disaster was unheeded (from 1920 to 1929). During this decade the cash income of farmers dropped 59 percent, which finally destroyed the purchasing power of 32,000,000 farm citizens and added greatly to the glut of manufactured goods in the domestic market. This in turn increased unemployment in cities, and during the last 4 years has brought practically the whole population to economic grief.

¹ This part of the Survey was prepared by Mabel Carney, associate professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

The direct effects of this great panorama of national and international events upon schools and teachers in rural areas may be summarized as follows:

1. There has been a notable exodus of unemployed families from the cities into the country. Two million people have made this change since 1931.

2. This exodus from the cities has increased rural school enrollment and added greatly to the work and responsibility of rural teachers.

3. For a decade or more farmers have been desperately short of money with which to pay taxes and other cash charges. This with its related factors has depleted funds for school support and reduced salaries for teachers. As a result there are now proportionately "more people on farms but with less money" than ever before in the history of the Nation.

4. Meanwhile the huge unemployment in cities, already explained as being due largely to the loss of farm purchasing power, has placed great premium upon security, and has practically eliminated turn-over among urban teachers. This in turn is forcing many of the graduates of normal schools and teachers colleges to choose between taking a rural school or going without a position of any type. Such a situation makes it increasingly difficult to predetermine the prospective teachers likely to enter rural schools and, as shown later, is tending temporarily at least to modify the heretofore commonly accepted practice of specialized curricula for rural teachers in training.

Definition of "rural" teachers.—The term "rural" properly defined and as used in the United States census refers to all groups in our population who live either in the open country or in towns of 2,500 or less. When associated with the word "small", as used in this chapter, it will refer primarily to 1- and 2-teacher schools in the open country. With these are included, though in a separate category and for comparative purposes, a number of 3- or more-teacher schools in the open country. This latter grouping obviously includes some consolidated schools (those in the open country), but these unfortunately were not segregated when data were collected and could not be separately analyzed. No schools in towns or villages of even less than 2,500 have been included.

The United States Office of Education reported 148,712 1-teacher rural schools for the year 1930 and 23,290 2-teacher schools.² Schools of the 1-teacher type predominate in the Middle West and those of the 2-teacher type occur most frequently in the South. Nine Mid-western States and New York and Pennsylvania each contain more than six thousand 1-teacher schools and 19 States have more than three thousand each, while Illinois heads the entire list with 10,146.

² Statistics of State School Systems. Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-29. Ch. II. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. (Office of Education, Bulletin 1931, no. 20.)

Two-teacher schools are most numerous in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas. Each of these States reported more than a thousand 2-teacher schools in 1930. In these two groups of schools are employed 195,282 teachers (white and Negro), constituting roughly one-third of all the public elementary-school teachers of the Nation. Of this number 161,884 are white teachers.

Adequacy and sources of data.—Replies were received in the National Survey (inquiry 1) from 61,299 of the 161,884 white teachers of the type defined.³ This 40 percent sampling of white teachers in small rural schools was well distributed geographically, all 48 States being included. Those States with the greatest proportion of 1- and 2-teacher schools were especially well represented. It must be admitted, however, that here as in most questionnaire studies there has probably been a greater response from the better-prepared and more ambitious teachers; or at least from those under the better systems of administration and supervision. Aside from this, the data on rural teachers of the small-school, open-country type are thought to be reasonably adequate and to present a fair picture of the personnel serving this most baffling and neglected phase of American education.

Less complete, as will appear later, are the findings of the survey on the theory and practice of specialized preparation for rural teachers. Fortunately, however, other data are available on this and other aspects of the problem under consideration and for practically the same period of time. These additional sources which will be drawn upon freely as need arises are acknowledged herewith:

1. The study by Walter H. Gaumnitz of the United States Office of Education on the Status of Teachers and Principals Employed in the Rural Schools of the United States.⁴

2. A study by the present writer summarized in the Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.⁵

3. A second study made by the writer in 1932-33, for purposes of comparison and to discover recent trends in the amount of specialization favored for teachers of small rural schools. The same questionnaire used in the study cited in 2 above was used also in this study.

4. A number of smaller studies in the theory and practice of rural-teacher preparation made recently by graduate students and others.

³ The data and discussions of this chapter relate wholly to white rural teachers. Negro teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools, of whom there are 24,408, constituting more than half of the whole Negro teaching force of the United States, have been included with other Negro teachers in the special volume devoted to this group and prepared by Dr. Ambrose Caliver, senior specialist in the education of Negroes, U.S. Office of Education. (See vol. IV.)

⁴ Gaumnitz, Walter H. *Status of Teachers and Principals Employed in the Rural Schools of the United States*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. (Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, no. 3.)

⁵ Carney, Mabel. *The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools. The Status of Rural Education*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1931. (National Society for the Study of Education. Thirtieth yearbook, pt. I, ch. VI.)

General professional significance of the welfare of rural teachers.—

The general bearing of the welfare of rural teachers upon the whole profession of teaching is not always appreciated. If it were, much more might have been done during the last quarter century by those in authority, particularly by normal school and teachers college administrators, to raise standards for rural teaching and to attract a greater number of able and idealistic young people into its service. Support for this belief may be found in the records of a number of teacher-preparing institutions which have already made notable contributions in this direction when administered by executives interested in rural problems. Granting a possible difference of opinion on this point, however, it is apparent that no professional group could hope to prosper while neglecting for a fourth of its entire membership, matters of such vital consequence as selection of personnel, adequate preparation, standardized certification, compensating salary scales, and the other professional qualifications so often and so long neglected in the case of rural teachers. As shown by Professor Bagley in 1920, immature and untrained teachers have long made the rural school "the weakest link" in American education and the point at which vulnerable inroads upon the whole profession of teaching and of education as a social service are most commonly made.⁶ Additional and continuing evidence of the importance of the welfare of rural teachers to the profession at large is shown repeatedly throughout this Survey as, for example, in the proposals on personnel (vols. II and VI), where a majority of the recommendations on the upgrading of teachers relate directly or indirectly to teachers of rural schools.

⁶ Keith, John A. H., and Bagley, W. C. *The Nation and the Schools*. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1920. p. 208.

CHAPTER II

FINDINGS OF THE NATIONAL SURVEY CONCERNING TEACHERS OF SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

Age, sex, and marital status.—Of 61,172 teachers in 1- and 2-teacher open-country schools responding to the inquiry on age, 25 percent were 22 years of age or younger. The oldest fourth were 31 years of age or older, while the middle 50 percent of the entire group ranged in age from 22 to 31 and averaged 24 years. Open-country teachers in 3- or more-teacher schools were slightly older, showing an interquartile range of 23 to 32 years, and a median age of 25. Comparable figures for the first quartile, the median, and the third quartile of village teachers in towns of less than 2,500 were 23, 26, and 33 years; for elementary school teachers in cities of 2,500 to 10,000 they were 24, 28, and 36 years; for those in cities ranging from 10,000 to 100,000 they were 26, 30, and 39 years; and for elementary teachers in cities of more than 100,000 they were 26, 33, and 43 years.

From this brief array of data it is evident that the youngest and least mature teachers in public education are still to be found in 1- and 2-teacher schools just where the demands for life experience and professional insight are most numerous. This is especially noted when attention is fixed upon individual data for the youngest fourth of such teachers in which several hundred teachers below 18 years of age are found. Gaumnitz¹ found 23.5 percent of all teachers of 1-room schools to be 20 years of age or younger. Most States set the minimum legal age for certification for teaching at 18 years; and this combined with the increasing competition in the profession is gradually pushing age levels for rural school teachers up to those for teachers in other divisions of the elementary field, exclusive only of the very large cities where most of the older teachers are congregated.

As commonly known, elementary school teaching in the United States is done chiefly by women. In the present study 87.8 percent of all teachers in the open country were women, as compared with 95.7 percent of all elementary teachers in cities. Thus the proportion of men among rural elementary teachers, 12.2 percent, was almost three times as great as among urban elementary teachers where it was but 4.3 percent. In six States, Arkansas, Indiana, New Mexico, Ohio,

¹ Gaumnitz, Walter H. *Status of Teachers and Principals Employed in the Rural Schools of the United States*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1932. (U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, no. 2.)

Utah, and West Virginia, 30 percent or more of the rural elementary schools were taught by men, while in Kentucky, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania more than 20 percent of all rural teachers were men.

In the matter of marital status it was rather surprising to find more married women teaching in rural schools (18.6 percent) than in urban elementary schools (16.5 percent). Ten States, Arizona, California, Delaware, Florida, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Oregon, Rhode Island, and South Carolina, reported married women in a third or more of all rural teaching positions while only two States, California and Florida, made a similar report for urban elementary schools.

Education and professional preparation.—Of the 161,884 white teachers in 1- and 2-teacher open-country schools in the United States in 1930 roughly one third, or 61,299, replied to questions of the National Survey, concerning education and professional preparation. Of these 61,299 teachers 33.6 percent, as indicated in table 1 were 4-year high-school graduates with 1 year of college education, and 28.7 percent were graduates of accredited high schools with 2 years of college background. Practically interpreted this means that 62.3 of all those replying were high-school graduates with 1 or 2 years of normal school training. Other figures from the same returns showed 9 percent of those replying to have had a 4-year high-school education only, while 9.9 percent had had but 6 to 12 weeks of college study, probably in summer sessions. Six percent, on the other hand, had had 3 years of college education beyond high school and 3 percent were 4-year college graduates.

TABLE 1.—Highest level of training of rural school teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools in the open country

State	Total teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools	Number of replying	Non-graduate of elementary schools	Graduate of elementary schools 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	5 years of college	6 years of college
Alabama	4,196	1,044		0.1	0.4	1.1	1.4	2.8	4.8	2.7	45.8	30.8	18.7	10.7	2.8	0.2
Arizona	280	132				7.0	0.2	14.5	24.4	9.8	6.2	47.0	19.7	10.7	2.8	4.5
Arkansas	5,987	639	0.3	4.0	2.7	7.0	0.2	14.5	24.4	9.8	6.2	47.0	19.7	10.7	2.8	4.5
California	2,387	967	0.2	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.6	2.9	4.9	2.7	14.0	24.0	18.7	10.7	2.8	4.5
Colorado	2,451	928	0.4	1.1	0.2	0.4	1.1	1.1	4.2	10.1	20.3	37.5	18.1	10.7	2.8	4.5
Connecticut	577	270	0.4	1.4	1.7	2.6	2.0	12.2	1.9	4.4	4.5	71.1	2.2	1.3		0.6
Delaware	268	60	1.7	1.7	1.7	7.7	1.7	8.3	1.7	6.0	20.0	40.0	10.0	1.3		
Florida	1,404	180	2.8	6.8	4.4	7.7	18.6	11.6	7.7	10.8	14.6	18.6	6.9	6.8		
Georgia	4,848	171		1.8	1.2	2.3	2.0	22.2	22.2	2.6	14.6	18.6	6.9	6.8		
Idaho	1,400	163			0.6	2.3	2.0	22.2	22.2	1.9	9.8	72.5	6.2	6.3		
Illinois	11,072	4,844	1.1	8.3	1.1	1.1	7.7	3.8	9.8	10.1	42.2	20.6	10.1	1.7		1.1
Indiana	2,802	1,184	3.3	6.6	1.1	1.7	1.1	7.7	1.6	2.3	20.6	60.4	10.1	2.3		3.3
Iowa	9,638	4,130		3.3	2.2	5.5	6.6	20.8	20.8	10.2	16.8	14.1	1.6	2.1		1.1
Kansas	8,268	3,104			1.1	5.5	2.2	31.8	20.1	7.6	15.8	18.7	8.6	1.6		1.1
Kentucky	7,349	1,260		4.4	8.8	7.0	8.8	6.6	2.2	12.1	20.3	24.0	8.3	2.6		1.1
Louisiana	2,322	602	7.7	7.7	2.2	2.2	2.2	1.2	4.0	4.7	22.6	61.0	9.0	2.8		2.2
Maine	2,325	627	3.3	2.2	2.2	6.6	8.8	10.4	9.1	6.2	20.7	47.8	2.4	9.9		2.2
Maryland	1,006	521	3.3	1.0	8.8	1.1	1.0	4.4	1.0	1.0	18.7	70.6	6.3	2.2		2.2
Massachusetts	778	160	1.3	0.6	1.3	1.9	7.6	2.1	2.6	8.1	64.6	46.6	4.4	2.6		2.2
Michigan	6,808	2,709		1.1	1.1	2.2	1.1	1.1	2.6	2.0	47.2	20.7	2.8	2.6		2.2
Minnesota	7,097	2,806		1.1	2.2	1.1	2.2	2.6	2.6	2.2	70.2	17.1	2.0	8.8		1.0
Mississippi	4,305	203		0.9	0.6	4.5	2.4	14.8	23.6	5.0	15.8	18.2	7.4	2.9		1.0
Missouri	7,942	641				2.2	2.2	9.0	11.5	7.8	21.6	24.9	11.4	2.8		1.1
Montana	2,913	1,112			1.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	4.1	6.1	20.0	43.3	7.1	4.3		1.1
Nebraska	6,413	2,960		1.1		1.1	1.1	2.2	22.1	9.2	20.2	15.8	1.9	1.3		1.1

TABLE 1.—Highest level of training of rural school teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools in the open country—Continued

State	Total teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools	Number replying	Non-graduate of elementary schools only	Graduate of elementary schools 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	1 year of graduate work
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Nevada.....	225	125													
New Hampshire.....	917	260	4	4	1.1	8	3.9	2.2	6.6	2.2	22.2	23.3	15.6	14.1	
New Jersey.....	727	336	6	21	1.1	9	1.5	5.2	2.5	7.5	8.8	67.3	7.1	2.0	
New Mexico.....	1,152	218	5	5	2.3	1.0	1.2	11.0	4.7	7.7	11.6	64.5	2.1	2.1	6
New York.....	9,056	4,108	2	6	6.0	2.2	4.2	12.4	16.1	11.5	20.5	16.1	7.7	2.0	7
North Carolina.....	4,314	664		7	4	7	1.7	8.3	4.4	3.3	34.2	32.7	8.4	4.8	3
North Dakota.....	4,558	2,753	1	1	1	1	1.2	1.2	2.2	15.1	35.2	18.6	1.9	1.1	1
Ohio.....	5,134	1,817	3	1.3	4	7	6	1.3	1.7	1.6	37.2	45.2	6.9	2.4	3
Oklahoma.....	4,674	1,271	1		2	4	1	2.2	6.5	4.5	20.0	48.7	12.0	4.0	3
Oregon.....	1,912	961		3	3	1.3	5	2.2	4.9	1.9	16.0	59.3	7.5	4.1	4
Pennsylvania.....	9,053	3,842	2	2.2	5	1.2	1.2	2.2	2.7	2.3	16.5	56.4	7.7	2.1	2
Rhode Island.....	2,100	41	2.5	2.5				12.1	2.5	2.5	19.6	34.1	12.1	12.1	1
South Carolina.....	2,049	164						7.9	5.5	4.3	11.0	25.2	7.3	21.7	1.7
South Dakota.....	4,904	1,802	2	4	6	7	3	5.2	10.7	4.2	42.6	22.0	3.8	3.2	1
Tennessee.....	6,499	1,698	1	8	6	1.7	1.7	5.2	10.9	8.6	44.0	15.1	2.6	2.8	2
Texas.....	8,939	1,051		2	3	4	6	2.3	2.0	1.9	30.0	40.2	15.3	2.8	2
Utah.....	1,197	60						1.4	1.4	1.4	4.4	71.1	14.5	4.4	1.4
Vermont.....	1,293	452	3	5	9	9	1.8	8.3	2.9	1.3	43.6	35.4	3.2	2.4	5
Virginia.....	4,716	1,379	1	4	3	8	4	9	3.8	2.5	46.2	32.4	2.5	4.4	1
Washington.....	1,658	904		2	2	2	6	8	1.1	4	2.3	71.8	14.8	2.3	8
West Virginia.....	5,905	20					2.4		2.4	2.4	10.4	48.3	6.9	24.2	2
Wisconsin.....	7,220	3,551	2	2	1	5	3	5.9	4.6	1.1	72.7	10.5	2.6	7	8
Wyoming.....	1,119	506	2	6	2	2		10.0	13.4	8.0	38.0	18.5	6.0	4.0	1.1
Total.....	194,292 ¹	51,299	1	6	4	1.0	1.1	9.0	9.9	6.1	21.6	28.7	6.0	2.0	4

¹ This total includes 24,403 colored teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools for Negroes. (See the South's Negro Teaching Force, by Fred McCullough, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Nashville, Tenn.)

For the 13,500 white teachers in 3- or more-teacher, open-country schools who submitted usable returns, comparable figures were as follows: 47 percent were 4-year high-school graduates with 2 years of college education; 17.9 percent were high-school graduates with 1 year of college; 2.7 percent, high-school graduates only; 13.4 had had 3 years of college education; while 10.2 percent had had a 4-year college course. It is thus apparent that even 3- and 4-teacher schools prove more attractive to better-prepared teachers than do 1- and 2-teacher schools.

From table 1 it will be further observed that the highest percentage of teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools were reported as high-school graduates with 2 years of college education in 24 States. In 16 other States the highest percentages were high-school graduates with 1 year of college study. Six States, on the other hand, indicated high-school education with or without a summer session of 6 to 12 weeks as their most prevalent standard for teachers in this field, while in Florida most teachers of small rural schools had had only 3 years of high school, and in California the highest percentage of rural teachers had had 3 years of college background.

This analysis affords gratifying impressions of progress in the upgrading of teachers for the smallest and most neglected rural schools but to those acquainted with conditions in this field and familiar with other recent studies of rural-teacher qualification, it raises some doubts concerning the representativeness of the teachers who supplied the data. Gaumnitz, for example, in the study previously mentioned with about 50 percent more replies than were received for the National Survey, found the median preparation of teachers in 1-room rural schools for the Nation as a whole to be but high-school level or 4 years and 2 months beyond the elementary grades, while that for 2-teacher rural schools was 4 years and 5 months beyond elementary grades and that for open-country schools with 3 or more teachers was 5 years. Of 60,854 teachers in 1-teacher schools Gaumnitz found 5,277 teachers with 1 year or less beyond the elementary grades; 11,293 with less than 4 years of high school; 15,550 who were high-school graduates only; 10,711 with 2 years beyond high school, presumably normal-school graduates; and 1,112 who had had 4 years of college education.

From the foregoing, two precautions regarding the validity of the rural findings of the present study seem warranted. First the reader should compare the two left columns of table 1 for any given State to note the relative proportion of all 1- and 2-room school teachers replying. In the second place it seems safe to surmise, as pointed out previously, that the inquiry blanks sent out by the Survey would be answered more often by the better prepared rural teachers than by the less well prepared. Under these circumstances it is prob-

able that the data presented here are rather generous in the showing made for most States and that complete returns upon all teachers of this group would be less favorable. Furthermore, the entire national picture of the 1- and 2-teacher school situation as to teachers and all other factors is drastically modified in a downward direction, whenever Negro schools are included, but these, as previously explained, have been omitted from the discussions of this chapter.

Table 2 presents a comparison of the highest level of training of all elementary teachers studied for the Survey as classified by location. Here it is apparent that rural teachers in 1- and 2-room schools lag decidedly behind other groups of elementary teachers even when the data of this study are accepted at face value. The greatest percentage of teachers of this type reporting (33.6 percent) had only 1 year of college education while for all other elementary groups the greatest percentage, (from 47 to 55) had 2 years of college, being in most cases graduates of complete 2-year curricula in normal schools and teachers colleges. A comparison of the various groups at the high-school level reveals that 1- and 2-teacher schools had from three to four times as many teachers of this type as did other elementary schools, even open-country schools of the 3- or more teacher classification.

TABLE 2.—Highest level of training of elementary teachers by location

Level of training	Rural, 1- and 2-teacher schools	Open country, 3 or more teachers	Village, less than 2,500 population	City, 2,500 to 9,999 population	City, 10,000 to 99,999 population	City, more than 100,000 population	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Nongraduate of elementary school.....	0.1		0.1				
Graduate of elementary school only.....	.6	0.4	.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
1 year of high school.....	.4	.2	.2		.1	.1	.2
2 years of high school.....	1.0	.6	.4	.3	.2	.2	.5
3 years of high school.....	1.1	.6	.6	.5	.5	.5	.7
4 years of high school.....	9.0	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.1	4.0
6 to 12 weeks of college.....	9.9	3.4	2.4	1.3	1.0	.6	3.6
Half year of college.....	6.1	2.6	2.1	1.1	.8	.5	2.4
1 year of college.....	33.6	17.9	12.4	6.9	5.2	5.1	14.5
2 years of college.....	28.7	47.0	54.0	55.1	55.1	47.0	46.2
3 years of college.....	6.0	13.4	15.7	18.8	19.7	21.8	15.5
4 years of college.....	3.0	10.2	8.4	12.2	13.0	16.9	10.2
1 year of graduate work.....	.4	.8	.7	1.2	1.3	2.3	1.3
2 years of graduate work.....	.1	.2	.2	.2	.3	1.1	.4
3 years of graduate work.....						.4	.1
More than 3 years of graduate work.....						.3	.1
Number involved.....	61, 299	13, 550	51, 126	26, 945	45, 278	50, 449	248, 648

Viewed from another angle, table 2 shows that one-eighth or 12.2 percent of open-country teachers in 1- and 2-room schools, 4.1 percent of village teachers, and from 3 to 3.5 percent of urban teachers had only 4 years of high-school education or less. Three-fifths, or 61.8 percent, of rural teachers, 21 percent of village teachers, and from 12.5 to 9.2 percent of urban teachers had less than 2 years beyond

high school and were not normal-school graduates. Another comparison shows that 28.7 percent of rural teachers, 54 percent of village teachers, and 55 percent of urban teachers (in small and medium-sized cities) were graduates of 2-year courses in normal schools or teachers colleges. Full college training of 4 years duration characterized only 3 percent of rural teachers, 8.4 percent of the elementary teachers in villages, and 12 to 16 percent of the elementary teachers in the various urban groups. Graduate work scarcely affects rural teachers at all (0.4 percent) nor village teachers (0.7 percent) but is recorded for urban elementary teachers 1.2 to 3.3 percent.

In volume II of this Survey a comparison has been made of the different types of teachers answering Survey inquiries on the basis of the bachelor's degree. It was found that 85 percent of all senior high school teachers held this degree, 56 percent of junior high school teachers, 10 percent of all village and urban elementary teachers, 9.4 percent of open-country teachers in 3-or-more-teacher schools, and but 2.6 percent of rural teachers in 1- and 2-room schools. Thus on every count the small rural school maintains its traditional reputation for attracting the most immature and inadequately prepared members of the teaching profession.

Field of most training.—All teachers of elementary schools who filled out inquiry blanks for the National Survey of the Education of Teachers were asked to check the specialized field of teaching for which they had received most training. The 61,407 rural teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools who replied to this question reported their specialization as follows: For rural school teaching 63.3 percent; for kindergarten-primary 9 percent; for intermediate grades 14.7 percent; for upper elementary grades 6.7 percent; for junior high school 3.3 percent; for senior high school 2.6 percent; for junior college 0.1 percent; and for other fields 0.3 percent.

Here again those familiar with the conditions in rural schools are likely to question the validity of this large percentage of rural-teacher specialization. This skepticism is increased still further by comparing the replies received with the records of the various States in specialized provision for rural teacher training. More than a dozen States in which from 30 to 70 percent of those replying checked the rural school as their field of specialization are States in which no normal school or teachers college offered differentiated courses and practice teaching for prospective rural teachers in 1930-31. Obviously a good many checked rural here either with an inadequate conception of what constitutes rural specialization or simply because they could not qualify under primary, intermediate, and other classifications.

Grant the benefit of all doubt to those replying to this question, however, and it is still readily apparent from Survey data that rural teachers have had less specialized preparation for their work than

have other groups of elementary teachers. The fact that only 63.3 percent of rural teachers reported rural teaching as their field of most training, while 82.5 percent of kindergarten-primary teachers, 75.9 percent of intermediate grade teachers, and 77 percent of upper elementary and junior high school teachers reported chief preparation in their own respective fields, is additional proof of the failure to regard rural teaching as a standardized service and of the tendency to make it "the weakest link" in education.

Experience.—The transient nature and "stepping-stone" uses of teaching in 1-teacher rural schools are too familiar to require comment. Let it be said only that the findings of the National Survey support previous investigations on this point. The medians of the State medians show that of the 61,209 1- and 2-room teachers under consideration the lowest quarter had had a median experience of 2.48 years, the highest quarter of 9.23 years and the middle 50 percent of the entire group a median of 4.60 years. On the same basis teachers in 3-or-more-teacher schools in the open country were found to show an experience of 3.44 years for the first quarter, of 10.39 years for the third quarter, and 5.73 years for the middle 50 percent.

These figures are in fair accord with the results obtained by Gaumnitz² using data for the preceding year (1929-30). For white teachers in 1-teacher schools he found the total median experience to be 2 years 6 months; for white teachers in 2-teacher schools it was 3 years 7 months; and for white teachers in open-country schools of 3 or more teachers it was 4 years 2 months. For consolidated school teachers Gaumnitz also found the median experience to be 3 years 8 months and for teachers in villages and towns of less than 2,500 it was 4 years 2 months. The difference between the median experience for teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools as shown by the figures quoted from Gaumnitz for 1929-30 and the median obtained from the data of the National Survey for the following year is due possibly to the economic depression which has tended to hold rural teachers and all others in more permanent service.

Comparative data for contrasting the median experience of elementary teachers in urban schools with that of teachers in rural schools were not available at the time this chapter was completed. It is well known, however, that teachers of experience as well as those of better professional preparation drift toward cities where the financial compensation for their experience is greater. In this connection one important consideration needs emphasis. This is the reprehensible practice in certain large cities of requiring experience on the part of young candidates before employment, thus encouraging the undue exploitation of country children, when as a matter of fact the city

² Ibid., table 46, p. 104.

itself because of its highly graded organization and skilled supervision is better prepared to start novitiates in teaching.

Salaries.—Salaries of rural teachers and principals have been studied in much greater detail by Gaumnitz than by anyone else.³ His investigation of 1929-30 showed the median salary of white teachers in 1-teacher rural schools to be \$883 annually, for teachers in 2-teacher schools \$881, and for teachers in 3-or-more-teacher open-country schools \$1,022. Salaries in consolidated schools and in villages of 3 or more teachers were \$1,060 and \$1,174, respectively, a fact which reveals at the outset something of the drawing power of even these slightly larger schools.

Data on salary collected by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers in 1930-31, showed the average yearly salary of teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools with terms 7 months long and over to be \$859.86. When schools 1 to 6 months in length were included, however, as was done by Gaumnitz, this figure shrank to \$780.78. It thus appears that salaries for rural teachers dropped considerably even in 12 months under the acute agricultural crisis of the last 4 years, a trend which is only too familiar in the observation and experience of those directly concerned, and evidence of which will be more fully presented in succeeding paragraphs.

A comparison of the salaries of teachers in 1- and 2-teacher rural schools with those of elementary teachers in larger rural schools and in cities, is most enlightening as an explanation of the shift of professionally trained teachers from rural to urban communities and as evidence of the greater educational opportunity thus afforded children of urban life. Referring to Gaumnitz again⁴ and quoting directly from his discussion it appears that:

In 1930 the salary median in 2-teacher schools was 5.2 percent higher than in 1-teacher schools, in schools of 3 or more teachers located in the open country it was 24.5 percent higher, in consolidated schools it was 31.6 percent higher, in village schools of 3 or more teachers 46.8 percent higher, in cities of 2,500 to 5,000 population 47.5 percent higher, in cities 5,000 to 10,000 population 65.4 percent higher, in cities 10,000 to 30,000 it was 81.1 percent higher, in cities 30,000 to 100,000 it was 104.1 percent higher, and in cities of more than 100,000 population the median salary paid to teachers of elementary schools was 168.7 percent higher. In other words, the median teacher employed in the schools of our largest cities receives a salary more than two and two-thirds times as great as that paid to the teacher employed in the 1-teacher school of the average farming community. In amount the median salary of all classes of rural teachers is just a little more than one-half as large as that of all classes of city teachers.

The effects of these differences in salary upon the quality of teaching and educational opportunity for country children are too obvious to need discussion.

³ *Ibid.*, sec. III, pp. 12-60.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 57.

The most disturbing aspect of the salary situation among rural teachers, however, is the ease with which State schedules and other hard-earned gains have been sacrificed during the current economic depression. This feature of present conditions is bad enough in all schools but particularly bad in rural schools, especially in Negro rural schools, where salaries are lowest and economic resources and safeguards are most lacking. Gaumnitz has made a recent study of this problem also.⁵ For this study he had returns from one-third of all superintendents of county, district, town, and other rural school systems, representing altogether 70,000 schools and 157,000 teachers. The salary data collected were for the fall months of 1932. Of the 1,122 counties reporting, 900 or more than 80 percent had cut salaries during the year. For the Nation as a whole this reduction was 10.6 percent of the average monthly wage paid in 1929-30, the year the present crisis descended. Some States showed average reductions ranging from 20 to 32.2 percent and certain counties reported cuts of 33 to 45 percent.

Still later developments for the school year 1933-34 as reported by the National Education Association indicate that the general reduction of only 10.6 percent in rural teacher salaries found by Gaumnitz was overoptimistic.⁶ For the Nation as a whole it appears from this investigation conducted by Dr. John K. Norton that one-half of all the rural teachers of the United States are now receiving less than \$750 a year which means less than the "blanket code" minimum for unskilled factory labor. At least 40,000 of this number according to the same report are getting less than \$500 a year while many Negro teachers in rural schools are receiving as little as \$100 a year. In the Midwest and South where the agricultural crisis is most acute salaries of \$30 and \$40 a month for well-qualified and experienced white rural teachers are now very common.

The relationship of salary to the qualification and training of rural teachers under more normal conditions is clearly shown by Dr. Paul R. Mort, associate director of the National Survey of School Finance, in the report of his staff entitled *State Support for Public Education*.⁷ The two maps included in this report, based upon data collected for the National Survey of the Education of Teachers and making a county comparison of the salary and training of all white rural teachers in the open country and in towns of less than 2,500, reveal conclusively not only the great variation in educational opportunity throughout the Nation, as measured by these two factors, but also

⁵ Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Effects of the Economic Situation upon the Rural Schools*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1933. (Office of Education Circular No. 80, February 1933.)

⁶ *Current Conditions in the Nation's Schools*. Research bulletin of the N. E. A. Vol. 11, no. 4. November 1933. Washington, D. C.

⁷ Mort, Paul R., and research staff. *State Support for Public Education*. Published through the bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. 1933. ch. 1, pp. 11-31.

the direct relationship between the factors themselves. The fundamental necessity of extensive reforms in most of our State tax systems, particularly in the matter of general dependence upon the property tax, and for increased State aid, more equitably distributed, are likewise stressed and shown to be basic considerations in every attempt at improving rural school salaries and obtaining teachers of higher qualification for country children.

Demand and supply and mobility.—The demands creating opportunity for the employment of new teachers in 1- and 2-teacher open-country schools in the year 1930-31 according to the National Survey of the Education of Teachers were as follows: Predecessor left to teach somewhere else in the State was checked by 51.1 percent of all replying; predecessor married, checked by 13.6 percent; predecessor entered college, 8 percent; predecessor entered another profession or occupation, 7.9 percent; predecessor retired, 6.5 percent; holding a newly created position, 3.3 percent.

To supply these demands teachers for small rural schools were enlisted from the following sources: Another school system in the same State, 42.1 percent; teacher-training class, normal school, or teachers college in the same State, 27.5 percent; college or university in same State, 8.9 percent; a position other than in educational work, 5.7 percent; return to teaching having had some occupation other than education the past year, 5.7 percent; another school system in another State, 2.1 percent.

Particularly significant in relation to this matter of supply and demand is the index of mobility for rural teachers and others. This as computed for the various groups proved to be 1-2.51 for teachers in 1- and 2-teacher rural schools; 1-3.88 for 3- or more-teacher schools in the open-country; 1-3.89 for teachers in villages of less than 2,500 population; 1-6.37 in small cities from 2,500 to 10,000; 1-9.97 in cities from 10,000 to 100,000; and 1-20.15 in cities of more than 100,000. From these figures it will be observed that 2 out of every 5 rural teachers were new to their positions in the year 1930-31 whereas in the large cities only 1 out of every 20 was new. The effects of this instability upon rural schools and upon the whole activity of teaching as a profession are obvious and far-reaching.

By far the most important consideration in this phase of the rural-teacher situation relates to the changes which have taken place in the supply of teachers for rural schools since 1930. These are not shown by the Survey data which were collected in 1930-31 but they are partially available from other sources. Dr. C. C. Ward, when State director of teacher training, Albany, N.Y., found by summary tabulation that of all placed graduates in the normal schools of New York for the spring of 1932 approximately 82 percent took positions in schools under district superintendents; 10 percent in

villages or towns of less than 4,500; and only 8 percent in cities of more than 4,500. Of those locating under the supervision of district superintendents 34 percent went into 1-teacher rural schools; 7 percent into 2-teacher schools; 16 percent into graded schools without academic or high-school departments; and 26 percent into graded schools with academic departments. In the spring of 1933 more than 90 percent of all graduates placed went into schools under the direction of district superintendents. Here certainly is a surprising record for one of the most highly urbanized States in the Nation.

From an inquiry sent out by the writer in November 1932 to all public normal schools and teachers colleges of the country it appears that this condition prevails to greater or less degree over the whole United States. Placement figures are not as accurately kept as might be desired but the estimates of presidents on the number of nonrural graduates going into rural schools ranged consistently from 10 to 50 or 60 percent. This tendency is particularly noticeable in the Middle Atlantic States, where the density of population is greatest, and in the Middle West where the economic depression has been acute. Typical conditions as revealed by these replies may be illustrated by the situation in Minnesota where the 6 State teachers colleges reported 10, 10, 30, 35, 40, and 45 percent of all "urban-intending" graduates in the spring of 1932 as accepting placement in 1-teacher rural schools. From another Midwestern State came the statement: "Graduates now take anything. Even our B.A.'s go into 1-teacher schools. Both 2-year and 4-year graduates are doing domestic service in some cases."

Summary of status and trends in the qualification of rural teachers.—Summarizing from the preceding data it appears that the typical teacher (white) in 1- and 2-teacher open-country schools in 1930-31 was a young woman, unmarried, about 24 years of age and of farm or village background. Her education consisted of 4 years of high school and 1 year or more of professional preparation, somewhat directed to rural school needs. The experience of this typical rural teacher was 4.6 years during which time she had taught in two different rural schools. Her median annual salary in the fall of 1930 was \$788 but during the year she received a salary reduction of 10 percent. She worked 8 months out of 12 teaching 20 to 25 children through the 8 grades of the elementary curriculum and performing, especially during this period of financial depression, a considerable number of community and welfare services as well.

Earlier impressions of the status of rural teachers 10 and 20 years ago may be gathered from studies by Lottis D. Coffman¹ in 1910,

¹ Coffman, L. D. *Social Composition of the Teaching Population*. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1911. (Contributions to Education, no. 43.)

by Harold W. Foght⁹ in 1913, and by John A. H. Keith and W. C. Bagley¹⁰ in 1920. Coffman working with data for 1910 found the median age of women teachers in small rural schools to be 21.42 years, their experience to average 2 years and 2 months, their education to consist of but 3 to 4 years beyond the elementary school, and their average annual salary to total \$366.

Foght from data for 1912, found 4 percent of rural teachers to have had less than 8 years of elementary schooling, 45 percent to have completed 4 years of high school, 32.3 percent to have had no professional preparation whatever, and only 3.2 percent to be normal school graduates. Their average age when beginning to teach was 19.2 years and the average experience was 6.5 years.

Keith and Bagley, summarizing conditions about 1920 for the whole corps of 600,000 teachers employed in the public schools at that time, showed that one-fourth of the entire number were under 21 years of age, that at least 30,000, or 5 percent, had had no education whatever beyond the eighth grade, that 150,000, or one-fourth, had had less than 2 years of high school, and that 150,000 also had had less than 2 years' experience. The great majority of these poorly prepared and immature young people were, of course, struggling with the problems of education in 1- and 2-teacher schools.

From a comparison of the present status of rural teachers with conditions 1 and 2 decades ago it is apparent that the general trend of qualification among this group has been persistently and hopefully upward. After a full half-century of small laborious gains open-country teaching, peculiarly benefited and in some sense favored by the present economic depression with its resulting surplus of teachers, is at last on the threshold of professional standardization. Whether it now attains actual admission into the conclave of the elect will depend upon the wisdom with which necessary adjustments of the immediate future are shortly affected.

⁹ Foght, Harold W. *Efficiency and Preparation of Rural School Teachers*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1915. (Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1914, no. 49.)

¹⁰ Keith, John A. H., and Bagley, W. C. *The Nation and the Schools*. New York, N.Y., The Macmillan Co., 1920.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS OF THE NATIONAL SURVEY CONCERNING THE SPECIALIZED PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

In introducing the discussion of this topic it seems desirable to make clear just what is generally implied by those who advocate specialized preparation for teachers of rural schools. In this a brief statement of development and of present standards in this field will be necessary.

Historical statement.—Surprising as it proves to many persons, the first legislation for teacher training ever enacted in America though not at the time so intended, was later conspicuously associated with this movement for specialized rural preparation. Reference is made here to the teacher-training classes of New York State which were authorized in seminaries and academies in 1834 (5 years before the establishment of the first State normal school in Massachusetts) and which have just been eliminated from the high schools of the State (June 1933) after almost a century of continuous operation and service. This system, imitated widely over the United States, particularly in the Midwest, was for many years the chief source of such training as teachers in small rural schools procured and has been legalized at some time in 34 States. It is still in operation in modified form in seven States, namely, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, and Wyoming. During the height of its usefulness from 1910 to 1925 when it was employed in 27 States, the high-school system of rural-teacher preparation not only contributed a large number of partially prepared teachers to schools of the open country but made several outstanding contributions to the permanent development of American teacher preparation including especially the gradation of practice teaching.

Specialized provisions for the preparation of rural teachers in State normal schools was initiated at Kalamazoo, Mich., in 1904, by Ernest Burnham and has since held its chief development in Middle Western States and in New York and Pennsylvania where the largest proportions of 1-teacher schools are to be found. Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, and Minnesota in the Central West, Washington in the Far West, and Virginia and South Carolina in the South were the first States to become interested in this idea of specialized rural training and to put it into operation before 1909. Following the report of the

Roosevelt Commission on Country Life in that year, however, the movement gained rapid impetus until by 1917 a total of 140 normal schools were offering special rural courses, 77 of these maintaining separately administered departments and 63 giving courses only.¹

Ten years later by 1926-27, Robinson found 151 institutions or 83 percent of all public normal schools and teachers colleges (for whites) offering courses in rural education or otherwise differentiating their instruction for prospective rural elementary teachers.² Seventy-five of these institutions provided specialized rural curricula from 1 to 4 years in length but predominately 2 years long; while 76 others offered rural courses only.

Standards for specialized rural instruction in normal schools and teachers colleges.—From 30 years of experience and practical activity those working in the field of rural teacher preparation have gradually evolved a set of standards for this work which concisely summarize majority opinion. These standards not only represent typical practice in the best institutions to date but have been repeatedly challenged and revised from time to time by rural instructors, normal school presidents, and various other groups of educational leaders concerned with this problem. They were used further as the basis of jury judgments passed upon and very largely approved by all rural instructors, all teachers college presidents, and a generous sampling of county superintendents interrogated for the thirtieth yearbook report of the National Society for the Study of Education.³

In terms of these standards an efficiently organized service for the preparation of rural teachers in a higher educational institution is one which meets the following requirements:

- (1) *Students.*—Enrolls a distinct group of students preparing for rural school service.
- (2) *Curricula.*—Offers one or more partially differentiated curricula preparing specifically for the different phases of rural school work.
- (3) *Practice.*—Provides some practice in typical rural schools (both one-teacher and consolidated) under special supervision, for every student majoring in rural education.
- (4) *Extension.*—Conducts enough follow-up and extension work to keep in touch with its graduates and to stimulate the general development of rural school and country life improvement throughout its territory.
- (5) *Instructors.*—Employs at least two specialists giving full time to rural education courses and activities, one of these to be known preferably as the "director of rural education" and the other as the "supervisor of rural

¹ Burnham, Ernest. *Rural-Teacher Preparation in State Normal Schools*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1913. (Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, no. 27.)

² Robinson, William McKinley. *Curricula and Differentiated Courses for the Preparation of Rural Elementary School Teachers*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1928. (Bureau of Education, Rural School Circular, no. 25.)

³ *The Status of Rural Education*. National Society for the Study of Education, Thirtieth Yearbook, 1931, pt. I, p. 166. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co. 1931. See also articles by the writer in the *Journal of Rural Education* for May-June 1924 and in *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, vol. 67, 1923, p. 230.

practice." In addition to these, rural critic teachers for the open-country training schools are essential.

- (6) *Quarters and equipment*.—Has headquarters in a special office and is supplied with enough teaching and extension equipment to insure efficiency.
- (7) *Budget*.—Possesses a specified departmental budget or other more general assignment of funds large enough and definite enough to meet the demands of the several activities named above.

Present practice in the specialization of training for rural teachers.—As acknowledged in the introduction of this chapter, the findings of the National Survey on the present status of the preparation of rural teachers in normal schools and teachers colleges have proved unhappily meager. This was due in part to the magnitude of the study and the necessary omission of some important aspects, and in part to the fact that several desirable questions concerning rural schools which might have been asked in some of the earlier questionnaires were not included. Because of these limitations it has been found necessary to supplement the Survey findings rather generously with data from other studies. Chief among these is the inquiry conducted by the National Society for the Study of Education which portrays the situation in this field during the spring of 1930.⁴ From this investigation it was ascertained that 83 of the 174 State-supported institutions for the preparation of teachers included in the study employed special rural instructors in 1929-30, that 111 offered special rural courses, and that 84 maintained one or more rural practice schools. Altogether 118 institutions, or 67.8 percent of the total number, provided rural differentiation in either courses or practice and 4 others claimed to adapt all their instruction to rural school needs.

Three years later, in 1932-33, the writer used the same questionnaire in supplementing data of the National Survey; and the questionnaire blanks were sent to the same institutions. For various reasons this check-up was not as satisfactory as the earlier study, but it is useful at least for purposes of comparison. A total of 179 institutions were included at this time. Of these 79 employed special rural instructors giving full or major time to rural work, 113 still offered specialized rural courses, and 97 maintained one or more rural practice schools. The surface impression of these figures indicates little change in the 3-year period under consideration. Measured against the standards previously defined, however, a significant difference appears.

In the study conducted by the National Society for the Study of Education in 1929-30 a total of 67 institutions were found to fulfill all the approved requirements for standardized rural service or departmentalization as given on page 359. In the questionnaire study of 1932-33 only 49 institutions made this score. This unques-

⁴ Ibid.

tionably seems to indicate a loss in rural interest. To offset this loss in fully standardized and semisegregated departments, however, it was found that 52 institutions, as compared with 39 formerly, were maintaining rural activities showing a strong tendency toward departmentalization or adequate rural service, while 12 instead of 5 were requiring a minimum of rural instruction on the part of all students; 21 instead of 11 had developed minor or occasional rural activities as making surveys, holding conferences, etc.; and 7 compared with 4, because of the general ruralness of their setting, had adapted all their instruction to rural needs. Meanwhile the number making no provision whatever for rural schools had dropped from 48 to 39. From this it will be observed that there is now a tendency to specialize rural instruction less sharply and make it more available to the student body as a whole. The reasons for this change together with its implications for future policy will be considered later."

(a) *Special rural curricula.*—Dr. Earle U. Rugg, principal specialist in curriculum research for the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, found kindergarten-primary, intermediate, rural, and upper-grade teachers in the order named to be the four kinds of teachers most frequently prepared in normal schools and teachers colleges.⁴ In a special study in which 132 public normal schools and teachers colleges reported, he found that 23 institutions, or 17.4 percent, still offered rural curricula 1 year or less in length; 45, or 34.1 percent, offered rural curricula 2 years in length; 15, or 11.4 percent, rural curricula 3 years in length; 35, or 26.5 percent, rural curricula 4 years in length; and 5 institutions, or 3.8 percent, carried special rural curricula on the graduate level. Altogether, 93 percent of those replying offered rural curricula. These figures show considerable gain over those reported in an earlier study by Bunting and McGuffey in 1926-27, in which 113 institutions out of 149, or 75 percent were offering special curricula of this type.⁵ This gain, as noted later, acquires a new significance when considered in relation to the still more recent trend for popularizing rural instruction, and requiring some of its phases at least of all students in the normal school or teachers college.

(b) *Specialized rural courses.*—Of the specialized rural courses reported in the questionnaire inquiry conducted by the writer in 1932-33 rural sociology and economics or the study of rural life led all others, being listed by 124 institutions in a total of 179 reporting. Other special rural courses with their institutional frequencies reported at this time were as follows: Nature study in 93 institutions; rural school technique, organization, and management in 73; agriculture in 61; rural education (with emphasis on curriculum adaptation) in

⁴ See *School Life*, 18:27, January 1933.

⁵ Bunting, R. L., and McGuffey, Verna. Preparation of Rural Teachers. *Teachers College Record*, 28:714-727, May 1928.

46; and advanced courses in rural school supervision and administration in 28 institutions. Compared with Robinson's findings in 1926-27 these listings again show some gains, his figures for similar courses in 185 institutions being 106 for rural sociology, 30 for agriculture and elementary science, 80 for rural school management, and 27 for rural school curriculum.

Of all the specialized courses in rural education offered in teacher-preparing institutions, rural sociology and economics have long and invariably occupied first place. Indeed in this day when the social studies are so popular and when so much is being said about reforming the present social order through education, and giving students of all levels a social-economic background, it is interesting to note that rural education specialists have been providing regular instruction in rural social-economics and other phases of rural life for the last 30 years.

(c) *Rural practice teaching.*—Practice teaching in typical rural schools is another long-standing and largely universal provision in the preparation of rural teachers. As previously shown 84 public normal schools and teachers colleges maintained one or more schools of this type in the year 1929-30. From the writer's questionnaire study in 1932-33 it was found that 97 institutions were operating 394 1- and 2-teacher schools in country districts and 8 such schools on the campus. Forty-three institutions were also conducting practice in 86 consolidated and small village schools. In comparison Bunting and McGuffey 5 years earlier in 1927 found 54 institutions maintaining 350 1- and 2-teacher schools in rural communities and 13 on the campus. Forty-one institutions were also using 80 consolidated and village schools for practice purposes.

(d) *Extension service for rural teachers.*—The inadequate preparation of rural teachers has always presented a challenge for extension service to the normal schools and teachers colleges of the United States. This challenge has been accepted by an increasing number of institutions during recent years and has resulted in a large and varied array of activities, many of which like the extramural or "study center" movement have since been applied to the whole realm of teacher-improvement in service. Typical activities in this field are indicated by the replies to the supplementary questionnaire inquiry of 1932-33. These for 179 institutions were as follows: Holding rural-school conferences, 69; conducting extramural or group study courses off campus, 53; providing correspondence courses, 49; participating in the supervision of rural schools, 37; organizing consolidation campaigns, 36; promoting club work among rural people, 34; and assisting parent-teacher associations, 23.

(e) *Rural student clubs.*—In the judgment of most rural instructors, the existence of a good active departmental club among students

preparing for rural teaching is significant and highly desirable. Such clubs are not ordinarily limited to rural students, however, but used generally to promote understanding and good will for the rural cause. In the spring of 1933, 61 normal schools and teachers colleges reported clubs of this kind with an average membership of 66 students and a total enrollment of 4,012. Since 1923 rural clubs of this type in both teacher-preparing institutions and agricultural colleges have been affiliated nationally through the American Country Life Association and have held annual student conferences in connection with the national country life conferences of that organization. In 1933 there were 33 student clubs included in this affiliation, and the attendance of students at the annual gathering of 1932 totaled 300 delegates representing 13 States.

Regional development of rural-teacher preparation.—The specialized preparation of teachers for rural schools is a peculiar product of the North Central States where it originated and is still most prevalent. In this connection it is interesting to note that the Middle Western States have long employed specialized training in normal schools and high schools as a chief means of raising the qualifications of rural teachers, while the South has rather neglected this opportunity but has developed rural-school supervision to the same end. Of the 49 institutions in the United States doing most for the specialized preparation of rural teachers at the present writing, 30 are in the States of the upper Mississippi Valley.

Next to the Midwest come the Middle Atlantic States. Here are found 11 of the 49 best centers of specialized rural training. Of the remaining 5, 3 are located in the States of the Mountain and Plains region and only 1 in the Pacific Coast section. In the latter area a number of strong rural training centers were formerly maintained but the higher qualifications recently achieved here by rural teachers, together with the consolidation of rural schools and the effects of the depression in reducing normal-school budgets have all tended to eliminate specialized rural activity except in California where the movement has taken on new growth of late. Across the continent in New England no normal school whatever is carrying a full offering of specialized rural service, though the teacher-preparing program of Connecticut calls for a minimum of rural instruction on the part of all students in training, while one institution in Massachusetts has for several years conducted a series of conferences for young teachers in service, most of whom in this area get their initial experience in rural and village schools.¹

¹ Readers desiring a directory of the names and locations of all public normal schools and teachers colleges in the United States grouped on a basis of rural service may obtain such a list by addressing the writer at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Changed attitudes and trends in rural-teacher preparation.—For the last 30 years during the rapid industrialization of the United States small rural schools have drawn largely two types of students from normal schools and teachers colleges. These, on the one hand, have included the "culls" or left-overs not wanted in urban communities, and on the other a small group of rural inspired, specially trained young people of the highest idealism and often best ability to be found in the teaching profession. But, as previously shown, this consistent development of the last three decades has been drastically disturbed by the recent economic depression with its resultant scarcity of teaching positions, and these disturbances have produced marked changes in attitude and trends in rural-teacher preparation. These changes may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Professionally prepared teachers, that is, graduates of normal schools, teachers colleges, and even of universities, are now going into 1- and 2-teacher rural schools in numbers and to a degree heretofore unknown. As a consequence, administrators and faculties are at last becoming interested in rural schools. To put the matter bluntly these groups with certain notable exceptions previously listed, have in the past merely supplied the "market" for their product rather than create it, and now that the market has shifted their interest has shifted also.

2. In harmony with this change in supply and demand students, as well as faculty in teacher-training institutions, knowing that first placements are likely to be in rural positions, are interested as never before in the problems of rural school teaching. This interest is leading greater numbers and better types of young people to consider appointment in schools of this kind than at any previous period in American education, and is affording country people, in general, a unique and unequalled opportunity of procuring qualified teachers for their children.

3. Since it has become difficult, if not impossible, to predetermine those students who will go into rural schools, there has developed a disposition on the part of normal-school and teachers-college faculties to provide a minimum of technical instruction in rural school teaching for all prospective elementary teachers and to require this minimum of all groups as part of their basic curriculums. In some institutions such minimum rural instruction is taken as additional work, in an extra summer session. In others, it is added to the regular professional program of the senior year or substituted for some minor part of it.

4. With 3 above, and in line with the recent movement for the more specific preparation of teachers, there is also a marked tendency among the professionally prepared and more analytical administrators of teacher-preparing institutions, including both presidents and directors of training, to acknowledge that specific preparation for

rural school teaching is essential and should be provided in amount, type, and organization similar to that provided for the other three groups of elementary teachers, namely, primary, intermediate, and junior high school.

5. A fifth distinct trend of the present period in rural teacher preparation is to give all students in training, whether for elementary, secondary, or special field teaching, some understanding and appreciation of country life and its numerous problems. Instruction of this type is still largely in the experimental stage but is now most commonly provided through a combined orientation course in the history and sociology of American life, stressing the rural-urban aspects of national development and showing the effects of international relations, both past and present. This recognition and study of rural life, both for its intrinsic value and in its relation to urban life, is one of the most significant of recent developments and is indicative of the general changed attitude of the American people regarding the relative attractions and advantages of rural and urban living.

Evidence of the foregoing attitudes and trends is to be found on every hand. In the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Dr. Rugg shows 136, or 94.4 percent, of the 144 normal schools and teachers colleges reporting, to favor the idea that all teachers need introduction to both rural and urban life. He found, also, that 93 institutions, or 65 percent, of those reporting believed that rural curricula should differ somewhat from urban curricula while 48.2 percent were already offering survey-orientation courses of American life, with some attention apparently to its rural aspects. Similar evidence is gathered from the thinking of professional leaders addressing recent meetings of the National Education Association⁶ and in the jury-judgments collected for the 'Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Here the vote of those replying was practically unanimous in favor of some specialized preparation for rural teaching and largely in agreement as to the amount and type of such specialized instruction desirable. The bearing of all this upon the policy and program of rural teacher preparation will be considered later under recommendations.

⁶ Palmer, James B. Proceedings of the National Education Association. vol. 70, 1932. p. 434.

CHAPTER IV

PROBLEMS AND ISSUES INVOLVED IN THE PREPARATION OF RURAL TEACHERS

No phase of American teacher education presents more controversies than the preparation of rural teachers. Some of these issues relate to principles and procedures within the individual institution; others to questions of State policy and practice. Chief among such issues are the following:

1. Whether rural life and rural teaching can be made to appeal to competent teachers; particularly whether students in training will elect rural curricula.
2. Whether it pays to devote time and attention to the 1- and 2-teacher school in view of the rather rapid and ultimate expansion of consolidation.
3. Whether specialized preparation is necessary for teaching in small rural schools. And if so what amount and type of specialization is desirable?
4. As to what is the best organization and set-up for offering this specialized rural instruction; particularly whether departmental or nondepartmentalized organization best promotes the adequate pre-service and in-service preparation of rural teachers.
5. Whether or not all elementary school candidates should have some or all of this specialized training for rural-school teaching.
6. Whether the recent movement for collegiate status among normal schools has not been detrimental to rural-school interests (and perhaps also to elementary). More particularly, whether it is wise at this stage of rural development to give much regard to 4-year curricula for the preparation of teachers for small rural schools or whether attention should not be concentrated, temporarily at least, upon making 2-year curricula more effective.
7. Whether agencies for the education of rural teachers should not bear a larger share of responsibility in reforming instructional practices in rural schools and in preparing a progressive type of teacher to this end.

To the foregoing list bearing upon institutional practice may be added the following, pertaining more specifically to State policy in this field:

8. Whether or not rural-trained graduates of normal schools and teachers colleges should receive certificates limited to rural schools.

(This is part of the larger question of restricted certification for all groups of professionally prepared teachers.)

9. Whether salaries in 1- and 2-teacher rural schools should be higher, as a means of attracting superior teachers, than those in graded schools:

10. Whether superior quality in school plant and equipment, especially when associated with good living conditions and high levels of community culture, have not as much influence in attracting superior teachers as have higher salaries.

11. Whether preparation in high schools and county normal classes is relatively as effective for rural teaching as that given in State teachers colleges.

12. Whether summer school instruction over a period of years (4 summers) is preferable to short-course training of 1 year in high schools, county normal schools, or State teachers colleges.

13. Whether the specialized preparation necessary for teaching in small rural schools cannot be better provided through supervision and in-service training than during the period of preservice preparation in teachers colleges.

14. Whether the State is not basically responsible for establishing and maintaining parity of preparation between rural and urban elementary teachers.

The limitations of space for this chapter make adequate discussion of these various issues impossible. For this reason brief running comment on each must suffice.

ISSUES OF INSTITUTIONAL ATTITUDE AND ACTIVITY

(1) *Appeal of rural teaching.*—From common observation and from the data and conclusions of this discussion it is evident that rural teaching now appeals more strongly than heretofore to students in training and to qualified teachers. Whether this condition will hold after the present depression is a debatable question. Indications, however, are that much of the present attitude will persist, for the simple reason that the teaching profession and all others will be more crowded hereafter, and opportunity in the better schools relatively more scarce. Moreover, it is not impossible, as previously shown, to enlist the interest of young people in this field; and such enlistment will become still more popular as farm life improves and rural-urban relations are more satisfactorily adjusted. This, at least, has been the experience of older and more static populations in Denmark, Germany, and other European countries often cited as worthy examples for American emulation.

(2) *Justification of rural specialization.*—The challenge of the rural-school field for immediate and adequate attention in teacher preparation and all other aspects of professional welfare can scarcely be

refuted when it is recalled that there are still 172,000 1- and 2-teacher schools in the United States and that 5,000,000 children are still obtaining their elementary education in schools of this type. These children must be cared for here and now, no matter what the future may offer in the way of consolidation or other adjustments. The most essential factor in such care is good teaching.

(3) *Need and amount.*—Questions of reasons for, amount, type, and organization of specialized instruction in the preparation of rural teachers are related fundamentally to the distinctive characteristics of country life and to the influence of these characteristics upon the daily experience and thinking of farm people. As commonly realized, the physical environment of the country differs from that of the city, primarily in matters of space, relative isolation, and sparseness of population. These physical differences in country life determine its social and economic environment which in turn lead to resultant differences in the experience and educational needs of farm residents, both children and adults. All this conditions curriculum content in rural schools, especially when modified still further by the peculiar difficulties of 1-teacher organization and program,¹ and must necessarily be reflected through a reasonable amount of specialized instruction in the education of rural teachers. That professional opinion is now conclusively in favor of such specialized instruction is shown by the year book study of the National Society for the Study of Education as formerly quoted,² and also by the present rural activities of normal schools and teachers colleges as summarized in this discussion (p. 360). Upon the whole there is general agreement also on the amount and type of differentiation desirable which will be presented later under recommendations.

(4) *Organization and set-up of rural instruction.*—The matter of the best organization and set-up for offering this specialized rural preparation is much less unanimously agreed upon. Indeed there is considerable difference of opinion here. Those who oppose departmentalism in general naturally oppose it in the rural field as well as in others. In the judgment of this group numerous dangers inhere in the whole idea of departmental organization in college administration. Prominent among these are the tendencies to disjoint instruction in unrelated compartments, to foster interdepartmental or group jealousies, and to permit aggressive "heads" too much dominance of inferiors together with a disquieting challenge of superior authority and control. Others, equally convinced, admit the dangers of exaggerated departmentalism but hold that these dangers and all others can be

¹ McGuffey, Verna. *Differences in the Activities of Teachers in Rural 1-Teacher Schools and of Grade Teachers in Cities*. New York, N.Y., Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. (Contributions to Education, no. 346.)

² *The Status of Rural Education: Thirtieth year book, pt. I, 1931*. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., pp. 169-170.

properly safeguarded through wise administration, the selection of suitable personalities for directive responsibility, and close coordination between departments. In either case most administrators seem inclined to agree that because of the wide range and numerous handicaps of the rural school field there is certainly as much justification if not more for the departmental or divisional organization of rural education as for other interests. Upon the whole there seems general agreement among executives, rural instructors, and county superintendents as to the necessity of placing all rural work in charge of duly qualified and rural-experienced instructors.¹ There is also fairly general agreement that the minimum staff for this purpose should include a director, professor, or head instructor to have general oversight of rural activities and teach most of the college courses in this field, and also a supervisor of rural practice to direct student teaching in rural schools. With these will be needed a number of superior rural teachers or critics for the rural laboratory schools.

(5) *Rural education as a general requirement.*—Whether or not all elementary school candidates should have some or all of the specialized preparation provided for rural candidates depends entirely upon the field situation confronting the individual institution concerned. At this point a distinction is necessary between rural instruction for appreciation and that for technical, professional uses in the actual teaching of rural schools. To the first type, it is now generally agreed, all prospective teachers for both elementary and secondary schools, and indeed all college students in general, should be exposed (see later discussion, p. 374). Of the professional type for teaching in rural schools, different groups of students require different amounts according to need. This also will be considered later.

(6) *Relative importance of 2-year and 4-year curricula for rural teachers.*—The sixth issue listed regarding the relative merits of putting emphasis on the 2-year curriculum in rural education, stands self-revealed when it is recalled that the median preparation of rural teachers in the United States today is only high-school graduation plus 1 year of professional preparation. To be sure, there are several States where practically all elementary teachers are normal school graduates but even in these the actual qualifications held by rural teachers usually lag behind State standards. The most distressing aspects of this problem, however, are found in those institutions located in States with hundreds of low-standard rural teachers which still persist in offering 4-year curricula of various types for mere handfuls of registrants solely to qualify for collegiate rating while the great mass of those struggling in the ranks of rural school service pass by unheeded.

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 169.

(7) *Responsibility of teachers colleges for modernizing rural school teaching.*—The seventh and last institutional issue raised above implies a distinct criticism of normal schools and teachers colleges for not doing more to reform present instructional practices in rural schools. That such reform is possible is clearly shown by the modern type of teaching demonstrated in the best 1- and 2-teacher schools today. A careful check-up of schools of this type now in operation shows most of them to have been stimulated and developed by county rural supervisors rather than by teacher-preparing agencies. This disclosure, together with the universal difficulty of finding creative rural teachers when needed, seems to point to a lack of attainment here on the part of teacher-education institutions.

ISSUES OF STATE POLICY AND PROGRAM

(8) *Limited certification for rural teachers.*—The seven issues of State policy and program listed above begin with the very controversial question of limited certification for rural teachers. On this matter there are two distinct camps:⁴ One contending that the restriction of certificates to rural schools only, even after definite preparation for this field, would prevent students from electing rural work, and the other maintaining with equal vigor that restricted certification following specific preparation is the only hope of the rural school situation and the only way rural school teaching can ever realize full professional rank. Adherents of the first position usually cite the several disadvantages of rural school teaching as arguments in defense of their view maintaining that this phase of the profession is already sufficiently handicapped without placing additional hurdles in its path. To this, members of the second group reply that it is not the certificate, limited or otherwise, which deters young people from rural schools but rather the basic social, economic, and educational conditions behind the certificate. Let these be removed by State and professional action, and teaching in rural schools will then hold its own in free competition with other phases of the profession. Significant factors in this controversy are the relation of rural certification to the whole question of teacher certification in general, and the ease with which candidates certified for the various phases of elementary school teaching may pass from one phase to another. These points and others will be referred to again under recommendations.

(9) *Higher salaries in rural schools.*—Closely related to limited certification for rural teaching is the question of higher salaries for equivalent preparation as a means of attracting superior teachers to this field. Those who subscribe to this view maintain that teaching the several grades of a rural school is much more difficult in general than typical grade teaching in cities, particularly when coupled with

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 171-172.

the heavy community work of the average rural school situation, and that teachers of superior ability who are willing to undertake these additional responsibilities should receive extra compensation. Professor W. C. Bagley has long held this position and most of the profession now endorses it in theory. Such endorsement is still largely theoretical, however, since Baltimore County, Md., is the only area in the United States where this principle is extensively practiced.

(10) *Teaching conditions and community culture as factors in attracting competent rural teachers.*—Administrators and teacher-education specialists do not always realize the relative influence of pleasant school buildings, adequate teaching equipment, good living conditions, social contacts, and general community culture in attracting and holding the best young teachers now being graduated from our normal schools and teachers colleges. Farm people also, particularly rural school directors, are often decidedly lacking in their realization of these influences upon the young women constituting the great majority of the rural school teaching corps. All this should be evident, however, to any one closely associated with young rural teachers and familiar with their rather emotional views as expressed on this subject both in personal conversation and in such questionnaire studies as have touched on the point.

(11) *Relative value of rural teacher training in high schools and in State teachers colleges.*—To some this may seem a spurious question now that teacher training is passing rapidly from high schools. As a matter of fact it is still a living issue in some States and has been a controversial matter at some time in the past in practically every State employing the high-school or county normal system. Normal schools and teachers colleges instead of assuming a hostile or indifferent attitude toward this historic movement once very useful in the education of rural teachers would do well to study its methods and relationships with some care toward the end of incorporating any worthy practices discovered into their own techniques.

(12) *Summer-school instruction versus 1-year training courses.*—Some teacher-training executives and others desiring to standardize the State teachers college and protect it from the criticism of liberal arts competitors have taken the position that 1-year courses for rural teachers should be avoided even in States with large numbers of unqualified teachers and that such teachers should be encouraged to get what help they can from a series of summer session courses especially provided for this purpose. Many oppose this position, however, pointing out that the rural children being taught by these wholly unprepared novices during the interim years of this summer session plan are the helpless victims of this policy and that such exploitation can scarcely be justified in a democratic social order.

At best the idea seems defensible only in States with good rural school supervision.

(13) *Supervision versus pre-service preparation.*—Some of the most pertinent issues in the field of teacher preparation today relate to the functions and relative value of pre-service or institutional preparation and preparation while in service or through supervision. In the rural school field where supervision and teacher education are both retarded and where much activity may be expected in the next few years, this problem is especially acute. For this reason normal schools and teachers colleges will do well to recognize the significance of this whole matter and protect their basic prerogatives and functions accordingly. As a first step in this direction they should realize, acknowledge, and rectify the conditions and results of their work which make them vulnerable to the criticisms of supervisors and others familiar with their graduates in service whose limitations have very largely provoked this whole controversy. Rural supervisors, on the other hand, particularly in these days of economic competition, should be doubly careful that none of their criticisms are actuated by professional jealousy, and all groups concerned should consider the taxpayer and remember that teacher education in service is more expensive than pre-service training in centralized institutions.

(14) *State responsibility for rural-urban parity of preparation.*—The preparation of teachers is now generally conceded to be a distinct and inescapable responsibility of the State. Granting this major premise it follows that the State is likewise responsible for correcting any maladjustments in the program of preparation existing within its borders or under its jurisdiction. Certainly the rural school situation not only in teacher status but in many other respects presents plentiful evidence of maladjustment and qualifies accordingly for State attention. This question will be considered further, however, under the following section on recommendations.

CHAPTER V

RECOMMENDATIONS

Any sound presentation of recommendations on the preparation of rural teachers must necessarily be made with certain conditioning factors of the present situation in both agriculture and the teaching profession clearly in mind. Among these are the following:

(a) *The increasing professional level of rural teaching.*—As previously shown one-third of the teachers in small rural schools responding to the National Survey were high-school graduates with 1 year of college or professional education, and 28 percent were high-school graduates with 2 years of professional training. This represents a great advance over standards obtaining even 5 years ago.

(b) *The present unemployment of many trained teachers and their willingness to go into 1- and 2-teacher schools.*—It is estimated that thousands of certificated teachers were unemployed at the beginning of the school year in September 1933 and that thousands of others are teaching short terms and idle a large part of the year.

(c) *The increasing faith of farmers in professional leadership of all types and particularly in the advisability of employing trained teachers for their schools.*—The pioneer stage of American agriculture is past and farmers, as a whole, now believe in vocational and professional preparation both for themselves and for others.

(d) *The preference of country people for "rural-minded" teachers.*—Farmers have long, though somewhat inarticulately, insisted that their teachers be sympathetic, or at least not antagonistic, to the standards and traditions of life on the land.¹ This means securing teachers who have made some study of the rural environment and otherwise prepared specifically for rural teaching.

(e) *The current economic depression and its effects upon teaching.*—The most obvious and influential factor in the present rural training situation, however, is the economic crisis in agriculture which will be felt for some time to come and which will make impossible large expenditures of money by farmers or even by State governments chiefly dominated by farm constituencies. Now is the time, if ever, for education in all its phases to make the best possible use of the resources available and thus prove the wisdom of entrusting it with further funds. In the field of rural teacher training this would

¹ Report of the Commission on Country Life. New York, N.Y., Sturgis & Walton Co., 1911. Pp. 30, 121-122.

seem to mean, in particular, lifting rural teachers as a whole to the level of the 2-year professional curriculum and improving the quality of the instruction thus afforded, before attempting much expansion of 3- and 4-year curricula.

In terms of the findings of the National Survey and of the conditioning factors just enumerated the following recommendations on the preparation of teachers for small rural schools are therefore submitted.

1. *Length of training.*—Standards for rural school teachers in the matter of time required for pre-service preparation should be the same as those for teachers in urban schools. This means at least 2 years of professional preparation beyond high school for all new rural elementary teachers, with an advance to 3 and 4 years as soon as expedient. It involves also the abandonment of all high-school training classes and county normal schools and of 1-year courses in institutions preparing teachers.

2. *Instruction—Amount and type of specialized rural content.*—Specialized rural instruction like all other content in teacher preparation should be offered in terms of student needs and is outlined here for three distinct groups of prospective teachers in training namely:

(a) For all students under preparation for teaching whether in elementary or in secondary schools.

(b) For students but temporarily or partially interested in rural teaching. This group includes: (1) Those graduates now accepting positions in rural schools because of the economic depression and consequent shortage of urban vacancies; (2) those desiring to meet the requirement of one or more years of professional experience stipulated by certain cities before employment; and (3) all graduates of certain small normal schools and teachers colleges located in areas predominately rural (chiefly in the South or sparsely settled West) where the 1-, 2-, 3-, and 4-teacher rural school is the prevailing type of instructional unit.

(c) For students holding a primary interest in rural education and desiring to make this phase of professional service their life work. It should be noted here that, contrary to opinion, it is now possible to attract capable young teachers to rural schools and to help them advance professionally through superior rural-teacher rating, rural supervision, teacher training, or administration without transferring to urban lines of promotion.

The first group, that is all students under preparation for teaching in whatever phase of the profession, need a general understanding of the present-day problems of rural life and an adequate appreciation of the contributions of farmers, both past and present, material and spiritual, to the sum total of American national culture. To meet this need a rural-urban orientation course, to be known preferably as a course in *Modern American Civilization*, is recommended.

Properly presented this course would combine selected phases of American history, sociology and economics similar to the treatment accorded our national development in *The Rise of American Civilization* by Prof. Charles A. Beard and his wife.² It should show the sudden impact of modern industry upon our agrarian society of the "agricultural era" and make clear the social and economic changes resulting therefrom and eventuating in the "industrial era." The effect of these changes upon country and city life would then be emphasized including the shift of population, the growth of cities, urban congestion and its ensuing problems of health, housing, sanitation, unemployment, poverty, and crime; also the increase and surplus of agricultural production due to machinery; the lack of organization among farmers; and their consequent exploitation by urban forces as in marketing, agricultural prices, tariff, taxation, and shipping. Following this the contributions of farm life to our national culture and the desirability of preserving this rural inheritance, together with a corresponding treatment of the contributions of urban life, should be made. In conclusion the course should point out the effects of all this upon schools, both urban and rural, stressing the problems and proposed solutions of mass education in large cities, on the one hand, and those of education in sparsely settled rural areas on the other. This outline, as may be noted, attempts a balanced treatment of rural and urban interests, an end far too seldom achieved in most professional instruction, not only for teachers but for other social workers as well.

Students expecting definitely to teach in rural schools, however, even temporarily, as with the subgroups under (b), need something in addition which is more practical and professional than mere appreciation of rural life, significant as this may be. To supply this need it is recommended that all prospective elementary teachers likely to serve an initial apprenticeship in 1- and 2-teacher rural schools pursue minimum units of instruction on the organization, teaching, and community relations of 1-teacher schools together with a limited number of observations of first-class teaching in such schools. This would be broadening and professionally cultural to all elementary school teachers in the profession and would reach the large number of graduates (conservatively estimated at 50 percent or more) now going into small rural schools without the least specific preparation for this type of teaching.

The minimum units most essential for the purpose under consideration include a brief introductory presentation of the population, status, and problems of rural life followed by a study of desirable differentiations in rural school teaching. These in turn include treat-

² Beard, Charles A. and Mary R. *The Rise of American Civilization*. New York, N.Y., Macmillan Co., 1930.

ment of the daily program; the first-grade child's day; adaptations of the curriculum to the experience and needs of farm children; out-of-class or seatwork activities; the first week of school; clubs, parent-teacher associations and community relations; textbooks and libraries for rural schools; records and reports; physical equipment and care (janitor work); and legislation affecting the teacher and school in rural districts.

In some teacher-training institutions these minimum units are being combined into an *Emergency Short Course in Rural School Teaching* totaling about 60 hours which is offered late in the spring for nonrural seniors who find themselves headed for rural schools without previous preparation. In other institutions such a course is taken as a requirement or elective earlier in the professional curriculum or later in the first summer session following graduation. Under either arrangement one or more superior demonstration schools of the 1- and 2-teacher type are necessary in providing the observation recommended.

But no temporary interest or partial effort can solve the many intricate problems of rural school teaching. For this we shall need as long as 1-teacher schools exist, an interested and devoted staff of specialized rural teachers who like country schools, who are willing and eager to work in them, and who have had definite well-focused preparation to meet the demands of the rural situation. The specialized instruction for this group (c) should be based upon the distinctive conditions and problems of country life. These include the physical, social, economic, and educational aspects of rural living and learning as represented by special courses and activities in the following fields:

(1) *Special Rural Courses*

(a) *Nature study and agriculture.*—This study will deal with the physical environment of country life. All elementary school teachers, both rural and urban, should have an introductory course in elementary science. But rural teachers who are to work with children surrounded by a nature environment need additional preparation in this subject stressing the nature study aspects. Agriculture should be taught here for understanding and appreciation, not for vocation, and should show how man has modified and improved his natural environment.

(b) *Rural sociology and economics.*—This course should follow the orientation study of modern American civilization, affording those students who expect to work in the country a more detailed knowledge of the social and economic aspects of typical farm life. Rural population, rural social institutions and problems, the economic situation in agriculture, and the international aspects of farming should be included among the topics treated, all being presented in such a way as to develop a greater appreciation of rural life and a clearer definition of the function and opportunity of the teacher in rural society.

(c) *Rural education.*—This course, sometimes designated as the technique of teaching in small rural schools, should cover the desirable adaptations of the educative process to rural school conditions and to the farm child's experience. It should begin with an introductory survey of the significance, conditions, and needs of rural schools; then include a study of desirable adaptations in curricu-

lum, technique and method, organization and management, community relations, and some phases of rural school supervision and administration.

(2) *Special Rural Practice*

Practice teaching for prospective rural teachers should be both general and specialized. The general practice referred to should include observation, group teaching, and room management. This may be conducted most economically in the grade rooms of the campus training school or of the local town. Here principles and habits fundamental to all good teaching may be fixed. But for best success in the rural school, general practice of this type is not sufficient. In addition, the teacher-training student likely to enter rural service, even temporarily, needs specific practice designed to meet actual rural conditions and done in 1-teacher, 2-teacher, and consolidated schools. The rural student's program of practice should also include some experience in starting beginning children, particularly in reading.

(3) *Rural Life Club*

All institutions preparing rural teachers will do well to encourage the organization of rural life clubs among their student bodies. Such clubs should be open not only to rural students but to all others interested in rural affairs and should be so conducted as to provide definite training in rural education leadership and participation in rural community programs for all who take part.

3. *Organization and staff for specialized rural instruction.*—The recommended organization and relationship of this specialized rural instruction in normal schools and teachers colleges is shown by the accompanying diagram (fig. 1). It is assumed here that all prospective elementary teachers whether preparing for primary, intermediate, junior high school, or rural school teaching will take a common curriculum core of professional content consisting of basic courses in subject matter, education, and practice teaching. Included in this core should be found such subject matter or professionalized courses as those in arithmetic, geography, science, and English; such general education courses as those in psychology, technique of teaching, and principles of education; such cultural and background courses as art appreciation, contemporary literature, and the rural-urban orientation course in modern American civilization formerly described. These courses, should be taken by students in training for the various phases of elementary school teaching without reference to rural and urban differentiation. It is held, however, that each subject should be taught in its applications to both rural and urban child-experience and school organization and not in terms of the urban situation only, assuming this to be the general mode, as is now so commonly done. This principle consistently applied will make unnecessary and undesirable such offerings as those in rural arithmetic, rural art, rural geography, and so forth, as sometimes developed in the past.

In addition to the common curriculum core just described each specialized group of elementary-school teachers needs its own individual offering of specialized instruction. This should consist in each

RECOMMENDED ORGANIZATION AND RELATION OF SPECIALIZED RURAL
INSTRUCTION IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES.
(For Two and Three-Year Curricula)



EXPLANATION

This proposal assumes that all students preparing for elementary teaching will take the Common Curriculum Core consisting of basic courses in subject-matter, education and practice teaching, together with a rural-urban orientation course in Modern American Civilization. In addition to this, each of the four special groups of elementary teachers (primary, intermediate, junior high school and rural) should take some specialized courses and practice teaching in its own field as indicated above by the outer segments of the circle.

FIGURE 1.—Proposed plan for curriculum for the preparation of rural teachers.

case, as shown in the diagram, of two or more special courses and of special practice teaching in the chosen field. For the rural group these special courses are the three already outlined in nature study, and agriculture, rural sociology and economics, and rural education. The rural practice included should be provided in typical 1- and 2-teacher schools taught by superior rural teachers and directed by a competent supervisor of rural practice teaching. There should also be enough such schools to insure 1 for every 9 to 12 rural students in training and to give each student while practicing an opportunity to direct the whole school as a unit rather than to do mere group teaching.

At least two specialists in rural education will be needed to conduct the differentiated instruction and other activities recommended here for the preparation of rural teachers. One of these, to be known preferably as the "director of rural education", should teach one or more of the special courses offered, and should assume general responsibility for the guidance of the rural student group and the development of rural education interests throughout the institution and its territory. The other, designated as the "supervisor of rural practice", should have general supervision of all practice teaching done in 1-teacher, 2-teacher, and consolidated schools, and should also teach some units (especially those on curriculum and method) in the course on rural education. In addition to these two specialists, rural critic teachers will be needed in each of the schools or classrooms used for rural practice, and in large institutions an assistant director of rural placement, follow-up, and extension work is often essential.

For best results with the foregoing program of specialized rural instruction large teacher-training institutions organized on a departmental basis will need a special department of rural education, as of other distinctive interests, with adequate office space, teaching equipment, and secretarial help. Small normal schools, on the other hand, located in areas predominately rural, where the large majority of graduates enter rural schools need to be ruralized and professionalized throughout, and often wisely avoid overdepartmentalization. As previously shown, however, both in this discussion (p. 368) and in the study by Bunting and McGuffey ² more support can be advanced for the departmentalization of rural education in large teacher-training institutions than for most other phases of professional activity.

4. *Certification of rural-trained graduates.*—The principle of restricted or limited certification based upon specialized preparation and accompanied by restricted teaching appointments is heartily

² Bunting, R. L., and McGuffey, Verna. *The Preparation of Rural Teachers.* Teachers College Record, 20: 718, May 1923.

endorsed here. Applied to the rural school situation this involves the following specific recommendations:

(a) That all elementary teachers who have not specialized in rural education but whose certificates are good in rural schools be required to take a minimum of direct instruction in rural social economics and in the teaching, organization, management, and community relations of rural schools.

(b) That students who have specialized in rural education receive limited certificates good only in rural schools of the type for which they have prepared. This assumes that primary, intermediate, and junior high school teachers will also receive limited certificates and be similarly restricted to their own special fields.

(c) That the transfer of certificates on the elementary-school level be made reasonably easy between the four groups named (primary, intermediate, junior high school, and rural) involving only 1 summer session or 8 additional hours of concentrated specialized instruction (including practice teaching or observation) toward this end.

5. *Placement and follow-up of rural graduates.*—The placement of graduates in rural schools can be successfully conducted only by those thoroughly familiar and sympathetic with rural school needs and well acquainted with both the abilities and the limitations of the candidates being considered. This means that the director of placement in the teachers college should be rural-minded as well as urban-minded, or, if placement is conducted under committee organization, that one or more of the rural specialists should serve as members of the placement committee and exercise close personal oversight in all rural-school appointments. In States practicing unrestricted certification, great care should be taken by this committee, and all others recommending teachers, to see that no candidates are approved for rural schools who have not had at least minimum preparation or experience in the organization and teaching of schools of this type.

After placement, graduates working in rural schools, particularly in counties inadequately supervised, should be checked or "followed-up" by the teachers-college staff during their first 2 years in the field. Such follow-up work properly conducted will yield large returns, not only to the young graduates assisted, but also to the instructors of the training institutions who will thus be brought face to face with the living results of their own work and stimulated to further professional improvement. For this reason field visiting should be so organized that all members of the teaching staff may share in it occasionally. Toward this end some institutions have found it advisable to provide for the regular employment of one or more general substitutes who take the places of various other instructors for 1 or 2 weeks at a time while the latter are absent from the campus visiting graduates recently placed in public schools.

In States where rural supervision is highly developed the follow-up of graduates working in rural schools will need to be carefully coordinated with county supervisory policies so as to prevent friction and jealousy. Even in such States follow-up is justified and desirable, however, because of the opportunity it affords the faculty for seeing the results of their own instruction through the work of graduates.

6. *Salaries.*—Salary schedules for teaching and all other professions have been so badly demoralized during the present economic depression that it will probably take years to regain the standards formerly attached. As a basic principle in this disturbed field the following recommendation is offered: Salaries for one-teacher rural schools should at least equal those for urban elementary schools in the same county, while States with a large number of one-teacher schools operating on lower standards than the grade-school average, would do well to offer a small differential for rural schools as a means of attracting superior candidates into teaching of this type.

7. *Extension activities and in-service education.*—Since rural schools and rural teaching still involve the lowest standards in the profession, extension activities and in-service education are more important here than elsewhere. Chief among these activities are summer sessions, extension courses, rural school conferences, professional publications, teachers' institutes, and special lectures for both laymen and teachers, all of which should be more definitely adapted to meet the needs of small rural schools.

Summer-school courses for rural teachers, for example, should be based upon the "first-aid" professional needs of the rural teaching corps of the State, and graduated from summer to summer covering a complete 1-year course of training. Extension courses, also, should deal more specifically with the special problems of rural school teaching and should be made more conveniently available to rural teachers who differ from urban teachers in being more widely scattered geographically and more heavily burdened professionally with both classroom and community responsibilities. In the more pioneer parts of the country where transportation facilities are still limited, correspondence courses built around practical school projects have been found well suited to the needs of rural teachers, especially when related to the direct instruction given in summer sessions.

Rural school conferences, though an early development, are especially timely just now with so many nonrural graduates going into one-teacher schools, and are heartily recommended as an effective movement for concentrating all the educational forces of the State upon the problems of this most needy type of school.

8. *Leadership of professional schools for teachers in rural school reform.*—From data previously presented showing the large percentage of graduates now entering rural schools it is evident that the welfare

of teacher-training institutions is at present closely linked to rural school improvement. For this reason and because of their responsibility, as State-supported institutions, to the public in general, teachers colleges should assume greater leadership in the direction and reform of rural education practices. Such reforms include especially larger taxing units and the equalization of educational opportunity, a professionalized county superintendency, rural school consolidation, higher and more restricted certification, more adequate supervision, and better teacher training.

In their own distinctive field of teacher preparation it is particularly important that more attention be given by teachers colleges to the improvement of instructional technics in rural schools and to the preparation of the modern or progressive type of rural teacher. Otherwise the leadership of rural education, and of education in general perhaps, will inevitably pass from the jurisdiction of teachers colleges to that of supervisory or administrative agencies.

With thousands of teachers out of employment and the keen competition engendered by this situation it is likewise extremely important for teacher-training institutions to do everything in their power to uphold standards and requirements for certification. This obligation holds in all States, but is doubly essential in those States having departments of education without the necessary legal authority for enforcing requirements. In such States where standards have already been sacrificed it is recommended that normal schools and teachers colleges take the initiative in holding conferences and conducting State-wide campaigns designed to stir public sentiment on this question and to get the people in general behind a new movement demanding teachers of higher qualification for their children.

9. *Relationships—Institutional and extramural.*—So-called "rural education", properly defined, is but the modification and adaptation of education in general, that is of all phases of education, to rural areas or nonindustrialized regions of relatively low population density. Hence any division of rural education within the teachers college must be all-inclusive in its interests and hold cooperative relationships with practically all other instructors and activities of the institution. Not only this, but similar relationships must be developed and maintained with regard to education as a whole throughout the State.

Within the local institution the chief intramural function of the director or head specialist of rural education should be to enlist the interest and stimulate the contribution of all other instructors to the welfare of rural children. Thus will music, fine arts, health, library service, literature, science, social studies, and all other subject-matter courses and activities be presented to students in training with the needs and experience of rural children, as well as of urban, definitely in mind.

In the field outside, the chief extramural functions of the rural director should be those of promotion and professional assistance—promotion for the cause of rural education in general, and professional assistance for county superintendents and rural supervisors, rural teachers, rural school officers and patrons, high-school training classes and county normals (where these still exist), and all other individuals, organizations, and agencies involved or concerned in the betterment of rural education and country life.

From all this it is apparent that rural education is a large, ramifying, comprehensive interest permeating all phases of education and teacher training not only within local institutions but throughout the profession. This being the case it is imperative for best success that the rural director, or chief rural specialist, shall work in an atmosphere of reasonable freedom and have direct contact with the president, dean, and other administrative officers of the institution. It is therefore advised that the head of rural education within the college be coordinate with the heads of other instructional divisions and not subordinated to other personalities in any way likely to interfere with the maximum efficiency and service of his office.

10. *State program and policy.*—Finally, it is now an accepted principle that the preparation of teachers is a State function and that in the exercise of this function each State should develop an adequate and comprehensive State program. Such a program, for reasons previously presented, should stress rural school needs. Among the factors included should be an analysis of general economic conditions within the State, an investigation of the supply and demand for trained teachers in all types of schools, a critical study of certification and placement, constructive proposals for teaching-training activity in the rural field, and close attention to all professional relationships both within the institution and to other institutions and agencies of the State.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

From the findings of this study it is evident that the welfare of rural teachers exerts marked and far-reaching influence upon the whole profession of education, and that this influence has been greatly enhanced of late by the present economic depression. Notwithstanding this fact rural teachers are still more universally neglected by teacher-preparing institutions than any other group in service. There is now, however, an increasing interest in the needs of this group and of rural life in general which has almost assumed the proportions of a national crusade.

Under this influence normal schools and teachers colleges throughout the country are modifying their curricula in rural terms as never before. In this new development the recent trend is to make certain rural courses a requirement for all students of the institution, on the

theory that rural placement cannot be predetermined, under present conditions, and that a minimum of rural education will be good for all prospective teachers anyway.

From the rural point of view this attitude represents a unique and encouraging development in the education of teachers, one which should yield some permanent gains in the understanding and appreciation of both farm life and rural school teaching. As a working policy of rural teacher training it is quite inadequate, however, in a field presenting more special problems and requiring more technical skills than any other. Moreover, the present popularity of things rural is not going to hold permanently when times improve and the wheels of industry begin to turn again in our large cities. The best the farm can hope for, and all it should desire, in the more stable social order ahead is to hold its rightful share of popular accord and to retain the privilege of making its own distinctive contribution to the future of American civilization, just as it has ever done in the past. Achieving this end will require a reasonable measure of specialized attention to all aspects of rural culture including education; and to show the amount and character of this specialization in the preparation of teachers for small rural school has been the task of this discussion.

PART 8

PART VIII. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN EUROPE¹

CHAPTER I

GENERAL STATEMENT

Manifestly the training of teachers in Europe can be discussed within the limits of this report in broad outline only. Many articles and books have been written which furnish the detailed facts of teacher-training programs in European countries. It seems advisable, therefore, to view some of the problems from a few important points of view, so as to bring out some of the aspects of American teacher training in sharp contrast with corresponding phases of European practice. It will be quite evident that one may find many minor facts at variance with the broad generalizations set forth here, but in the main the spirit and intent of the European practices will not be misinterpreted. In general, reference will be made to the best practices known to the writers, although in some cases we shall attempt to discuss what seems to us the generally accepted procedures.

Professional status of teachers in Europe.—While it is true that teaching has made rapid strides in America toward becoming a profession in the sense that medicine and law are professions, one may say that teaching is a profession in Europe while in America that statement is only half true. The prerequisites for the maintenance of a profession are definite and rather high selective qualifications for admission, long and difficult course of training that cannot be "short-cut" or obtained privately or easily, adequate compensation, economic security, and social prestige and approval. Because most of these conditions prevail for teaching in the leading countries of Europe, such as France, Sweden, Germany, Norway, and Denmark, there exists a teaching profession, and because in most of our own States these conditioning factors do not exist, we do not have a teaching profession in a strict sense of the word.

¹ This part of the report was prepared by Dr. Thomas Alexander, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and expert consultant in comparative education. He was assisted in the collection and preparation of material by Dr. John W. Carr, professor of education, Duke University. Acknowledgment is also made for sections of the material to Dr. Ruth McMurry, assistant professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, and Miss Gretchen M. Switzer, associate in New College, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The requirements for certification for teaching in a secondary school in the continental countries of Europe are exceedingly high. If we may take the preparation of the German secondary school teacher as the example, we soon see the striking difference between the requirements in Europe and those in America. The German secondary school teacher completes the 4-year elementary school at 10; attends the secondary school for a period of 9 years, attaining an academic scholarship equivalent to our junior year in college; devotes from 5 to 6 years to university study, passes a subject matter examination set by the State; serves under supervision an internship of 1 to 2 years in a secondary school; and finally passes an examination in practical and theoretical pedagogy or education. By this time he is approximately 27 or 28 years of age and ready to enter his first full-time, regular teaching position. One may well ask—How can such standards be enforced? There are many contributing factors, all of which will be considered briefly for the purpose of stimulating reflection.

Competition and standards.—The constant condition in Europe of overpopulation and of a rapidly increasing number of university-trained people has made it possible to raise the requirements for certification for secondary teaching to a very high standard. So great has been the overcrowding in the learned professions that a teacher usually has to wait 6 or 7 years after finishing his last examination before final appointment can be made. The average age of final appointment in many states of Germany is almost 35 years. This is an undesirable condition, but it has contributed to making possible high demands in training. There is a serious doubt, however, in the minds of many people as to a condition which demands preparation up to the age of 30, since it may drive many really vigorous teachers away from the profession and retain the plugging, bookish, scholastic type, fit for so-called scholarship, but not well fitted for teaching boys and girls. It may be, too, that much youthful enthusiasm so necessary to a good teacher is lost during the inordinately long period of academic preparation.

Tradition of scholarship and standards.—While competition for teaching positions makes it possible to maintain severe requirements, it is not the only contributing factor. The tradition of scholarship is very active. For centuries the universities in Europe have trained the secondary teachers, or at least the secondary teachers have studied at universities. In recent decades professional training has been added, although usually this training has been carried on in connection with seminars attached to the secondary schools rather than at universities. Knowledge and scholarship in the chosen field have been the chief prerequisites of teaching. The universities have been concerned with knowledge alone. Their students, imbued with

this spirit, have given most of their attention to the pursuit of old knowledge and discovery of the new, and the problems of teaching in the schools have been almost totally neglected. This tradition of rich scholarship has been a very potent factor in setting the very rigid requirements for teaching in secondary schools, since professors at the university desired that their students learn all that they themselves knew before consenting to allow them to teach. This demand required that the period of preparation be long, though quite possibly the time might have been much better spent in considering the problems of education rather than in acquiring much knowledge that had little or no bearing upon the future professional work. In other words, the secondary teachers in Europe are all university professors in miniature as far as knowledge is concerned. There can be no quarrel with a long and rigorous period of training provided it is well spent; that is, devoted to the acquisition and use of worthwhile knowledge, both of subject matter and of procedures in education.

Economic security and standards.—The most potent factor in maintaining rigid and high requirements, whether advisable or not, is the promise of economic security to the young teacher, once he has attained his final appointment. Once the secondary teacher is in his position, upon reasonable performance of duty, he may rest assured that he is as economically secure as it is humanly possible to be. The reward for the long period of preparation is quite adequate. He is able to maintain a comfortable, well-furnished home, educate his children at the best schools, travel each year in his own country or abroad; he is assured of a pension upon retirement; he knows that his wife and family will be provided for in case of his own death; he can keep at least one servant, and can indulge himself in quite as many books as he needs, and can enjoy the theater and music. Only a few of our American States and some of the large cities can make their teachers so secure. In times of economic stress he is not laid off as has happened to thousands of teachers in the United States within recent months.

This knowledge and feeling of economic security not only has a direct effect upon the feasibility of requiring long and vigorous training, but it also makes the problem of selection easy in that many more desire to be admitted to training than can ever be appointed. Consequently the authorities are able to select very carefully from among the intellectually elite. When one remembers that only those who have finished a secondary school and only the most promising from these may ever hope to pass the examinations, one realizes that the secondary teaching candidates in European countries are selected from the top 4 or 5 percent of the youth, viewed from an intellectual angle alone.

Length of period of preparation and standards.—Next among the factors which make it possible to have a highly trained, permanent teaching body, is the fact that the longer the training for a profession the more likely the candidates who elect the profession are to remain in the profession once the training period is over. Where the training period is short, it is easy to pass through the requirements and, if not satisfied, to turn one's attention in another direction and use the first profession as a stepping-stone to a second. In the European countries the secondary teacher-training period is so long that only those really in earnest ever begin and, once through with it, cannot afford to leave it for another. This tends to make for constancy in the profession.

In recent years the wide range of lucrative opportunities in the business world here in America has worked against extending the requirements of the teaching profession. If we had put the standards of appointment too high, it would have driven out large numbers. In decisions to leave or never enter teaching, the factors of low pay and no security were powerful arguments. European countries have never had to face these conditions and as a result have been able to recruit to their teaching groups more readily or permanently.

Social prestige and standards.—Teaching, especially in the secondary schools, has a social prestige in Europe that it has never attained here. Of course, prestige of any sort has been impossible with us due to the low standards in the teaching profession. The vicious circle in America of low professional standards, low salaries, economic insecurity, lack of social approval, and thus back again to low standards has contrived to keep many able young persons out of teaching. Medicine and law are more respected. In Europe teaching in the secondary school is socially approved because the standards of this profession are as high as those of any other.

Patriotism and standards.—A last factor, and by no means a small one in building up a professional spirit among the teachers in European countries, has been that of idealism and patriotism. At least in many of the European states, both elementary and secondary teachers look upon themselves as the vehicles of their own civilization and feel quite as does the clergy the call to service. It is perhaps true that this factor outweighs all the others mentioned. It is quite apparent in the leading European countries that the patriotic, idealistic service of the elementary and secondary teachers is the bedrock upon which the teaching profession rests.

Almost all that has been said in the foregoing paragraphs about the factors which welded the secondary teaching profession are equally true of the elementary teaching field. The training for the elementary field is not as long, by far, the admission requirements are usually not as high, except in Germany and a few other countries, and the demands of the training period are not as severe. Hence teaching in

the elementary field does not command the social and economic privileges that the secondary teaching profession does; but the elementary teaching profession in Europe is protected by the admission and training standards, and is secured by adequate salary, tenure, and retirement privileges. It seems, therefore, where a profession has these assurances of economic and social security, there the profession is a profession. Why cannot we have reasonable salary, tenure, and retirement privileges? Teaching will never be the respected profession it should be until high standards of admission are linked up with the factors which make for professional stability.

Permanency among teachers in Germany and the United States.—This permanency of the teaching profession in general in Europe is in striking contrast to the fluidity of the teaching bodies in the United States. The permanent and slowly changing personnel in Europe avoids a problem in teacher training which presents to us our most difficult problem—that of training many thousands of teachers each year. There are probably 400,000 teachers in training in the United States today in our teachers colleges, normal schools, and schools of education. In Germany, with a population equal to about one-half of ours, there are today probably not more than 5,000 in training. For example, in Prussia today there are only 1,500 students in training for teaching in the elementary and there are more than 40,000,000 persons living in Prussia. In normal times there might be as many as 5,000 in training. In Michigan alone, with a population one-eighth that of Prussia, there are more teachers in training than in Prussia.

Such a condition is traceable in our own country to two great causes and they may be one and the same—rapid turnover caused by first, the economic insecurity in the profession, and, second, the very large percentage of women in the American schools, especially in the elementary field. On account of this heavy turnover, we are compelled to seek out and develop fine teaching personalities and intellects each year far in excess of anything that Europe knows. Manifestly it is an impossible task. If we could keep in the profession permanently those who have teaching ability and intellect, we could soon have a superior staff. But we lose some of our best to the other professions and to marriage, and we must each year begin over again. Europe seeks out its pedagogical ability and keeps it, we seek it out and lose it.

Predominance of men in European schools.—One of the outstanding points of contrast in the teaching profession as a whole in Europe and in America is the predominance of men there and the preponderance of women here. It would serve no purpose to raise a discussion of the relative merits of the two sexes in the teaching field. In the middle European countries the vast majority of the elementary teachers and secondary teachers are men. Practically all rural teachers in 1-teacher and 2-teacher schools are men. Women are usually employed

in the cities, and in girls' schools. In girls' secondary schools and elementary schools, usually half of the teachers must be women. Particularly noticeable is the difference between American and European high schools. The predominance of women in our secondary schools is partly to be explained by the fact that our high schools are coeducational; but even taking this into account our boys in high school are taught much more often by women than by men. It is only seldom in Europe that boys of the ages from 14 to 19 are taught by women. While no scientific opinion can be given, it would seem reasonable to expect that both continents have gone to one extreme or the other. It is also unusual, from the American point of view, to realize that a vast majority of primary children in Europe are taught by men, a situation that one rarely ever finds here except in rural communities in 1-teacher schools. Again it is quite possible that the practice here and in Europe has no sound justification.

Distinction between elementary and secondary education in Europe.—

For many generations there have been 2 school systems in Europe and 2 teaching professions—one school system, the secondary, for the rich and upper classes, and another school system, the folk or elementary, for the peasant and lower classes. And for each school system there has always been a different class of teacher—the secondary school teacher trained at the university and the elementary school teacher, trained at a normal school or teachers' seminary. The cleavages in society found their expression in the school systems and the schools in turn helped perpetuate social and economic differences. The elementary schools of Europe did not prepare for the secondary, they ran and still run parallel to the lower years of the secondary system. The elementary schools encompassed the poor children from the age of 6 to 13 or 14; while the secondary usually enrolled their children at 9 or 10, after they had learned to read and write in private or public schools, and prepared them for the university.

The elementary teaching profession as a group has as little connection with the secondary profession in most European countries as the Negro teachers in the South have been allowed to have with the southern white teachers. Such has been the condition in practically all European countries. The causes are far more social and economic than professional or scientific. The status of the elementary teacher is by no means the same as that of the secondary teacher. His salary is less, his training is less, his social position is lower: His tenure and his salary, and pension have the same security. Studies made in the social background of European teachers indicate quite clearly that the elementary teachers come from the lower classes of society, while a large percentage of the secondary teachers come from the middle and upper classes. Educational opportunity for the lower

classes has been greatly restricted by the compartmented school systems. Elementary teachers, too, have been less well trained than was desirable, and opportunities to study at universities have been made difficult by the dual systems of teacher training.

Increasing standards for preparation of elementary teachers.—The most significant modern tendency in the training of teachers in Europe with respect to the elementary field is the movement for placing the training of elementary teachers upon the university level or basis. This tendency finds a striking parallel in America in such movements as we find at Ohio, Michigan, North Carolina, and in other universities where elementary teachers are being trained.

For a long time elementary teachers have been trained in institutions of secondary character in practically all civilized countries of the world, but the disappearance of this institution, the normal school, is gradual but sure. We can best cite this tendency in Europe by pointing out the abandonment of the normal school in Germany and the appearance of elementary teacher training at the universities or institutions of university rank, and since the beginning of the Hitler regime the new schools for the training of elementary teachers and the university for teacher training. However, this movement is surely under way in some form or other in practically every European country. It marks in one sense a rise of political power among the common people and insistence on their part upon participation in university life, which in Europe is synonymous with leadership.

Abandonment of the old normal school in Germany.—The Volksschule and the old normal school in Germany were, taken together, one of the chief bulwarks of the old order. The old idea of the function of elementary schools in Europe, especially in Germany and France, was that of fostering nationalistic feelings and emotions and ideals for the sake of building up mental and spiritual fortification against a nation's enemies and against internal danger. The development of nationalistic feeling was done at the expense of the individual's rights and of his free, untrammelled growth. The curriculum and method of the elementary school were designed almost entirely for nationalistic needs in states where the lower classes were destined to remain lower classes.

The psychology of Herbart dominated the normal schools and the elementary schools. There was a definiteness of aim, efficiency, and rigidity of procedure in the elementary schools of Germany which may never be achieved again in a modern state unless in Russia, where Prussian principles of indoctrination are applied to different objectives and subject matter. The type of citizen demanded was prescribed, whether he was a Frenchman or a German or a Communist of more recent origin. The job of creating this type was most minutely analyzed and this analysis formed the basis of the work of the normal school.

Every item of material and method of the elementary school, was a subject of study in the teacher training. There was no situation for which the teacher was not prepared in advance, particularly with reference to the subject matter in the elementary school subjects. These teachers were trained rather than educated, just as blacksmiths and artisans are trained to meet standardized situations in a standardized way. Nothing was taken up which did not pertain to the job at hand. The normal-school curriculum was merely an extension of the curriculum of the elementary school. All effort was concentrated upon this. From the age of 14 to 20 the prospective teacher was drilled in the subject matter and procedures of the elementary school. This too-early professionalization led to mechanization of a process rather than to having a thoughtful performance. The teacher was the follower, not the leader. He was limited in his outlook. He was limited by being as much of a master of his profession when he entered it as when he left it 50 years later. This system of training meant virtual enslavement of the classes subjected to it.

The reasons for the abandonment in Germany of the old normal school were political, social, and economic. The lower classes and their teachers were politically handicapped. So keenly was this felt to be the case that immediately after the revolution in 1918, the whole normal-school structure was swept away with one stroke. It was recognized that the new citizenship of Germany could not be trained by teachers whose intellectual outlook was so restricted. It was clear that a better type of citizenship could be molded only by teachers of a much more thorough and fundamental type of training.

Economic depression and increased standards.—It is interesting to note that in times of depression in Germany, standards were not lowered because of lack of funds and wealth, but that there was a very sharp increase upward in the demands of the elementary teacher. By constitutional provision, the training in the future was to be carried on according to the principles of university education. Entrance to the institutions was to be conditioned upon graduation from a secondary school, which corresponds to 2 years of American college. This training was to be carried on either at universities or institutions of university rank. In other words, the lower classes and their teachers could not be politically free as long as any barriers were up to impede their intellectual progress to a point where they could assume leadership in the state.

So today we find in Prussia that 2 years of study are required in institutions which are conducted according to the principles of university training. Three years of university study are required at Hamburg, Dresden, and Leipzig, and so on through all the various German States.

Increasing professional status of elementary teachers.—The urge toward university study was also social. Lower standards of entrance to the profession of elementary teaching drew raw material for the teaching force from the lower classes so that not only was intellectual and educational inferiority implied but also social inferiority. The feeling was often expressed that teachers of the masses should themselves come from the masses so that they could better understand the daily life problems of their children. The children were not to be educated out of the class to which they had been born. They were to be taught by teachers who had lived and felt and thought as lower-class people live and feel and think.

Lastly, the economic factor played an important part because the teachers in the elementary schools wished to be as well compensated as teachers in the secondary schools, and because they knew that better economic compensation would mean more influence, wider training, and better advantages along their line.

So the old normal school was abolished in Germany. In other countries it is being modified and transformed, just as the majority of the normal schools in this country have been changed into teachers colleges, and our teachers colleges are gradually but surely developing into teachers universities. This tendency is not to be found in Germany alone, but also in Sweden, England, Norway, Austria, and Russia and in other countries.

Increasing standards for elementary teachers in England.—In England also we find a definite tendency to train teachers at the university level. It is not unreasonable to expect that in the future all teachers will be urged to go to the university. Scotland has already gone a long way in this direction. England has not gone far but has done an interesting thing in that colleges for the training of elementary teachers have been tied up with universities. The purpose of such connection is to let the university influence permeate the atmosphere of the elementary training college.

This new demand for university character of teacher training has arisen from a need felt for a more adequate type of teacher and by a civilization which is no longer satisfied with teachers who were narrowly and meagerly trained. Contributing to the movement is recognition of the fact that the problems of education in the elementary school are extremely profound and complicated, and they can only be solved by teachers who are trained for independent thought and action.

We find, therefore, two distinct new forms of elementary teacher training; one, the teachers university organized expressly for the development of elementary teachers; and the other, schools of education in connection with universities already established.

The essential nature of the procedure in the training is that of the university. It follows university procedures in the preparation of the other professions. Seminar, practicum, lecture, colloquia stand in sharp contrast with the old secondary school methods of the normal school where little was learned except the minimum techniques of teaching.

The main objective of the new teacher training movement is rich scholarship, a mastery of the scientific method of study, the development of independent and creative thinking ability, and a long period of mature practice toward a gradual effective educational leadership.

Comparison of American and European secondary teachers.—The most striking contrast between American and European teacher training lies in the difference one finds in the scholarship attainments of the secondary teachers. We know that all comparisons are odious, but taking the great body of German, Swedish, French, or Austrian secondary teachers and comparing them from the point of view of scholarly attainment, command of their subject, and professional skill in teaching, and enthusiasm, one must honestly admit that we suffer by the comparison. We are quite sure this is due to the very great amount of time devoted to study of the fields of interest. This statement is old and trite but true.

Yet, we are gradually becoming convinced that as real educators—not as instructors in a subject—the American teacher in our high school does not suffer by comparison with his European colleague. The European secondary teacher knows more facts, is more philosophically inclined, but we are not at all sure that the European teacher is a better teacher or educator. It all depends upon what one wishes to do with boys and girls of high-school years. After long acquaintance with young high-school graduates of gymnasia, we are not as sure as we used to be that the real advantage is on the side of the European boy. There is much to be said in favor of the youth and vigor of the American high-school staff, granted that the scholarship may not be as high as that of the European teacher. Youth responds to youth, and it is certain that in many European secondary schools the gap between staff and student is very great and is to be deplored.

Comparisons in curricula for elementary and secondary teachers.—In considering the curriculum or course of training in various European countries we are again forced to distinguish between the training of elementary and secondary teachers. With respect to the curriculum of most of the institutions devoted to the training of elementary teachers we find the old normal schools or training colleges in many countries such as France and England in part, and many of the minor countries, while in Germany, Sweden, and in England in part, and in several others we find a drift toward the teachers college or university, which is gradually reducing the wide gap between the

requirements for the elementary and secondary teacher. The French normal school and its kindred in other European countries have all the faults of the old normal school—a school for instructing young persons in devices and techniques for teaching the elementary-school subjects, the knowledge of which on the teacher's part being little above elementary-school standard. Teachers coming from these normal schools the world over have been immature and poorly trained. To be sure they may have been able to teach the rudiments of reading and speech, but as a great group they have never been able to educate the youth of any land in the great fundamentals of life—thinking, will to action, acquaintance with the most urgent problems of human existence—since they themselves are not educated to deal with these issues. Small wonder that the elementary schools of France, Germany, and England have done little to change the mode of living, thinking, or morals of the people of these countries.

Changes in elementary schools since the World War.—Since the World War rapid changes have taken place in the work of the elementary schools and in the institutions which prepare teachers for the great folk schools of Europe. In a very general way the change in the nature of the elementary schools in the more progressive countries of Europe has dictated the corresponding changes in the teacher-training curriculum. The old elementary school, the "learning-school", where memorization of the "essentials" dominated, has given way to the "activity-school", a school in which the pupils are brought into close contact with the local environment in order to begin, of course, slowly but surely, the interpretation and comprehension of the complex life about them. Even an elementary attempt to understand the issues which involved the very physical, economic, and spiritual existence of every member of the race, forced the children and their teachers to consider philosophy, politics, economics, psychology, sociology, hygiene, biology—the children to consider these problems quite objectively and simply, the teachers in their colleges and universities. The sudden turn in the character of the public elementary school has brought about in many countries, especially Germany, Austria, Russia, and Italy, the study of philosophy, politics, religion, psychology, ethics, sociology and political economy, race, personal and social hygiene, and other subjects. All these stand in sharp contrast to the traditional normal school programs of European countries.

A new attitude toward teachers.—The new teacher in Europe is looked upon as the educator and spiritual leader of the community—one who can take forward steps in the interpretation of, and in the development of the national culture as it expresses itself in his community. No longer is he looked upon as a classroom instructor whose chief business it is to transmit traditional knowledge to pupils.

This concept of teaching has reacted very definitely upon the organization of the curricula of teachers courses at the university and the college. In contrast to the old normal-school courses which were largely a review of elementary-school subjects and courses of methods in technique, we find now marked emphasis upon the field of philosophy which has for its purpose a thorough grounding of the teacher in philosophic thinking and of giving him the ability to develop a philosophy of life adequate for the task of intellectual and spiritual leadership of his community.

While it is somewhat unusual to find courses in philosophy in the curricula of American teacher-training institutions, we find in European countries courses in philosophy occupying extremely important positions in the curricula. Philosophy is studied from the systematic as well as from the historic approach. Logic, ethics, psychology, and sometimes epistemology, are included in practically all the newer training courses for teachers. The position assumed is that a scientific basis of educational theory is associated with a well-grounded philosophic system, which in turn must find its basis in history, critical philosophy, and metaphysics. Likewise, the development of the teacher's personality and outlook on life calls for scientific insight into systematic philosophy, with the objective of an appreciation of the fundamental problems of epistemology, metaphysics, and ethics. Typical courses found are: General history of philosophy, ethics, logic, philosophy of culture, epistemology, political philosophy, philosophy of education, philosophy of history, philosophic basis of the eighteenth century, special courses in the study of individual philosophers such as Leibnitz, Kant, Nietzsche, Hume, John Stuart Mill, special courses in some particular important philosophic work. Careful preparation in the philosophic field gives a balance and direction to all subsequent study which is highly desirable.

In the field of psychology, which is usually considered a branch of philosophy, tendency runs sharply in three directions: Courses in the psychology of the teaching personality, great emphasis upon the psychology of the individual child, and courses dealing with the psychology of group behavior. It is probable that one would find not a single course in the American teaching institutions entitled "Psychology of the Teacher." We have many courses dealing with the psychology of the school subjects but little attention is paid to the psychology of the teacher himself and problems dealing with his adjustment to his professional tasks. This course differs very much from the course in psychology for the teacher, which is usually concerned with schoolroom practice. It deals with the psychology of the teacher himself, his reactions to his subject, his reactions to himself, and his reactions to various types of children. In short, his entire mental environment becomes the object of study.

Not only has emphasis been laid upon the philosophic training of the new teacher, but special stress has been put upon education for social responsibility. The teacher is expected to assume leadership in community activities, and in social problems and work. This is particularly true in small towns and rural sections where the teacher is usually the best educated person.

Emphasis upon social and economic problems.—Again, in contrast with the courses formerly offered in the normal schools, we find occupying a prominent place a wide range of courses dealing with social and economic problems. The teacher-training institutions attempt to point out to the young student the relation of the student to society and especially to show him the relation of his work to the community. Among courses now included in teacher-training institutions are the following: Method of historical research in community study anthropology, ethnology, practicum in local folk study, history of political parties, study in customs, sociology, social psychology, geography, regional geography, field and laboratory courses in sociology and social economy, world history, constitutional law, documentary study, political science, educational sociology, youth welfare and corrective education, nationality, and education. Quoting directly from the university catalog at Hamburg: "We cite offerings in the field of social studies to indicate what is expected in the orientation of the young teacher in his understanding of social phenomena."

Separation of professional and academic preparation.—Another very striking problem is the tendency in Europe in the training of elementary teachers to divorce absolutely the professional training of a teacher from his academic preparation. In the old normal school the attempt was made to carry forward the general education of a teacher along with his theoretical and practical training. This point of view is being rejected in many countries. The feeling is gaining ground rapidly that a teacher should have a rich academic background before ever attempting any sort of professional work and that the professional school should be 100 percent professional and not half academic and half technical, the notion being that to combine in a professional school straight academic courses with professional courses is fatal to good work in either field.

Thus, we find the newer teacher-training institutions, especially in middle Europe, with curricula which are strictly professional. In this respect they are following the analogy to be found in the training of physicians. The attempt is made to assure the teacher control of general culture before permitting him to enter upon his professional studies, demanding in most cases the equivalent of what in America would be 2 years of college training. This is followed by a period of 2, 3, or 4 years of professional preparation. On the other hand, we find, for example, at some of the universities in Germany elementary

teachers being trained in 3-year professional schools with the inclusion of a major in one academic subject in which the student is expected to be more or less proficient. For the rest of his subject matter he is expected to rely upon his preparation in the secondary school and upon what he can develop himself. It is felt that in a pursuit of this one academic subject he has learned scientific method of study which will enable him to pursue other fields with profit.

Emphasis upon in-service education.—Another characteristic of the situation in Europe is the emphasis upon training in service. It is tied up with the customary period of probationary teaching. In Hamburg, for example, there is an institution of in-service training which all teachers are required to attend for a period of 3 years after completing the course for elementary teaching. This institution is supposed to carry forward the teacher's work along theoretical and practical lines and to assist the teacher in his professional orientation. In Prussia we find teachers colleges definitely committed to a policy of continued education for their graduates and for all teachers in the district. This work is carried on by calling teachers back to the college to participate in conferences dealing with their experiences in the field, and likewise to pursue courses in definite subjects in fields of investigation.

Political freedom of European teachers.—The last point, and one of extreme significance to us, is the political emancipation of the teacher. In practically all European countries one of the most striking phenomena is the political activity of the public-school teacher. In the past he has had just about as much political influence as a typical fifth-grade teacher in this country. If he had political preferences or notions or ambitions he was not expected to make them known. In the last 10 years the teacher of Europe and frequently teachers in the elementary schools have been very active politically and have become vital forces not only in their classrooms but in their broader communities. A large number of teachers now occupy prominent positions in the parliaments of European states.

No more significant lesson for us can be taken from a study of teacher training abroad than our observation of the political freedom enjoyed by our colleagues across the water.

Nationalism among European teachers.—An aspect of teacher training in Europe which is of great importance and possibly of danger is the development of nationalistic attitudes in the young teachers. While no one of importance in America would desire to educate a new generation of teachers undevoted to American ideals, and while everyone knows that Americans as a whole are extremely proud of their nationality, the average reader does not realize the extreme nationalism of many European countries, Germany, Russia, Italy,

France, and even England, though the last in a much less conscious manner.

We shall insert here the translation of an article by Joachim von Schumann of the Zentral-Institut für Erziehung und Unterricht in Berlin upon recent changes in teacher training in Prussia.

THE NEW TEACHER-TRAINING AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION¹

The most decisive change which has been undertaken in teacher training is characterised by the development of a German, national-socialist teaching profession in true German institutions of teacher training. Superficially this was marked by the fact that upon the basis of the decrees of April 20 and May 6, 1933, the name "Pädagogische Akademie", which consisted of two foreign words, was changed to Hochschule für Lehrerbildung (university for teacher training). In substance it means that the teacher shall no longer be educated to be a "world citizen" (weltbürger), but that he shall become a teacher truly bound to the fatherland, who shall bring the youth to real German folk consciousness. Folk study, geography of defense, and frontier study are, therefore, the new fields of study with which the student is to be made acquainted at the university for teacher training.

A further characteristic of the new universities for teacher training is afforded by the return to the soil or rural life. Already on February 18, 1933, Minister Rust issued a decree which dealt intensively with the problem of rural school education. The future teacher is not only to be acquainted with the characteristics of peasant life, but in addition he shall be filled with the feeling of inner relationships and ties to the country and its inhabitants. He is to gain an appreciation for the rural people, who are by nature much more closely bound to their home soil than are the city dwellers. Only if the future teacher is most intimately bound to the nature, history, and culture of the country, only if the customs and ways of its inhabitants have become dear and precious to him, can he become a real teacher of the village's own school. For the ideal fulfillment of his profession there also is necessary a deep feeling of responsibility for the high task which is his as an educator of the people. The student who once has gained a full appreciation of that country district in which his university lies and feels bound together with its inhabitants will be able later to adapt himself quickly to the characteristics of a neighboring rural community. In addition, the understanding must be awakened in him of how the rural life with which he is acquainted fits into the total picture of German life. By means of his assistantship in the rural school, in the youth welfare work, and in the vacation camp, opportunity is given him upon the basis of personal observation and experience of acquiring vital insight in the work of the rural folk, in their economic necessities and educational needs. Likewise the possibility is afforded the teaching candidate of participating in voluntary work service in order in this manner through personal knowledge and experience to acquire an appreciation of the work of rural people. Only by personal contact and through his own experiences will he be able to judge the nature of the inner necessities and the educational needs of rural life.

The universities for teacher training in Beuthen, Bonn, Dortmund, Elbing, Frankfurt/Main, Halle/Saale will be reorganised in their position and educational work according to the plan of the new university for teacher training at Lauenburg in Pomerania, established and bound to the soil. It was established and organised by Ministerialrat Professor Dr. Bargheer and was opened officially by

¹ Pädagogisches Zentralblatt. Heft Sept. 10, 1933. Beitz. Langensalza, p. 452, 2.

Minister Rust on June 24, 1933. The Minister emphasized especially in his dedicatory address that the individual student must no longer be educated for himself, but for work for and with his people and that he must always feel himself as a member of a great folk or racial community. The new universities shall train ideal teachers who feel themselves called as true national-socialists to cooperate in the upbuilding of our people. This is symbolized in that all students must wear the "brown shirt."

This new university was placed at Lauenburg because this little city lies in the imperiled frontier of northeastern Pomerania. This new university shall be a cultural-political bulwark against the Corridor and together with Elbing keep the spiritual frontier guard. In addition it shall revive the old colonization area of the Order of German Knights, who reconquered here age-old German territory.

With this foundation not only is a further milestone attained on the way to a new teacher training, but there is created also a visible fortification for the spiritual and cultural defense of the threatened East.

The implications of this tendency are quite evident. Reference here to the courses offered at Kiel in the summer of 1933, and similar to those offered at all other Prussian universities for teacher training (see p. 427) indicate the degree to which the nationalistic spirit is being cultivated in the young teachers. The admission requirements to these new teacher universities make obligatory activity in national-socialistic groups and membership in the Aryan race, though certain exceptions may be provided for under the law. In other words there are political and racial qualifications for admission to these new teacher-training institutions. Similar procedures are followed in Russia, Italy, Spain, Poland. In Germany, the young teachers in training must wear the uniform of the party. The state is not going to take the chances taken by the Social Democrats of allowing its youth to hear doctrines subversive of the state. The state is supreme.

While we may have the most recent and vivid example of nationalism in Germany, the ideas involved are by no means new in Europe. In fact, the whole procedure in nationalizing Germany has been taken from other countries and it is strange only because of the swiftness of the process. An Englishman is always an Englishman, a Frenchman always a Frenchman—be he Rightist, Centrist, or Leftist, he is a nationalist. He has been a nationalist so long that it never occurs to him that one must be trained to be a nationalist. So in every country in Europe which was visited all teachers were found to be extremely nationalistic and chauvinistic—and their training begins in the primary grades and continues in and out of school until adulthood and beyond. It merely happens that today Germany is trying to do quickly what most other countries have been doing for a century or more.

Teachers' salaries in European countries.—With respect to salaries in European countries, it is extremely difficult to say anything with reference to actual salaries paid which has any particular meaning

since money values are so flexible and rates of exchange are fluctuating so rapidly. It is scarcely worth while in this report to attempt to give salaries in terms of figures for the reason just given. There are, however, a few principles of compensation which are of extreme value to students of comparative education. There are a few general principles which apply to all categories of teachers, irrespective of their preparation and field.

The most basic assumption made with reference to salaries in Europe is that the teacher is expected to devote all of his time to the profession of teaching and to have no other source of income which will claim any of his effort, unless it might be received from professional writing or speaking. In compensation for all of the teacher's time, the state, in general, assumes to provide a salary which makes adequate provision for the teacher and his family, such as to enable him to maintain a standard of living considered necessary in the level of teaching in which he is engaged. The actual amount of money received, therefore, by the teacher in Europe is not a very vital question. The important fact is that all the teachers in Europe have a fairly adequate income, usually adjusted to the local conditions under which they work. Differentials are given for length of service, position held, location of community in which the teacher is engaged; and sometimes a differential for rent.

The important issue which will interest the American teacher is that European teachers can live comfortably whether they are teachers in elementary or secondary schools. In addition to this assurance of an adequate salary, pension rights are provided upon retirement and for the teacher's dependents in case of the teacher's death. The salary and pension schemes in force in most of the European countries form one very important element in the economic security assured the teacher, which, as has been said previously, constitutes the bedrock of the teaching profession.

There are discrepancies between salaries and privileges afforded elementary and secondary teachers in European schools. These are justified by longer periods of training and more rigid standards of appointment. While these discrepancies are often large, it is still true that the elementary teachers have quite adequate salaries and live comfortably and, in most cases, are able to enjoy privileges which the ordinary American teachers in elementary schools do not have. For example, the rural teacher in many of the middle European states receives low money income but, in compensation therefor, he is provided with living quarters and acreage and, frequently, materials and supplies as part of his income. In fact, the rural teacher in many of the European countries lives more comfortably and probably has a

larger cash surplus than teachers in the secondary schools in the large cities who have much greater expenses.

Another interesting feature sometimes found in European salary laws is special compensation for a teacher with regard to the number of children in his own family. For example, in Germany supplementary amounts are paid for each child in the teacher's family. The first two children are provided with 20 marks each until they are 21 years of age; the third and fourth children with 25 marks; and the fifth and sixth with 30 marks. This practice is not followed in many European countries but is an outgrowth of the general theory of compensation that one should be paid according to his social responsibilities.

In principle, throughout Europe men teachers are paid higher salaries than women teachers, but the difference is usually not more than 10 percent of the men's salary. To offset this difference in salary women are frequently not required to teach as many hours a week. The system seems to be satisfactory since there is little complaint made by the women as to salaries paid.

Another item with reference to salaries which seems important in a comparative study is that salaries are usually paid by the state rather than by local communities. This of course does not apply in all European countries, but it does seem to have great merit. When the state guarantees minimum salaries it does much to equalize educational opportunities. For example, one can say that all elementary teachers in Germany are paid the same salary regardless of their teaching location. This is accomplished by differentials to equalize differences in cost of living. This does more than anything else to bring to each child the same quality and excellence of instruction. Such a measure would be of extreme value to many States in the United States. Many of these items with respect to salaries in European countries go back to the fact that in continental Europe one does not find several grades of elementary and secondary teachers. One usually finds no first-grade or second-grade certificate for elementary or secondary schools. There is a minimum that must be attained by all elementary or secondary teachers and, accordingly, there is only one salary standard. As a result of this all schools are approved schools, are on the same level, and no schools are without trained teachers—adequately paid and secure in position. While these statements are very broad generalizations, they are quite usually true in the leading European countries, such as Germany, Sweden, Denmark, and others.

Teacher tenure in Europe.—Another item which should be mentioned in this same connection is the question of tenure. A great many arguments have been advanced in favor of permanent tenure and a great many against it. The most important one against permanent tenure seems to sum itself up in the idea that a teacher who is once

secure in his position will not progress professionally as rapidly and continuously as if he were without a permanent and secure appointment. The chief argument against this point of view is that it does not seem to work out so in such countries as Germany and Sweden. In fact, there seems to be a higher degree of professional interest in those countries than where teachers are without any professional security. There are, however, certain conditions which obtain in these foreign countries which justify tenure. These conditions do not exist in the United States. Every tenure law in Europe is based on the assumption that the teacher is well prepared and qualified for teaching; that each teacher has passed through a long period of preparation and probation during which time it can be determined whether or not he has acquired the habit of professional growth. When these two conditions are met, the European practice of permanent tenure seems to be thoroughly justified and to be the only basis of a real teaching profession capable of devoting all its energies to problems of the school rather than to the spending of energies worrying about the dangers of unemployment and dismissal. Recent events in the United States indicate that the morale of our schools has been greatly undermined because of lack of security among the teaching staff.

Another great argument in favor of the European tenure laws is that teachers there are usually immune to petty political and personal policies and even in days of terrific political upheaval, the pension and retirement funds have generally protected professional workers who have been removed from office because they were totally out of sympathy with the policies of the State.

Selection of candidates for teaching in Europe.—It will be necessary also to go briefly into the problems of selection of candidates for the teaching profession and the processes by which undesirable candidates are refused admission or are eliminated before appointment. The examination is the chief instrument for the selection of candidates for the teaching profession. An illustration taken from the training of secondary teachers in Germany (which is very similar to the procedures followed in many European countries) will suffice to illustrate the rigid selection in the field of secondary teacher training. A young man who desires to become a teacher in a German secondary school has a great number of barriers to pass before appointment. At the age of 10, when he transfers from the elementary school to the secondary school, he is required to pass an examination which tends to indicate his intellectual ability to do the work of the secondary school. This examination and other contributing factors eliminates about 85 percent of the children in Germany from attendance at the secondary school. Some of these other factors are economic as well as educational but, in general, the ablest children are allowed to go to secondary schools, while the ones with poor background and less ability are

shunted to the elementary school. At the age of 19, the prospective teacher is required to pass a second examination, known as the "maturity" or "leaving" examination (Reifeprüfung or Abiturientenexamen). The whole process and procedure of the secondary school system eliminates along the route a very large percentage of those who enter this school at the age of 10. Throughout the 9 years of the German secondary school the work is very heavy and those who are physically and mentally poorly equipped never succeed in passing the "leaving" examination. One may say that not more than one-fourth of those who enter the secondary schools ever complete the course with success in the examination. Since the Hitler regime only about one-third of those who pass the "leaving" examination are certified to enter the universities. This gradually narrowing process goes on throughout the university where the student studies for an average of 6 years at the end of which he passes a third examination, known as the "State examination." This examination again eliminates the weakest ones among the candidates. Those who succeed in passing the State examination must spend 2 years—full time—in interne service period at a secondary school, at the end of which time they must again pass the last examination, known as the "pedagogical examination." This, in brief, illustrates the long and rigid process of selection and elimination through which secondary teachers must pass. We would estimate that teachers in the German secondary schools represent the top 1 or 2 percent intellectually of the country.

It would not be fair to complete the statement of selection without making some reference to the emphasis now being placed, in many European countries, upon personal and social qualifications as well as upon intellectual ones. A very definite effort is made, for example, in Germany to eliminate from the teaching profession young men and women who have no qualities of leadership so important for successful teaching. While no very definite measures have been developed to test these qualities they seek them out much in the same way that we do and apparently are making good progress in eliminating the so-called "bookworm" from the teaching profession.

Entrance requirements.—In the elementary field the standards are usually somewhat lower in Europe than in the secondary field, but in Germany the qualifications for admission to the elementary teacher-training institutions are the same as admission to training for secondary teaching. Usually admission to normal schools and elementary teacher-training institutions in Europe depends upon the completion of an intermediate type of school and entrance examinations which generally test the ability of the student in elementary-school subjects. These admission standards are being raised from year to year but at the present time are not a very high level as compared with Germany and in certain States in the United States. There is, however, in all

these countries a very definite attempt made to eliminate those who for personal reasons are apparently unsatisfactory or do not give promise of becoming good teachers. Quite naturally, the whole group is of a lower level economically, intellectually, and socially than the group applying for admission to training for secondary schools. In recent years, and for a long time now, certain political, religious, and racial restrictions have been applied in a number of European countries. For a great many generations, admission to the Prussian normal schools was restricted to those who were not too radical in their political beliefs. Also for many years in Germany, in certain sections at least, Jewish candidates never succeeded in passing the examination or failed to be placed upon the eligible lists, or were rejected for local reasons. In many other countries, while not through written laws but rather through unwritten ones, preference is given to those who belong to this church or that political party. For example, very few Catholics would ever be permitted to enter the teaching profession in Sweden and, quite naturally, very few of them apply for admission. In recent months, in Germany, restrictions of a very definite sort have been set up for admission to the universities for training elementary teachers, the implication being that any candidate who is of non-Aryan descent, who has not taken part in political storm troop sections, and who has not taken part in public work service, will not be admitted to training for the elementary schools.

In conclusion it should be pointed out that the numbers admitted to training are limited either by competitive examination or by a limited registration controlled by the number of teachers actually needed as determined by a prediction procedure. In one sense all admissions are competitive since many more apply for training than are ever accepted, and the competition consists of a comparison of marks, personality factors, and other items. In other instances admission is determined by out-and-out competitive examinations for a limited number of places in the training institutions.

Selection by competitive examination.—In the elementary field the number accepted in training are quite usually limited, while in the secondary field preparation for teaching is not restricted at all. Anyone, for example, who wishes to prepare for teaching in a German secondary school may do so, taking his own chances on appointment even if he does pass the final examinations. Consequently, there is and has been for 40 or more years a long waiting list of qualified teachers for secondary school positions. On the other hand, the number of candidates admitted to the elementary teacher-training universities is strictly limited and those admitted are practically guaranteed appointment if they are successful in their work and examinations.

Much could be written upon the nature and characteristics of the competitive examinations for admission and for degrees, and the

other examinations used for qualification for appointment, either temporary or permanent. Space allows the consideration of one or two points only. On the negative side of the examination system one may say that emphasis is put upon factual knowledge usually memorized and seldom understood with reference to its professional use. On the positive side it may be said that the typical subject-matter examination found used in the European examination system does eliminate the students who do not know their subjects.

The best teacher's professional examination, usually consisting of written, oral, and practical divisions or parts, are based upon two or three essentially sound principles of examination, quite different from the principles underlying the ordinary examinations. First, these examinations are based upon the principle that the examination is to discover the student's strongest, rather than weakest, points. Second, the examination is to discover the student's ability to do the things the teacher must do as a professional worker; and third, the examination is comprehensive in that it takes into consideration all of the facts of the student's academic and professional career from the time of admission on. These principles of examination are, in general, directly opposed to those now in use in most examinations. It seems reasonable to think that the application of the principles named would make for a marked improvement in the professional education of the young teaching candidate.

In the general area of practice teaching, observation, and participation one finds many points of similarity with American practice and a few outstanding points of difference.

In the secondary field one may say that such European countries excel us in the range, variety, and amount of practice teaching. This is true of Germany, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and others; while in other countries one may say that there is virtually no professional training for teachers, and consequently little or no practice. This tends to be true in England and France. The best that can be said of France is that professional training of secondary teachers is very meager, while preparation along academic lines is correspondingly higher for those who acquire the higher licenses.

The elementary school candidates receive much the same sort of observation and practice as is afforded in our normal schools here, although it does not generally seem to be so systematically administered as it is in our own country. In some instances there are points of difference with reference to the range of practice, both in subjects and in grades.

Use of cooperating schools for practice teaching.—The old model school idea in the training of teachers is losing ground in Europe, much as it is here. While the campus or demonstration school is quite frequently retained in many institutions and countries, the

tendency today is to use cooperating public and private schools and institutions for much of the observation and practice. Usually the teacher-training institutions have quite free use of the public schools in their districts. Apparently the difficulties arising in America between teachers colleges and city systems used by them do not arise in European countries. This is due to the fact that in Europe the administration of all schools is usually centralized in one authority, very much as it is in one of our metropolitan cities, where the board of education controls the city teachers colleges and the public schools and thus avoids any disputes over authority.

There is no special training for supervisors of elementary student teaching, just as we find little or no professional training for any of the staff members of teacher-training institutions beyond that which the members may have received for the elementary or secondary school. The supervisor is usually the teacher of the subject in the training institution or the regular classroom, so far as the training of elementary teachers is involved. In the secondary school training field the university subject-matter teacher has nothing at all to do with the students in training, since the latter leave the university and do their internship in a secondary school without any connection with the university. The supervisors are the regular teachers in the secondary school to whom the young candidates are assigned. In most instances these young teachers are regularly supervised and with great care.

Then we have a sharp contrast in the supervisory practice. In the elementary field the student teacher is supervised by his subject-matter and theory teachers, while in the secondary field there is little or no connection between subject-matter teachers at the universities and the supervisors in the secondary schools in charge of training. Good results are obtained in both systems. It must be remembered, however, that the supervisor in the secondary school has training equivalent to that of the university teacher and quite often is an outstanding scholar in his own subject. This apparently is the reason that the young secondary teacher does not need help from the university teacher. It may even be an advantage that there is no connection between the university and the school with reference to practice teaching.

Principles governing practice teaching in European countries.—The best forms and types of practice teaching in European schools for teachers have much to offer in principles and practice to those concerned with the training of teachers. We shall state the nature of these practices in the form of principles which seem to suggest sound procedure for any country regardless of local conditions.

(a) The content of student teaching should be such as to give the intending teacher experience with all the more important phases of

a teacher's professional activity. A thorough interpretation of this principle, for example, as carried out at Hamburg, Dresden, Sweden, the elementary teacher's universities in Prussia, Vienna, and many other states, provides a much richer teaching experience for novices than is usually afforded by the practice teaching in American normal schools and teachers colleges where the number of clock-hours devoted to practice is on the average not more than 120 to 150. No phase of a teacher's work is left out of the young candidate's experience, organization and selection of materials, planning and teaching, individual case studies, parent and adult contacts, professional writing and speaking, participation in local civic and political affairs, public work and social service, rural and city school practice, sports and club work, faculty meetings, in short, everything that any teacher ever does. The period is usually equivalent to 2 years of interne service. In some instances these contacts cover from 3 to 6 years, the period of study and probation.

(b) Student teaching should be differentiated in every respect, time, content, variety, and sequence, according to the needs of the student and other factors concerned.

(c) Student teaching should aim to develop independence in material and in procedures on the part of the student.

Summary—Teacher-training principles in Europe.—In conclusion it seems best to attempt to state briefly the principles of teacher training which characterized European procedures and which might be of service to American workers in considering our problems of reconstruction and improvement. It will not be possible to argue the merits of these principles. They have been derived by careful analysis of the practices of the leading European countries—practices which through long years have served in a way as rigid and scientific experimentation.

1. Sound, rich, broad scholarship is the first essential of all teacher training.
2. The best forms of teacher training must be carried on at university schools of education or at universities devoted solely to teacher training—similar to schools of medicine or technology.
3. Contact on the part of the student with teaching situations must be long and continuous.
4. The content of student teaching must include all of the more important phases of a teacher's activity.
5. Independence in control and organization of materials, leading to independence in thought and action, must be a chief aim of the teacher's education.
6. The teacher's study and experience must cross-section all of the more important phases of human knowledge and activity.

7. Professional training should not begin before the completion of the equivalent of the junior year in college or perhaps not before graduation from college.
8. The social and moral qualities are quite as important as intellectual characteristics in the development of teachers.
9. Adequate and permanent compensation is essential to a worthy teaching profession.
10. A professional period of preparation followed by a probationary period seems justified by experience.
11. In-service training is essential to any sound program of teacher training.
12. Ability to teach rather than accumulation of degrees and credit-hours is the only sound basis of appointment.

CHAPTER II

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND

TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Lower standards for elementary teachers.—Like the United States, England still has a "back-door" scheme through which young people can enter elementary teaching with a modicum of preparation. Such teachers, in both countries, are usually assigned to rural areas. In England the pupil-teacher and student-teacher systems send most of their product into the rural school service. The training under both of these schemes is on an apprenticeship basis. Under the student-teacher plan the candidate, usually at the age of 17, begins teaching during the last year of secondary school work and spends practically full time in practice. This plan is now being abandoned in favor of training which starts at least a year later, after the student has entered college or university.

England has above the secondary level two types of institution in which training for elementary teachers is provided: First, the training colleges; second, university training departments. Both of these are only semipublic institutions. Although they receive grants from the state, they are not controlled by the board of education.

Teacher-training colleges.—The entrance requirements of the training colleges and university training departments are practically the same, except that the universities are somewhat more strict than the colleges and get the more capable students. Those who enter either type of institution are usually 17 or more years of age, are recommended as to health and character by the head of the secondary school formerly attended, and have passed at least the first secondary school examination. This means that candidates entering training have a rather adequate academic and general education. In practice the entrance to the course of preparation is in a sense competitive. Accepted candidates have frequently passed the second school or advanced examination, which indicates that they have done part of the first year's work toward a university degree. Personal interviews are also used as a means of selecting the most promising applicants.

Curricula of the training colleges.—The course in the training college is either 2 or 3 years in length. When the third year of work is taken, it is usually spent in specialization for some branch of elementary school work. The 2-year course is composed of three types of sub-

jects: Professional subjects (such as principles of teaching), general subjects (English, for instance), and practical subjects (such as music and practical arts). Differentiated curricula are provided through variation in the emphasis placed on general subjects. A teacher preparing for work with children over 11 years of age is expected to specialize in some particular field of subject matter, while a teacher of younger children may present a more general type of training. The amount of subject-matter specialization is controlled by the regulations for the final examination. In addition to a test in general subjects, all teachers are required at the end of their training to take the examination in professional subjects and to demonstrate ability in the practical work: Music, gardening, handwork, and drawing.

The course in observation and practice teaching as provided in the training colleges leaves much to be desired. The regulations require at least 12 weeks of teaching, unless the candidate has had previous experience. Practice is usually arranged in public schools which are only partially under the control of the training colleges. Subject-matter teachers are responsible for the work in observation, and education lecturers for the practice teaching. Since the board of education requires that candidates show satisfactory teaching ability before they can receive a certificate, the year of probation following graduation may be used as a period for practice teaching under the guidance of the school head and of the inspector.

University training departments.—University training departments give 4 years of preparation. The first 3 of these are devoted to academic study and the last year to professional preparation. The academic degree work may be done on the pass or ordinary level, which requires the extensive study of a number of subjects, or on the honors level, which is characterized by specialization in one subject or several closely related subjects. In terms of American standards the pass degree is equivalent to the American A.B. and the honors degree is comparable to the M.A. Following such an academic training, the student spends a year in professional study. The work includes both a theoretical and a practical phase. The educational theory courses include those usually stressed in training of teachers: Principles of teaching, special methods, educational psychology, history of education, and hygiene. The observation and practice teaching are conducted as in the training colleges. This work is rather loosely organized and not sufficiently controlled by the departments. Since professional training is superimposed on academic work, there is little integration between the subject matter learned during the first 3 years and the professional courses taken later. The work in observation and practice fails to integrate the subject matter and educational theory to the extent that this would be possible under a better organized system. Courses in practical subjects—

art, music, manual work, etc.—are required of all students who are preparing for elementary teaching.

Examinations for teachers.—The examination of students who have completed the work of training colleges and university departments is controlled by the institutions themselves, which are organized into 12 regional groups. A central advisory committee sets the final examination requirements for the institutions in a region. Thus, within a section of the country, there is a common standard for the examination. In the university training departments the examinations for the academic degrees are controlled by the university itself. Students who pass the final professional examination are granted a diploma in elementary education, which entitles them to a permanent certificate only after they have satisfied the public-school inspector that they have practical teaching ability. Graduates without previous experience usually obtain the certificate only after a year of probation.

Preparation of faculty.—The head of the training department in a university has the rank of a professor, and his assistants have the same rating as lecturers in other departments. The academic training of the staff of the training colleges is not of as high a standard as that of professors and lecturers in the university departments. The training colleges expect faculty members to have some school experience, though this need not necessarily be in the elementary school. There is a tendency to demand that staff members of the training colleges hold a university degree, usually with honors. Such a standard guarantees a satisfactory amount of specialization in a particular subject. The relationship of the subject specialists to the observation and practice teaching is closer in the training colleges than in the university departments. In the former (training colleges) the distinction between the "subject staff" and the "methods staff" is disappearing, due to the fact that subject-matter teachers often demonstrate methods of teaching their subjects in the training school. In the university departments there is usually a complete separation between the work in academic subjects, which takes place during the first 3 years of the course and the professional training which is given during the fourth year.

Status of elementary teacher.—The status of the elementary teacher in England is not as clearly defined nor as completely protected as that of the German teacher, but it is in some respects superior to that usually found in the United States. Certificated teachers in England constitute about 75 percent of the total number employed. Although in the past certificates have been granted without any requirement as to previous preparation, the present policy is to require at least 2 years of training of a college standard before the examination for the certificate can be taken. "Uncertificated" teachers usually have at

least a secondary education, although there still exists a small group of "supplementary" teachers whose only qualifications are age, physical fitness, and approval by inspectors.

The average salaries paid workers in the elementary school gives some indication of the status of the profession. In 1930, men teachers were paid on the average £324 per year; women £217. For all elementary teachers the salary was £245. Pension and disability allowances are provided through a contribution system. Teachers pay 5 percent of their salaries into the pension fund, and this amount is duplicated by appropriations from the Board of Education and local authorities. Teachers may retire at the age of 60 or 65 with about half salary. Allowances for disability are receivable after the teacher has been 10 years in the service.

The tenure of the teacher is during the pleasure of the employer, but the right to a position is surrounded by traditional safeguards which give the teacher considerable economic security. Where a position is abolished by legally constituted reorganizations, the teacher is entitled to compensation. In case of illegal unjust dismissals the teachers have resort to the courts, and their interests are protected by a powerful teachers' union.

Summary—Stages in the training of elementary teachers in England.—

1. After leaving the infants school at the age of 8, the pupil enters a so-called primary school; which is completed in 3 years. The public-supported school system is paralleled by private elementary school which prepares for the secondary school.
2. The child who has completed the primary school or a private elementary school is required to stand a competitive examination to enter a secondary school. This examination is normally taken at 11 years of age. Some children enter the preparatory department of a secondary school at the age of 8 and go directly into the secondary school without taking the competitive examination. On account of the lack of accommodations for the large number of children who wish to enter the central and secondary schools, the selection of children for education beyond the elementary level is very rigid.
3. Selected 11- and 12-year-olds enter either a central or secondary school. The length of the course in a central school is 4 or 5 years. The work is somewhat more practical than that given in a secondary school, and the academic standards are lower. In either type of school, young people are usually ready for the first examination at about 16 years of age.
4. A student who has passed the first examination (in 1931 about 70 percent of those taking the examination were passed) may apply for entrance to a training college or a university training department. Due to the competition for places in these institutions, some students remain in the secondary school 1 or 2 years after passing the first

examination and take the second examination which covers some of the work toward a university degree.

5. (a) The student who does his professional work at a training college enters at about the age of 18 and remains for 2 years. Students who wish to specialize for particular types of work may remain a third year.

(b) The better-prepared student usually goes to a university. Here the candidate usually spends 3 years working for a degree, which he obtains at about 21 years of age. After completing the university examinations for a "pass" or "honors" degree, the prospective teacher spends another year in professional training.

6. Candidates who have completed the work in training colleges or university training departments stand an academic and professional examination which is controlled by a committee composed of representatives from all the institutions in a given region. Success in this examination entitles the candidates to the teaching certificate and to appointment as a probationer.

7. The possession of the teaching certificate is not final until the 1 year probationary period is over. The school inspector must also be convinced that the candidate has the necessary practical teaching skill.

TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

Similarity to preparation of elementary teachers.—There is very little distinction between the training taken by those elementary teachers who complete a university degree and then go through the professional year in a university training department (the 4-year course), and the preparation of a secondary teacher. In fact, many university graduates who have taken the 4-year course for elementary teaching accept work in the secondary school.

This lack of differentiation between the training of elementary and secondary teachers is explained by the characteristic English emphasis on experience, personality, and scholarship. If a teacher has these, to the English mind, it makes little difference whether he has been trained for elementary or secondary teaching.

In view of the lack of distinction between the university curricula for elementary and secondary student teachers, no detailed description of the secondary teacher's course will be given. If the reader will review the material on training elementary teachers, keeping in mind the fact that secondary candidates follow the university rather than the training college route, the details of the preparation of secondary teachers will stand out.

Differences from preparation of elementary teachers.—It is worth while to note certain tendencies toward differentiation in the training of secondary teachers. After obtaining the university degree, usually as the result of 3 years of residence work, the candidate enters a post-

graduate course in the education department of the university. The year of work which follows is purely professional. It often differs from the course given prospective elementary teachers in concentration upon the teaching of a single subject or a group of subjects. The secondary candidate studies only the teaching of the subject or subjects in which he has specialized during the work for the academic degree. Also the prospective secondary teacher is not required to take courses in drawing, music, handwork, and physical training, but may take such courses as electives. The curriculum takes into consideration the fact that these practical courses are more essential for elementary teachers, who are usually expected to teach all subjects, than for secondary teachers, who are generally required to give instruction in only one or two academic fields.

Another tendency toward differentiation in the preparation of secondary teachers relates to the placement of candidates who have the honors degree and of those who have the pass degree. Academic work for honors involves specialization in a particular subject, while a pass degree designates a general academic training on a somewhat lower level. There is a tendency for honors candidates to accept positions in the teaching of a single subject in the upper forms of the secondary school. The student who has taken a pass degree more often takes a position in the lower forms where specialization in subject matter is not so essential.

Observation and practice teaching.—Candidates for teaching in the secondary school do their practice teaching under conditions similar to the elementary student-teacher. The only difference is that the observation and practice work of the prospective secondary teacher is done mainly in the secondary school. This training suffers under the same limitations and shows the same defects as were described in connection with the work of elementary teacher candidates in university departments.

The examination for the teachers diploma is given at the end of the year of professional work, the fourth year of university study. The material which has been studied during the professional year is tested in the examination. In making up the candidate's final grade, papers and essays written during the professional training period are considered. The examiners also observe one or more lessons taught by the candidate. For the secondary teacher this diploma is equivalent to a teaching certificate.

Status of secondary teachers.—As regards tenure, pension, and disability allowances, the privileges of the secondary teacher are similar to those of the elementary instructor. Because of the fact that about three fourths of the secondary teachers are university graduates, the social and economic status of the group is higher than that of the elementary teachers. In general, the status of the secondary teaching

profession in England is not so high as in France or Germany. Salaries for university graduates, under the 1925 schedule, range from £234 to £480 for men, and from £216 to £384 for women. Professional organizations are doing much to place the secondary teaching profession in England on a level with that in other countries.

Summary—Stages in the training of secondary teachers in England.—

The stages in the training of secondary teachers in England are not essentially different from those of the elementary candidate who follows the university training department route. (See pp. 413-14.) The following steps, as described on pages 413-14, apply to the preparation of secondary teachers: 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 (b). The final stage in the training of secondary teachers is:

6. Secondary teacher candidates, who hold a university degree and who have completed the year of postgraduate work in a university training department, take the examination for the teachers diploma. This test is given at the university and controlled by the professional training department of the institution. For the secondary teacher the diploma from the university is equivalent to a teaching certificate.

CHAPTER III

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE

TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

State control of teacher education.—In France the preparation of elementary teachers is entirely controlled by the state. According to the regulations of the central government each department is required to maintain 2 normal schools, 1 for men and 1 for women. Actually there are 88 such institutions for each sex, a total of 176.

Entrance requirements.—The requirement for entrance to these schools as regards health, nationality, and character are similar to those found in other European countries. In addition, the candidate for entrance must be between the ages of 15 and 19, must sign an agreement to teach at least 10 years, and is required to hold the lowest teaching certificate, the *brevet élémentaire*. This lowest ranking certificate is granted after the student has completed the higher elementary school and passed a selective examination. The test is divided into two parts, the written portion being given in local centers and the oral examination being given at the normal school. Only those students writing the best papers are invited to go to the teacher-training institutions to stand the oral test. When all the results of the tests are at hand, the candidates are arranged on a list according to excellence. Highest ranking students are then accepted for entrance to the normal school until the number of vacancies have been filled. Since the government makes an appropriation for maintenance, instruction, and books for each student admitted, the number of places is definitely limited; and competition for admission is very keen. Candidates who make a grade above the average on the examination and for whom there is no vacancy in the normal school are granted the *brevet élémentaire* the lowest certificate for teaching in the elementary school. Holders of this certificate are seldom given appointment as teachers because the regulations require that persons having higher qualifications must be employed if they are available.

The student selected by the method which has been described takes a 3-year course at the normal school. The curriculum emphasizes subject matter rather strongly. About 50 percent of the student's time is devoted to the study of such subject-matter branches as French language and literature, modern foreign languages, mathematics, history, geography, physical and natural sciences. This

extensive contact with advanced subjects is justified by the meager academic background with which the students come to the normal schools. Most of them have had only 9 or 10 years of schooling in elementary schools which do not emphasize academic material. Since there is some attempt to professionalize the whole curriculum, educational theory is allotted only a small share of the required hours, about 5 percent.

Observation and practice teaching.—Observation and practice teaching are relied upon as the main means of extending and enriching professional training. This work takes place either in a school directly associated with the normal school (*école annexe*) or in a public school especially designated for the purpose (*école d'application*). All students are required to spend a minimum of 50 half-days in observation and practice. Contact with the practice school is continuous throughout the 3-year course. The induction into teaching is graded as follows: First year, observation of teaching and reports; second year, observation and directed teaching; third year, independent teaching and conferences.

The curriculum does not neglect the skill needed in teaching fine and practical arts. About 40 percent of the required hours is devoted to this type of training. The subjects included are drawing, music, manual work, and agriculture.

The curriculum of the French normal school does not undertake to train the candidate for a specialized line of work in the elementary school. The preparation given is general rather than differentiated. Even the practical training emphasizes for all students work which in the United States is often assigned to specialists; such as extra school activities, adult education, practical arts, music, and gymnastics. The purpose of the curriculum is to give the student a breadth of preparation which will be useful in all phases of the teachers' work.

Examinations for elementary teachers.—At the end of each year of study in the normal school the candidate must take one part of the State examination for the *brevet supérieur*. These yearly examinations are both oral and written. The combined grades on the three separate tests determine the candidate's standing in the competition. The examination for this certificate is also taken by people who have not attended the normal schools, but the major portion of those taking the examination have come through the normal schools. The *brevet supérieur* entitles its holder to temporary appointment as *instituteur* or *institutrice stagiaire*. The temporary teacher must continue training by attending conferences held from time to time by the academy inspector. The probation period lasts 2 years. At the end of this time the *stagiaire* can obtain promotion by passing the examination for the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. Candidates for this certificate must be at least 20 years of age. The examination consists.

in teaching a class before a commission of examiners and answering questions on practical phases of school organization and instructional procedure. In granting or withholding the certificate, the quality of the applicant's teaching during the probation period is considered by the commission. After having obtained the certificat d'aptitude pédagogique the teacher is entitled to permanent appointment and an increased salary.

Preparation of faculty.—The faculties of the normal schools are composed of highly trained specialists in subject matter. The members have all had some teaching experience—most of them having been employed in the elementary school service. Professors must have the certificat d'aptitude au professorat des écoles normales et primaires supérieures for which they must pass two examinations. The second, which is competitive, is so conducted that only the number of candidates needed for filling vacancies in the normal school faculties is selected. The first examination is general, testing the candidate's background in the subjects usually considered basic to a cultural education; the second examination, which must be taken at least a year after the first, emphasizes the fields of knowledge in which the prospective normal school professor intends to teach. The higher primary normal schools at Fontenay-aux-Roses and Saint Cloud offer courses preparing for the second examination.

The professors of the general academic subjects in the normal schools are required to participate in the induction of cadet-teachers into the practice work. Such contact with the training school should tend to influence subject professors to introduce professional material into their courses. The fact that a course in special methods is still given as part of the work of pédagogie indicates that the subject-matter courses are not thoroughly professionalized. The attempt to have the subjects of general instruction treated from the standpoint of their use in the elementary schools is probably handicapped by the desire of some normal school graduates to continue their study in the university. The normal school professors wish to have their work accredited by the university; hence the courses are mainly academic in content.

Status of elementary teachers.—The status of the elementary teacher in France is indicated by table 1, which shows for each type of certificate the amount of training required and the basic salaries allowed.

TABLE 1.—*Certification requirements and basic salary allowances for French elementary teachers*

Type of certificate	Training requirements	Basic salary
Brevet élémentaire.....	3 years' academic preparation beyond elementary school.	France (¹)
Brevet supérieur.....	Normal school graduation, 3-year course and examination.	10,500
Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique.	2 years in-service training following normal school graduation and second examination.	11,500-19,000

¹ No fixed salary.

The basic salary allowances shown in table 1 are supplemented by indemnités, for the higher cost of living in certain localities, size of family, and house rent, when a house is not furnished for the teacher. The attractiveness of teaching as a life's work is increased by: Permanent tenure for holders of the highest certificate, protection against disability and old age, and provision for widows and orphans of deceased teachers. Teachers contribute about 6 percent of their salaries to the insurance fund which provides disability allowances and pensions.

Summary—Stages in the training of elementary teachers in France.—Elementary teachers of France are trained in a special system of schools which has practically no relationship to the secondary and university system in which other teachers and the intellectual elite are educated.

1. At the age of 6 the child enters the public elementary school where he remains for 6 or 7 years. At about 12 years of age success in the examination for the Certificat d'Études Primaires entitles the student to continued study in the higher elementary schools. (Except in Paris where students enter by competitive examination.)

2. The course in the école primaire supérieure lasts 3 or 4 years. The work in this school tends to prepare for practical life rather than to emphasize academic studies. At the end of the 3- or 4-year course the candidate for teaching stands an examination for the brevet élémentaire. The test covers the work of the higher elementary school. Candidates achieving high standings are admitted to the normal school. Those making a grade above the average and for whom there is no place in the normal school are granted the lowest form of teachers' certificates.

3. The cadet-teacher, who must be at least 15 years of age upon entering the normal school, studies there 3 years. At the end of each year's work a part of the examination for the brevet supérieur is taken.

4. Having obtained the brevet supérieur, the young teacher is rated as stagiaire and receives temporary appointment. During a proba-

tionary period of 2 years the instituteur (or institutrice) stagiaire takes in-service training under inspectors.

5. The temporary teacher may win promotion and permanent appointment by standing a practical examination for the certificat d'aptitude pédagogique. A teacher must be at least 20 years of age before taking this examination.

TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

Aim of secondary education.—The secondary school system of France is not superimposed upon the elementary school but runs parallel with it. The aim of secondary education is to train an intellectual elite for cultural, professional, and social leadership. The curriculum emphasizes strongly the classical languages and culture, but this traditional point of view has been sufficiently influenced by modern life to produce a compromise. The French secondary school now contains both a classical and a modern section, the former emphasizing Latin and Greek; the latter, modern foreign languages.

Selection of prospective teachers.—A secondary school which confined its aim to the training of the select few in academic subjects would naturally require a high level of cultural preparation for its professors. The essence of the teacher-training system for French secondary schools is selection of the intellectually capable. The methods of selection are severe academic requirements and strict competitive examinations. There is practically no emphasis on pedagogical training, either theoretical or practical. The aim of the system is to select and develop a highly intelligent individual with specialized training in a particular field of knowledge. The French hold to the idea that he who knows his subject can teach it.

At the secondary school level the prospective teacher starts on his way through a system of selection which leads the ambitious and capable student to the final requirement for a full professor in the Lycée—the agrégation. It is possible for a student who makes good progress to attain the rank of agrège between the ages of 25 and 30.

Academic preparation in lycée.—The student in the lycée or college works 7 years for the baccalauréat, which is usually attained at 18 or 19 years of age. The first 6 years of secondary school work is general in nature and the curriculum is almost entirely fixed in advance. The only choice which the student has is in the matter of taking ancient or modern languages. At the end of the 6-year period of general work, the first part of the baccalaureate examination is taken. Following the 6 years of general preparation, specialization may be started in 1 or 2 directions. The student in his seventh year of secondary schooling selects either the classe de philosophie or the classe de mathématiques. During this last year of work for the baccalauréat, the study of general subjects is not entirely neglected,

but the class in philosophy emphasizes especially the study of psychology, logic, ethics, and metaphysics, while the course in mathematics stresses physical and natural sciences, along with the mathematical branches. After this year of specialization, the student takes the second part of the baccalauréat examination, either the section based on the work of the classe de philosophie or that testing the course in the classe de mathématique. The examination is highly selective, as is shown by the fact that the percentage of those passing ranges from 30 to 40. Although a student who has passed the baccalauréat is entitled to enter the university, many holding the degree remain at the lycée for 1, 2, or 3 years longer. These students prepare in advanced courses for the competitive examinations through which scholarships to the university may be obtained or for entrance to the école normale supérieure, which is also competitive. This postgraduate work is comparable to that done in the university.

Preparation in the university.—Entering the university, either directly after having passed the baccalaureate examination or after further postgraduate study in the lycée, the candidate for secondary school teaching spends 2 years studying for the licence d'enseignement which is the minimum requirement for entering the profession. The examination for the license is really composed of four subordinate tests—each of them for a particular certificate. Usually 1 of these certificate examinations is taken after each semester's work, and the 4 are thus completed at the end of the 2-year period of residence. The four certificates required for a licence in teaching English will illustrate the nature of the background and specialization required for teaching a subject in a lycée or college.

Certificates required of a teacher of English.—(1) Certificate of classical literature studies, (2) certificate of English literature, (3) certificate of philology in English, and (4) certificate of practical studies in English and in one other foreign language.

Since the licence is obtained at almost the age of 21, it has been likened to the American master's degree, but the standards are considerably higher. The examinations for the various certificates are strongly selective, as is shown by the fact that less than half of those attempting the examinations are able to pass.

The certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire requires an amount of training equivalent to that for the licence; but the examination for the certificat is competitive and the institution where the training is to be obtained is not specifically regulated. Since the examination for this certificate is frequently taken by normal school and elementary teachers who wish to transfer to secondary teaching, considerable emphasis is placed in the test on methods of presenting subject matter. This competitive examination offers an opportunity to those who have been trained in the elementary-normal

school system and have reached the highest rating in that branch of teaching service to obtain promotion by entering the secondary school work. Candidates for the *certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire* have usually done part-time work in the university as a student. At present this certificate is provided for men in the field of modern foreign languages only; but for women who wish to teach in girls' schools, this type of certificate is issued in both letters and sciences.

Competitive examination for the agrégation.—Candidates who wish to attain the highest rank in secondary teaching must succeed in the competition for the *agrégation*. The route to this highest recognition is closely guarded by a series of examinations, each of which requires a period of university study. After completing the 2 years of work for the *licence*, a candidate for the *agrégation* takes an additional year to get the *diplôme d'études supérieures*. All of this advanced work is specialization in a single field. In order to obtain the *diplôme*, the candidate must write an acceptable thesis. It is during this third year of university study that those candidates who have had no teaching experience are required to take the *stage pédagogique*. This is a short course in educational theory—a total of 20 lectures and 5 weeks of observation and practice.

The scheme of training secondary teachers in France relies mainly on academic preparation and selection by competitive examination of the more capable candidates. On the foundation of a thorough general training given in the secondary school, candidates specialize at the university in a particular subject for a period of 3 or more years. Only the more capable of those completing this work succeed in the *agrégation*.

Observation and practice teaching.—As was indicated above, practical work is not entirely neglected in the French scheme for training secondary teachers. Although no practical or pedagogical work is required for the lower teaching certificate (the *licence*), the *agrégé* must go through the *stage pédagogique* unless he has had some previous practical experience. In addition to taking the short course in educational theory, the candidate for the *agrégation* spends 3 consecutive weeks in observing the teaching of his subject and then participates for 2 additional weeks in actual teaching procedures, such as, class management, preparation of materials, and correction of written work. The teachers under whose supervision this work is done are selected and designated by the higher educational authorities.

Status of secondary teachers.—The status of the secondary teachers of France from the standpoint of social recognition, is equivalent to that of the college and university teachers in America. Although

salaries have not kept pace with the cost of living since the war—they range from 14,000 to 26,000 francs for the *licencés* and from 20,000 to 40,000 francs for the *agrégés*—compensations in the form of favorable working conditions and economic security are numerous. As a civil servant the secondary teacher is entitled to permanent tenure, also pension and disability allowances under provisions similar to those made for elementary teachers.

Summary—Stages in the training of secondary teachers in France.—

1. Elementary school preparation: Although a pupil may enter the preparatory classes of a secondary school at the age of 6 and continue in the same institution until the *baccalauréat* is obtained at the age of 18, some students start in the public elementary school (*école primaire*) and transfer to a secondary institution (*lycée* or college) at the age of 11 or 12.

2. Secondary school training: The secondary school proper begins after the fifth year of preparatory work—after the sixth for public-school pupils—and has a 7-year course. The work of the *lycée* or college is culminated in the *baccalauréat* examination which must be passed for entrance to the university.

3. (a) Entering the university at the age of 18 or 19, the candidate for secondary school teaching spends 2 years specializing in his chosen subject and preparing for the licence examination. Success in this test is the minimum requirement for secondary teaching.

3. (b) Candidates who have taken a somewhat less academic type of secondary training in the *école primaire supérieure* and in the normal schools (see stages in the preparation of elementary teachers) have the opportunity to enter the secondary teaching profession after they have achieved the highest rating for elementary teachers or passed the examination for teaching in a normal school. Such candidates prepare for a special State examination for the *certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire*. Usually some university study is necessary for success in this test.

4. Candidates who wish to become full professors in the *lycée* study in a university for a period of 3 or more years. During university residence such a candidate completes the work for the *diplôme d'études supérieures*, which requires a thesis in the field of specialization. He also takes the *stage pédagogique*—a few weeks of work in theory and practice of teaching.

5. A final examination, the *agrégation*, selects the more capable of those who have taken the licence and the *diplôme*. These become full professors in the *lycée*.

CHAPTER IV

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN GERMANY¹

TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Although the schemes for training elementary teachers vary from one State to another in Germany, most of the systems may be classified into two types, according to the nature of the institution in which the professional training is given: (1) the sectarian, and usually coeducational, university for teacher training (Hochschule für Lehrerbildung)² as has recently been developed in Prussia under the Hitler government; (2) the pedagogical institute or school of education which is either incorporated in or affiliated with a university. The first of these will be indicated as the university for teacher-training plan and the second as the university plan.

University for teacher training.—The most important institution from the standpoint of the future development of elementary teacher training is the new university for teacher training (Hochschule für Lehrerbildung) which has just been established in Prussia as the successor to the pedagogical academy (Pädagogische Akademie) which was first established in 1926 as successor to the old Prussian normal school. Recent political developments in the Reich indicate the probability that all German States may be brought under one head and a Ministry of Education be established for Germany in place of the several ministries of education which now exist. If this centralization of authority takes place, no doubt the teacher-training plan used in Prussia will be extended throughout Germany as institutions for the training of teachers of elementary schools. This new institution is definitely nationalistic in its spirit and is intended to be one of the chief instruments in awakening and unifying a great mass of the German people.

The Hochschule für Lehrerbildung is a thoroughly professional school, offering 2 years of preparation based on a secondary training which has stressed high academic standards. Since the work of the last 2 years in a German secondary school is equal in quality to that found in the first years of American colleges, it may be stated that the Prussian Hochschule is an institution offering courses on the

¹ Alexander, Thomas. *Training of Elementary Teachers in Germany*. New York, N.Y., Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.

² By Easter 1934 there will be 11 of these in existence: Bonn, Dortmund, Weiburg, Elbing, Lauenburg, Frankfurt/oder, Cottbus, Hirschburg, Beuthen, Hannover.

university level. The students entering a university for teacher training have had a thorough general training in various fields of human knowledge and are ready for professional specialization. The student must not only attend the university for teacher training for 2 years or 4 regular semesters, but must spend his vacation periods in some kind of political, social, or public work service.

The candidate for entrance to a university for teacher training is usually 19 years of age. He has completed 13 years of study, 4 of which have been spent in the *Volkschule* before entering the secondary school at the age of 10. The student must pass a selective examination and upon leaving the secondary school he must pass a very difficult maturity examination. Success in this last test entitles the student to enter either a university for teacher training or an academic university, provided he can meet other admission qualifications which are: Proof of German citizenship, proof of Aryan descent, proof of activity in political storm groups and in voluntary work service, ability to sing and to play some instrument, ability in athletics and sports, and high personal qualifications indicative of promise of leadership. Girls must have the same qualifications except that they may substitute some form of social service in behalf of the new state in place of political activity and must demonstrate ability in sewing, cooking, and housework.

The Prussian university for teacher training does not give the candidate specialized training for a particular type of elementary school position. The preparation is general—related to the whole elementary school—rather than differentiated. This does not mean that individual needs and interests are neglected. Although the curriculum is largely prescribed, there is some provision for individual interests through the privilege of taking elective courses and through the opportunity of participating in free activity groups which are interested in special fields of knowledge and science of value to the elementary teacher.

Curriculum divisions.—Since the student teacher has had a thorough training in general subjects during the secondary school period, the university curriculum is mainly professional (theory, practice teaching, methods and materials of school subjects). The most recent information on the curriculum of the Prussian university for teacher training indicates that the curriculum will fall into six large groups as follows:

- I. General theory of education, including psychology.
- II. Theory of the organization and teaching in the special fields and subjects.
- III. Practical training, including observation, practice, and participation.
- IV. Volk study.
- V. Physical training.
- VI. Fine and industrial arts.

The following are the courses offered at Kiel during the summer of 1933:

- I. 1. German movement in the German school.
2. Introduction to present-day national education.
3. The individual and the community.
4. Pestalozzi.
5. Forms of state guidance for youth.
6. Fundamental principles of psychology.
- II. 1. Volk literature and the youth.
2. Fundamental problems of German instruction.
3. Volk and God.
4. Germanism, Church, Christianity and their place in the original construction of the Volk school.
5. Fundamental problems of national and political education.
6. National geography.
7. Geographic excursions.
8. Problems of arithmetic and geometry instruction.
9. Exercises in the technology of biology instruction.
10. Problems of teaching of physics.
11. Elements of school and Volk music.
12. Self-education during the period of childhood.
13. External and internal changes through physical education.
14. Library exercises.
- III. 1. Observation of instruction.
2. Four weeks' period assisting teachers in rural schools and social-welfare centers.
3. Four weeks' class practice in demonstration school.
4. Participation in demonstration school.
- IV. Local and Volk study.
1. Local and Volk study as a basis of popular education.
2. Volk and race.
3. Eight-day excursion in the Polish Corridor.
- V. Physical education.
1. Physical training with special attention to school gymnastics and military sports.
2. Military sport, marching, open-country exercises, and rifle practice.
3. Voluntary courses in track, summer games, swimming, rowing, sailing, and boxing.
4. During-vacation hiking, camping, canoeing trips.
- VI. Fine and industrial arts.
1. Voice and singing.
2. General theory of music.
3. Chorus.
4. Instruments.
5. Special training.
6. Choir.
7. Drawing.
8. Manual training in the elementary school.

Observation and practice teaching.—The course in observation and practice teaching seems entirely adequate. Universities for teacher training take over nearby public schools for observation and practice work. Through these the student teacher is kept in constant touch

with actual school situations. Observation—both of school classes and other kinds of educational activities—begins in the first semester and is continuous throughout the 2 years. The wide range of activities included in the observation and practice work is worthy of note. Practice is not limited to classroom teaching but extends to all phases of the teacher's job. Observation tours are used as one means of advancing the educational experience of students. Often the amount and kind of practice teaching is adapted to the needs of the individual.

Teaching is a definite profession in Germany and, as in all other professions, entrance is by examination only. After completing the 2-year course in a university for teaching training, the candidate must stand a State examination consisting of a written thesis on some topic of professional value and an oral test on the subjects contained in the curriculum. After passing this examination the candidate is qualified for temporary appointment but must spend a probation period of 2 years, in training under school inspectors. Then the teacher must stand a second examination consisting of a practical demonstration of teaching ability in three subjects in the elementary school and a conference based on the teaching. Satisfactory work during the period of probation and success on the examination entitles the teacher to permanent appointment.

Preparation of faculty.—The ideal teaching staff of the Hochschule für Lehrerbildung consists of people having a combination of training and experience: the quantity and quality of academic preparation usually required for the university professorship plus actual experience in some phase of elementary school work. In practice it has not been possible to staff the teachers colleges with professors having this combination, but members of the staff are always either highly trained academically or experienced and capable in school work. The thoroughly professional spirit of the staff is shown by the functional relationship of theory and subject teachers to the practical phases of the training program. Professors of educational theory and professionalized subject-matter courses spend considerable time in the actual teaching of children. The practice school is the heart of the institution and is used by the professors as a place for demonstrating the theories presented in their courses. In recent months, radical reorganization of the staff of teacher-training institutions has been brought about in order to eliminate all persons not in sympathy with National Socialist movement.

The high professional status of the elementary teacher is one of the distinctive features of the educational system of Prussia, as well as of the other German States. The fact that elementary teaching is a real profession is partly due to the strict entrance standards described above in connection with the system of State examinations. There are no back-door, easy methods of getting a teacher's certificate, such

as are found in many other countries. Some of the other factors which account for the favorable position of the elementary teacher are life tenure, provision for old-age pension, allowances for disability, and pensions for widows and orphans of teachers. The pension and insurance system is supported by the State without contributions from the teachers. Although basal salaries are not lucrative—ranging from about \$700 to \$1,250 per year—these are supplemented by compensation for house rent, for increased cost of living in certain localities, and allowances for children. The high professional morale of the teachers in the volkschule is due to their assured social and economic position.

The university plan.—The university plan for training elementary teachers which has been developed in a number of German States is not essentially different in character from the teachers' college plan. The pedagogical institutes—either actually a part of or affiliated with a university—usually require a 3-year course of study, as compared with the 2-year course in the Prussian university for teacher training. The entrance requirements are practically the same for the two types of institutions. The curriculum as developed in the Technical University of Dresden (Saxony) requires that about 40 percent of the student's time be given to work in philosophy, psychology, history of education, and sciences allied to education. A considerable part of the 3-year course is devoted to academic preparation. The practical educational work, which is given exclusively by the faculty of the pedagogical institute, consists of lectures and practice on method of teaching, professionalized subject matter, and training in the psychological observation of school children. The pedagogical institute also gives the required work in music, drawing, practical arts, and physical training. The relationship of the staff of the pedagogical institute to the experimental school is very close, since the members of the institute staff do practically all of the teaching of children in the demonstration school. Under the university plan, practice teaching is frequently done during university vacations. This scheme has the advantage of giving the student a number of consecutive days for work in a particular class.

Summary.—Stages in the training of elementary teachers in Germany.—

1. The prospective teacher spends at least 4 years in the volkschule. The 4 years of work between the ages of 6 and 10 is common for all children. At the end of this period, an examination for entrance to the secondary school may be taken.
2. The 9 years between the ages of 10 and 19 are usually spent in some form of secondary school. This stage is ended with an extensive leaving examination or Reifeprüfung, which must be passed to enter training at the university level. This long period of thorough secondary training gives the candidate a good general background.

3. The student teacher starts real professional preparation at the age of 19 or over. Carefully selected candidates spend 2 years in a university for teacher training, or from 2 to 3 years in a pedagogical seminary connected with a university. At the end of this stage, the candidate must pass a State examination on the academic and professional work covered during the 2- or 3-year period. Success in this first examination entitles the student to temporary appointment as a teacher.

4. After a practice or probation period of 1 or 2 years, which is usually spent in training under supervisory officials, the teacher takes the second examination. This test is of a highly practical nature, and the previous success of the candidate as a teacher is taken into consideration. Under most favorable circumstances, the candidate cannot hope to receive permanent appointment before the age of 24 or 25.

TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

Selection of prospective secondary teachers.—One of the main aims of secondary education in Germany is to give an intensive academic training to a select group of capable young people; hence, the preparation given teachers of the secondary school provides a standard of academic training which is equalled in few countries and excelled in none. The professional preparation—used in the narrow sense—of these teachers is also of a high order. The training of the teacher as a specialist in the subjects professed takes place at universities over a period lasting from 4 to 6 years, and the professional preparation is carried on in seminars connected with selected secondary schools. Two years are given to this latter, very practical phase of the training.

After passing the Reifeprüfung which comes at the end of the secondary school period, the candidate enters upon university study. The previous academic training of a student entering a German university is equivalent to that of a beginning junior in a good American college. In many instances German university students show upon entrance sufficient intellectual maturity to do work on a graduate level according to American standards. During a period lasting from 8 to 12 semesters, the student works in the university for a doctor's degree and prepares for the academic State examination which must be passed before the more practical phases of preparation for teaching can be commenced. The work for the doctor's degree—including the customary university examinations and the printed thesis—is usually completed before the State examination is attempted.

While studying in a university in preparation for the first State examination, the prospective secondary teacher usually specializes in 3 subjects: 2 majors and a minor, or 3 majors. In addition to these fields, which are usually branches of study in the secondary curriculum, all candidates must be prepared for an examination in philosophy, which usually includes some work in the fields of psychology and

pedagogy. Since the prospective teacher has a thorough general training in varied subjects before entering the university and has built upon this foundation during a period of specialization lasting at least 4 years, it may be safely said that the successful candidate in the academic examination is a specialist in at least 3 subjects taught in the secondary school.

Observation and practice teaching.—Having passed the first Staatsprüfung, the candidate is called a Studienreferendar and is assigned to a seminar located at a selected secondary school for 2 years of practical and professional work. During this period the student teacher has abundant opportunity for observation, participation, and practice under the supervision of capable teachers. Theoretical professional training is promoted by the requirement that at least 2 hours per week be devoted to conferences. In these meetings discussions of previous observations are held, instructions for future work of the same nature are given, practice teaching is discussed or planned, special methods in the subjects are discussed, and various theoretical educational problems are considered. At the end of the Vorbereitungsjahre, the student is admitted to the second or pedagogical examination upon the recommendation of the director of the seminar in which training has been taken.

Examinations for secondary teachers.—A description of the series of examinations which a secondary teacher has to pass gives a good idea of the strenuous nature of the training necessary for entering the profession:

1. *Maturity examination*—upon leaving secondary school. The phases are:
 - (a) A thesis written during the last year of secondary school. Should show ability to do independent thinking.
 - (b) A written examination, emphasizing mainly German and mathematics; also other subjects.
 - (c) Oral examination, which may be on a subject of study chosen by the pupil.
2. *The State academic examination*—after university training lasting from 8 to 12 semesters. In Prussia this test is held by an examination commission appointed by the Minister of Education. The phases of the examination as given in Prussia are:
 - (a) Two theses, one on a topic related to the major, and another from the minor field (or another major field). A period of 5 months is allowed for writing the theses.
 - (b) Oral examination covering: (1) Philosophy, including psychology, ethics, logic, and metaphysics; (2) the three academic subjects in which the student has done special work.
3. *The pedagogical examination* which takes place at the end of the practical period of 2 years as carried out in Prussia this examination consists of 3 parts:
 - (a) The written examination or thesis consists of the preparation of a paper on some practical teaching problem. The assignment is given and the work completed prior to the time for the examination.
 - (b) After 48 hours of preparation, the student teacher presents two model lessons in the presence of the examining committee.

- (c) The oral examination is conducted in group fashion. About six candidates are quizzed at the same time. The questions test the material covered in the professional conferences which constitute part of the training in the seminar.

Having passed over these various examination hurdles the candidate is appointed Studienassessor and placed on the waiting list for permanent appointment. Those actually on the list are usually in service and draw salaries. The average age of those who pass the last (or pedagogical) examination in Prussia is about 27. Teachers on the waiting list for permanent appointment average about 35 years of age. A Studienassessor expects to wait about 5 years before receiving permanent appointment.

Preparation of faculty.—The faculty members of the universities and seminars in which secondary teachers are trained have, of course, thorough preparation for the work which they do. Since the seminars are located in secondary schools especially selected by central authority, the teachers who have charge of the practical training of the candidates are especially capable. Secondary school teachers consider it a real honor to be asked to take charge of teacher-training work. An American observer is invariably impressed by the professional spirit with which such work is carried on.

The German secondary school teacher is a member of a highly respected profession. The severe system of examinations, which has been described above, guarantees that the academic and professional preparation of those entering the work is of a high order. The path to permanent appointment is long and arduous, but an assured living and a respected social position are the rewards of success. Salaries after permanent appointment range from R M 4,400 to 9,600, according to years in the service. These amounts are supplemented by the additions for support of children, for rent, and to make up for the high cost of living in certain localities. The teachers, like all servants of the State, are entitled to retirement, and allowances for disability without contribution from their salaries.

Summary—Stages in the training of secondary teachers in Germany.—The first and second stages of training are the same as described for the elementary teacher.

3. The candidate for secondary school teaching continues academic training in the university over a period lasting from 8 to 12 semesters. The student usually completes the doctor's degree before attempting the first, or academic, State examination.

4. The Studienreferendar spends 2 years in a seminar connected with a secondary school. Here he is prepared for the second, or pedagogical, examination. The average age of those completing this stage in Prussia is 27.

5. The candidate enters teaching service as a Studienassessor and usually waits about 5 years for a permanent appointment.

CHAPTER V

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN SWEDEN

TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

Sweden trains teachers for the elementary schools in two types of institutions: First, instructors for the primary grades—that is, the first 2 years of the elementary school—and for certain types of small schools are trained in an institution offering a 2-year course, the primary normal school, and, second, teachers for the elementary grades above the second year are prepared in teachers colleges which offer 4 years of training.

Primary normal schools.—The 2-year normal schools—23 in number—are in many respects similar to the county normals used in certain parts of the United States for training rural teachers. The primary normal schools constitute the weakest element in the Swedish system of teacher training. The entrance requirements are: Good health, membership in the State church, good moral character, and high standing on an entrance examination covering the subjects taught in the elementary school. The test is both thorough and selective. In 1929 about 64 percent of the applicants made the rating required for entrance. The rather meager subject-matter requirement of the entrance examination gives a student body with a varied academic background. The previous schooling of successful candidates varies from 6 years in the folk school to 13 years in the highly selective secondary school system.

The features of the curriculum which are worthy of note are: First, the work is so specialized as to meet the need of small-type schools and to prepare teachers for the lower grades; second, adequate observation and practice teaching usually are given. There is no definite requirement as to the amount of observation and practice teaching, but the typical course is about as follows: During the second half of the first year all of the time for 4 weeks is devoted to observation; practice teaching is carried on in small groups, several students watching a fellow-student teach; during the second year five 45-minute periods per week are devoted to such practice work. The central authorities require that each normal school maintain an elementary school for observation and practice.

The staff of the primary normal school is composed largely of experienced public-school teachers who have completed at least 4 years

of work in a teachers college. Many members of the staff have had university training. The minimum qualifications for members of the faculty are: 2 years' teaching experience and a State certificate for elementary teachers. They must be at least 23 years of age.

The professional status of the graduates of the 2-year normal is lower than that of the better-trained teachers. The salaries are about one-third less and tenure is only semipermanent. Graduates of primary normal schools are frequently appointed as assistants to better-trained workers. The tenure of such an assistant teacher is for only 1 year.

Teachers colleges.—Sweden has fifteen 4-year teachers colleges in which instructors for the elementary school proper—from the third year up—are trained. The entrance requirements for the colleges are similar to those for the primary normals, but the students actually admitted are more carefully selected. In 1929-30 the entrance examination was taken by 1,363 students. Of this number, 837, or 61.4 percent, passed. From the 837 thus selected, less than 50 percent were admitted to the colleges. The final selection of students is based on personal interviews through which it is hoped that candidates with personality qualities suitable for teaching may be chosen.

The curriculum of the Swedish teachers colleges stresses a thorough subject-matter training. This emphasis is necessary because the students have a varied—and many of them a meager—background in academic subjects. About one-third of those entering have had only a folk-school training.

Professional subjects.—About 11.5 percent of the student-teacher's time is devoted to professional subjects. This includes observation, practice teaching, and educational theory. The course in observation begins in the second year, when 6 full days are given to concentrated work of this kind. During the second year about 1 hour per week is devoted to teaching, and the same amount of time is assigned for conferences on method. During the third year of training the same program is continued except that the amount of teaching is increased to 2 hours per week. In the fourth year the observation work is expanded to include visits to schools at a distance from the institution. The amount of time given to group teaching and conferences during this last year is increased to 4 hours per week.

The Swedish teachers college devotes a much smaller proportion of the student's time to professional work than is customary in the United States. It is possible, however, that the professional training of the Swedish teacher does not suffer from this neglect of work in education. There are two features of the professional work which make it possible to shorten the time assigned to it: First, adequate time is given for a broad experience in observation and practice; second, the members of the teachers-college faculty are, not merely

theorists in education; they are actual teachers of children also. During 1927 the full professors (lektors) spent 17.4 percent of their service time in the teaching of children in the elementary grades.

The members of the staff of the teachers college are usually well trained. The majority of them are men and practically all of the full-time faculty members are rated as lektors. This means that they are specialists in their fields of work, holding university degrees which require about 8 years of advanced study. The chief qualification of many of the part-time faculty members is that they have been unusually successful in public-school work. The practice school staff is always made of experienced teachers of exceptional ability.

Status of elementary teachers in Sweden.—The general status of the elementary teacher in Sweden is indicated by table 2 which shows the various classifications of teachers, the qualifications required for each, and gives information regarding the salary and nature of tenure corresponding to each classification.

TABLE 2.—*Classification of elementary teachers in Sweden, with qualifications and tenure*

Classification	Qualifications	Salary and tenure
Ordinaire.....	(1. At least 21 years of age..... 2. Graduation from normal or teachers college.	Graduate of teachers colleges receive higher salary rating. Lower salary paid to primary teachers. Tenure is permanent.
Extra-ordinaire.....	3. Some successful experience..... Lower than ordinaire. Same qualifications except as to age, experience and success.	
Biträdande (assistant).....	Less than standard qualifications especially a 2-year normal graduate teaching above primary grades.	Salary lower than ordinaire or extra-ordinaire. Appointment is for 1 year only.
Vikarier (substitute).....	Practically no professional training.	Lowest salary. Temporary appointment to meet emergencies.

From table 2 it appears that the salary schedule is based on training and successful experience. Primary teachers, who have usually studied 2 years less than teachers in the higher grades, receive lower salaries than the graduates of teachers colleges. Men receive about 15 percent more than women. Pensions after retirement are provided by a State fund to which teachers are required to contribute from 3 to 6 percent of their salaries. The profession is very stable in its membership: teachers of the highest rank frequently serve during their whole career in one community, and it is practically impossible to dismiss a teacher who has attained the rank of ordinaire.

The general level of salaries would be considered low from the standpoint of what city teachers receive in the United States. The compensation is comparable to that paid our rural teachers. The attractiveness of teaching is indicated by the plentiful supply of applicants for entrance to training institutions. Four times as many apply for entrance as are accepted.

Summary—Stages in the training of elementary teachers in Sweden.—

1. Schooling prior to entering normal school or teachers college: The amount of preparation varies from graduation from elementary school to graduation from "gymnasium."
 - (a) Candidates with lowest qualifications: Enter primary school at age of 7 and remain there 2 years. From 9 to 14 (or even 17) study in the elementary or higher elementary schools.
 - (b) Candidates with highest qualifications: enter preparatory class for secondary school at age of 7 and take 3 or more years of preparatory work. At the age of 10 enter the "real" school which offers a 5- or 6-year course. (Work similar to that of the "real" school is offered in the municipal intermediate school which the student may enter upon leaving the elementary school at about 13 years of age. The intermediate school course lasts 4 years.) At the age of 16 or 17 the candidate is prepared to take the "real" examination. Success in this test gives right to enter the "gymnasium." Students remain there until graduation at the age of 19 and the passing of the student examination which entitles them to university entrance. About 18 percent of the candidates entering teachers colleges have this highest training.
2. Selective examination for entrance to 2-year normals and teachers colleges: Candidates with such varied academic backgrounds as are described in Stage 1 (a) and (b) attempt the State entrance examination. At the 2-year normals for primary teachers, about 65 percent of those attempting the examination were accepted in 1929. Students for the teachers colleges are selected from the upper quartile of those attempting the examination. Ability in music is required of all candidates.
3. Training in normal schools and teachers colleges:
 - (a) Primary normal schools give 2 or 3 years of training to teachers of children between the ages of 7 and 9 and for teachers of small schools in isolated districts. The training bears directly on the elementary school curriculum and the professional work is thoroughly practical.
 - (b) Teachers colleges give a 4-year course with emphasis on a thorough academic and professional background. The amount of time devoted to professional work is small (11.5 percent of the total) but the course is related directly to teaching through emphasis on observation and practice.
4. At the end of the period of training the candidate must pass a final examination which is under the joint supervision of the institution and the Central Board of Education. Graduates must be at least 21 years of age before they can enter the highest classification (*ordinaire*) which entitles them to permanent appointment.

TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

*The universities and the training of secondary teachers.—*The secondary teachers of Sweden receive their advanced training first in universities, then in pedagogical seminaries connected with secondary schools. The practical phase of the training follows completion of the university or academic preparation; takes place in the seminars; and lasts 1 year. The public secondary schools in which the practice year is spent are especially designated for this work.

Although the universities of Sweden are now coeducational, this reform has been introduced only in recent years; hence, although some women teachers receive training in the universities, the higher teachers college for women at Stockholm still offers 3- and 4-year courses based on a secondary education somewhat lower than that required for university entrance. The work is similar to that usually found in a professional college. Observation and practice is done in a secondary school which is an integral part of the college. This practical phase of the work differs from that offered in the seminars in that it is done during the period of residence at the training institutions.

Entrance to a university in Sweden normally takes place at about the age of 19. The candidate must be a graduate of a "gymnasium" and must have passed the student examen. This examination, which includes both an oral and a written part, is given in the secondary schools by special commissioners appointed by the Government. The test is a highly selective one. It covers all the subjects studied during the last year at the "gymnasium." Success in this examination is a guarantee that the candidate has a general academic background equivalent to that of a junior or senior in an American college.

The extent of academic preparation.—The extensive nature of the academic training received by the prospective secondary-school teacher during residence at a university is indicated by table 3, which shows the higher university degrees, the number of years of study required for each and the secondary teacher's rank after obtaining the degrees.

TABLE 3.—*Extent of university training for secondary teachers in Sweden*

University degree	Years of study required	Rank of secondary teacher holding degree
Filosofie kandidat.....	3 to 4.....	Adjunkt (assistant master).
Filosofie magister.....	4 to 5.....	
Filosofie licentiat.....	7 to 8.....	Lektor (master teacher).
Filosofie doktor.....	8 to 9.....	

In order to enter the year of practical training the candidate must take the filosofie ämbetsexamen which requires about 4 years of university study. This is the examination for the degree of filosofie magister. (See table 3.) Instead of taking the year of practical work in the seminar directly upon passing the ämbetsexamen, the student may continue work in the university until completion of the work for filosofie licentiat or filosofie doktor—a total of 8 or 9 years of residence. When this longer period of training is taken, the teacher enters service with the highest rank, as a lektor. After completing the year of practice teaching (provår), 2 additional probationary years are required for permanent appointment. The master in Sweden achieves this goal at an age which varies from 31 to 37 years. He has had from 9 to 11 years of training on a university level.

The academic training of the Swedish secondary teacher is both general and specialized. Preparation is regulated according to subject courses mastered and the amount of subject matter acquired, rather than in terms of time spent in the university. The higher the university degree obtained, the greater is the depth and concentration in the study of the subjects selected. In preparation for the filosofie ämbetsexamen, which must be passed in order to enter teaching with the lower rank of adjunkt, the candidate must select for study three subjects which are in the secondary school curriculum. The work done in each subject is given a quality rating, corresponding to the depth to which each subject has been pursued. The lowest quality rating requires at least a half year of continuous study on the single subject and the highest, one and a half years. The student who continues work until receiving the doctor's degree has had specialized graduate training in three subjects and has pursued the study of at least one of these subjects to the level of scholarly productivity.

Very little work of a professional nature is included in the university course. The student may elect pedagogik as a study. If this is not done, the candidate satisfies the requirement in educational theory by taking a course which lasts 1 semester.

Observation and practice teaching.—The year of practical training which follows the academic preparation gives adequate opportunity for observation, participation, and practice. Usually about 10 candidates are assigned to a secondary school where they work under the supervision of master teachers. A candidate's actual teaching load is very light—about 6 hours per week—but he is expected to make careful preparation for this work. The minimum requirement in observation is from 10 to 12 hours per week. The candidate does teaching in not less than 2 nor more than 4 subjects—those in which he has had academic preparation. In addition to following the schedule of observation and practice, the student teachers are expected to attend weekly conferences in which the faculty and students together discuss the work which has been done.

The nature of the examinations which a candidate has to pass in order to enter teaching has been suggested above. The ämbetsexamen—the first qualifying examination for entrance to teaching—is taken after 4 or 5 years of university residence and covers the material of the 3 or 4 academic subjects studied during that period. There is also a relatively superficial examination in educational theory. The procedure is similar to that used in the preliminary examination for the doctor of philosophy in American universities. The examination for the higher degrees, filosofie licentiat and filosofie doktor, are according to the usual university procedure. The latter is an oral defense of the thesis.

Preparation of faculty.—The staff of the secondary teacher-training institution requires little description. The standards are those found in the best universities. The professional training of the secondary teachers who supervise practice teaching has not been extensive. They are subject-matter specialists, all having doctor's degrees, who have learned to teach by teaching. It is probable that the introduction of somewhat more work in educational theory for the secondary teacher would improve the scheme of preparation.

The social and economic status of the secondary teaching profession in Sweden corresponds to the high level of preparation required for entrance to the work. Women are paid somewhat less than men, partly in consideration of the fact that they are not, as a rule, so highly trained. Salaries are commensurate with those received in other professions, and tenure is for life. Pensions and disability allowances are regulated by the Government. Contributions by teachers to the insurance fund range from 3 to 6 percent of their salaries. During a period of sickness or after retirement a teacher receives about five-sevenths as much salary as when in active service.

Summary.—Stages in the training of secondary teachers in Sweden.—

1. The child obtains the first 3 or 4 years' schooling in either a public or a private institution.
2. The pupil enters the "real" school at about the age of 11 and stays for 4 years. He takes the "real" examination at about 15 or 16.
3. Upon graduation from "real" school, the pupils enter the higher secondary school—the "gymnasium." The course here lasts 4 or 5 years. At the age of 19 or 20, the candidate is ready for the studentexamen which marks the end of secondary school.
4. They enter the university and take up specialized study of three subjects—those which will eventually be taught in secondary school. Also the student takes a short course in pedagogy.
5. Students who intend to enter teaching with the lower rank, adjunkt, stay 4 years at the university, take the ämbetsexamen and the degree of filosofie magister. They then do the practical work described in stage 7.
6. Students who wish to attain the highest rank in secondary teaching, lektor, remain in the university about 8 years and take the degree of filosofie licentiat and filosofie doktor. These advanced degrees require scholarly specialization in a single subject.
7. Candidates for the rank of either adjunkt or lektor spend a year in observation, practice teaching, and study at a secondary school seminar.
8. A teacher can usually complete these requirements by the age of 29 or 30. He usually waits 6 or 7 years longer for a permanent appointment.

CHAPTER VI

EDUCATION OF RURAL TEACHERS IN EUROPE; SUMMARY

SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE RURAL TEACHER

Probably no country in the world has devoted as much special attention to the training of rural teachers as has our own country. This has in a large measure been due to peculiar conditions of certification, salary, tenure, variation in school terms, and the general neglect of rural schools. In the majority of central European States the rural school has not been as badly neglected as with us and hence there has not been attention given to training teachers especially intended for rural schools. One does not find, therefore, in the continental countries preparation designed particularly for rural teachers. However, since a vast number of all elementary teachers went into rural schools for their first teaching experience, the curriculum for training quite naturally reflected the needs of the teachers.

There has been in recent years a tendency particularly in Germany, Sweden, and Denmark to emphasize the rural and agricultural problems in the training of all elementary teachers. While one cannot say that there are special courses for rural teachers, emphasis is being placed upon giving all elementary teachers direct contact with and experience in rural life and schools. Each teacher is given the opportunity of acquainting himself not only with urban life and conditions, but also with rural culture and problems of rural life. This takes the form in several countries of requiring rural practice, participation in rural public welfare and voluntary work-service and association with rural peoples.

Excerpts from the official order of the Prussian Minister of Education will illustrate the new emphasis being placed upon building up in all teachers an appreciation and understanding for rural life and culture.

*Teacher training and the rural school.*¹—The reorganization of the rural school in the general framework of a general renewal of rural education and culture belongs to the pressing educational problems of the day. It is now a matter of common knowledge that this problem can alone be solved through the forces that are operating in nature, our history and in our nationality, and forces that arise out of

¹ Zentralblatt für die gesamte Unterrichtsverwaltung in Preussen, 20 März 1932. Vol. 75, no. 6. Berlin.

the conditions that obtain in the country itself. For the furtherance of the work that has already been accomplished in this field it is now a question of assuring its success by inner cohesion and planned unification of the various individual activities of rural education and youth welfare and culture. In addition to the employment of rural teaching profession and to the support of all voluntary workers and supporters it is the special function of the pedagogical academies (now, universities for teacher training) to provide for a new generation of teachers, who, from a feeling of inner kinship with the social and cultural problems of the rural populations, are able to meet practically all of the demands in the everyday work of the rural school which devolve upon them both in and out of the school itself. * * * The work directed at the study of the home, community, and people must receive greater attention in order to provide an appreciation of the characteristics of the country, for the nature and history of the culture and customs of the rural districts and to create therefor a place in the whole of German life.

The instructional excursion to study folk-lore and visitations to rural schools are to afford the students a vivid picture and clear knowledge of the typical physical and cultural districts which lie round about the academy. The close relationship of the rural teaching candidate with the furrow and soil will thus be deepened and the turning on the part of the younger generation to the country, which we rejoice to see, will also be increased in students coming from the city into a feeling well grounded for the values that are rooted in the soil and home.¹

The economic policy of the Hitler Government has attracted attention throughout the world. The measures taken to combat unemployment have produced a notable effect, both numerically and psychologically. The number of German workless has been reduced by one-third—so much has by now become generally known. But of particular interest are the efforts made to put agriculture onto a healthy and profitable footing, for the National Socialist State lays particular stress on the need for prosperous farmers as the best basis for a sound national community.

Since this order was issued tremendous efforts have been made to develop the somewhat neglected rural life of Germany. * * *

The measures taken to redress the farmers' plight were necessarily ameliorative at the outset. In February an inclusive moratorium for the entire German agricultural system was instituted. In March far-reaching measures to regulate the price of fats were introduced. In June a law was proclaimed regulating agricultural indebtedness.

Further legislation is being drafted, based upon the old *rentenbank* principle by which the bank was interposed as a third party between the peasant and his creditor. This has already given good service for a century past but has had to be remodeled on new lines. The general principle is that the peasant repays his debts by installments to the bank which latter serves the twofold purpose of

¹ *Saving the German Farmer*, by Cincinnatus. *Germany and You*, no. 1, vol 4, 1934. Berlin.

satisfying the creditor and saving the peasant from the more burdensome form of creditor's pressure.

Price stabilization of the two principal agricultural products is another means by which the farmer will be secured the fruits of his labors. The wholesale prices of wheat and rye have been fixed according to a sliding scale increasing from month to month. One of the last acts of the German Cabinet before adjourning its sessions from December till reconvening in January was to adopt legislation brought forward by the minister of agriculture to establish a national monopoly of the sale of butter, cheese, and eggs, whether domestic products or imported. At the same time were adopted laws against spoliation of forest lands, and for regulating various matters affecting agriculture, including credit and mortgage arrangements and fertilization products.

What has been said of Germany, could be said quite as well of Sweden and Denmark. There is a determination that the rural worker shall take his place not only economically but also culturally in the life of the nations. While none of these countries wish to educate a rural teacher, they do wish to have a generation of teachers who understand and love the rural life and cultures quite as much as the life of the great cities.

CHART 1.—*The training of elementary teachers in selected European countries—Summary*

NAME AND NATURE OF TRAINING INSTITUTION		
ENGLAND	FRANCE	GERMANY
Institutions are supported in whole or in part by public funds but are usually not controlled by the board of education. The two types are:	The preparation of elementary teachers is entirely controlled and major expenses are paid by the State. In principle each department maintains 2 normal schools, 1 for men and 1 for women. There is a total of 176 normals.	1. Prussian University for Teacher Training (Hochschule für Lehrerbildung), 2-year curriculum, including vacation periods in voluntary work-service and practice teaching. Eleven such institutions.
1. The training colleges.		2. Three-year preparation. Pedagogical institutes or schools of education incorporated in or affiliated with universities as at Hamburg, Dresden, and Leipzig.
2. The university training departments.		
		SWEDEN
		There are two types of institutions: (1) normal schools for training teachers for infant schools; (2) normal schools for training teachers for the elementary schools.

CHART 1.—*The training of elementary teachers in selected European countries—Summary—Continued*

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

ENGLAND

Entrance requirements for the two types of institutions are the same. The university training departments get the best material. Entrance is, to a degree, competitive. Students must have passed first school examination at least. This guarantees adequate academic and general education. Students are usually about 17 years of age and have had from 10 to 12 years of previous schooling.

FRANCE

Educational requirement:

Must hold the brevet élémentaire for which a selective examination is given. Only highest ranking candidates are admitted to the normal schools.

Candidates must be between ages of 15 and 19 years. They have usually had from 10 to 11 years of previous school work in the elementary school division.

GERMANY

For both types of elementary teacher training in Germany the following are required for admission:

1. Graduation from a 9-year secondary school—about equivalent to junior year in United States college.

2. German citizenship.

3. Data concerning Aryan descent.

4. Proof of activity in political storm groups and in voluntary work service.

5. Girls must prove some active service in behalf of the new State.

6. Ability to sing, and play the piano, violin, or organ.

7. Ability in athletics and sports.

8. Girls must demonstrate ability in sewing, cooking, housework.

9. High personal qualifications.

SWEDEN

The normal schools for the training of elementary teachers select its students more carefully than the normal schools for infant school teachers. In 1929 the latter accepted about two-thirds of those applying; the former, about one-fourth. The entrance examinations cover the subjects of elementary grades. Academic qualifications of candidates are varied. Previous schooling varies from 7 to 12 years. Candidates are usually over 16 years of age at entrance.

GENERAL NATURE AND DURATION OF TRAINING PERIOD

The course in the training college is usually 2 years in length. The university training departments offer a year of professional training for students who have completed a university degree. This scheme of training requires 4 years of university work—the first 3 of academic work; the last, professional.

Normal schools offer a 3-year course which places a strong emphasis on continued study of subject matter. About half of the time is given to the work on subject matter. 2 years of probation are normally required after leaving normal school.

1. The Prussian University for Teacher Training is generally sectarian and coeducational. Work is carried on according to principles of university study. The curriculum is 2 years followed by a probationary period of 2 to 4 years. Lectures, seminars, practice, laboratory, observation, and practice are the usual types of work.

2. The pedagogical institutes or schools of education require 3 years, the vacation periods, and a 3-year period of probationary teaching during which time courses must be taken to supplement first training.

Normal schools for infant school teachers offer 2-year course based on varied previous training.

Normal schools training for upper grades give a 4-year course to a somewhat more carefully selected group of students. Graduates are on probation until they reach the age of 21 years.

CHART. 1.—*The training of elementary teachers in selected European countries—Summary—Continued*

NATURE OF CURRICULUM OF TRAINING INSTITUTION

ENGLAND

Training colleges require work in three types of courses:

1. Professional subjects (education).
2. General subjects, (e.g. English).
3. Practical subjects (music). Practical subjects and professional subjects are required of all. Variation is allowed in general subjects according to subject matter in interests.

Universities offer two types of academic degrees: Pass and honours. Pass deemphasizes general training; honours degree emphasizes special subject. During professional year emphasis is on education.

FRANCE

Emphasis is mainly on academic materials. Subject matter courses take up 50 percent of the student's time, educational theory is allowed only 5 percent. About 40 percent of the required hours is devoted to practical subjects such as drawing, music, manual work. The curriculum gives general rather than specialized work.

GERMANY

The university for teacher training in Prussia offers a curriculum with six main areas of study: 1. Folk study (Volkskunde). 2. General principles and theory of education. 3. Theory of organization and teaching of special fields. 4. Practice and observation. 5. Physical education. 6. Fine and industrial arts.

Voluntary work service is required.

At Hamburg, as type of 3-year school of education, the curriculum is composed of: 1. Study of the science of education. 2. Practice, observation and participation. 3. Assistant teaching in public schools. 4. Assistantship in social welfare work. 5. Twenty-four semester-hours in an academic elective. Three years are required as probation and attendance upon the Training-in-Service Institute.

SWEDEN

The curriculum of the normal school for infant school teachers is vocational in its emphasis. The work of rural schools and lower grades is emphasized. Courses is highly practical but students lack a thorough academic background.

The curriculum of the normal schools for elementary teachers gives thorough training in advanced subject materials. Only 11.5 percent of students' time is devoted to professional work—theoretical and practical.

PROVISION FOR OBSERVATION, PARTICIPATION, AND PRACTICE

In the training colleges, practice teaching is done in publicly supported schools. At least 12 weeks of teaching are required. Subject-matter teachers are responsible for work in observation, and education teachers are responsible for practice teaching. A year of probation provides additional practice.

University training departments use publicly supported schools over which they have little control. There is frequently a gap between subject-matter as taught in the university training department and educational theory.

Observation and practice are carried on in schools closely associated with the normals. Students must spend a minimum of 50 half-days in training school during each of the 3 years. Contact with the practice school is continuous throughout the 3-year course. Induction into teaching is carefully graded.

Observation and practice are carried on in schools which have been taken over by teachers colleges and pedagogical institutes. Observation and practice aim at giving students broad experiences. Amount and kind is adopted to individual needs. The pedagogical institutes have the students use university vacations as period for practice teaching.

Normal schools for infant-school teachers give a very thorough course in observation and practice. Requirements as to time spent are not fixed but usually 4 weeks of concentrated observation come in first year; 5 periods per week throughout second year are devoted to group practice. Each normal has a practice school.

In normal schools for elementary teachers students are kept in constant contact with practice school during the second, third, and fourth years of work.

CHART 1.—*The training of elementary teachers in selected European countries—Summary—Continued*

TYPES OF EXAMINATIONS REQUIRED BY INSTITUTION AND BY STATE		
ENGLAND	FRANCE	GERMANY
<p>Examination for teaching certificate comes at the end of the period of training. It is controlled by a regional board, hence examinations are standardized within a given section of the country. The university controls its examinations for the academic degrees and for the teacher's diploma.</p>	<p>At the end of each year's work at the normal school the candidate must take one part of the examination for the brevet superieur. This certificate is awarded after the three examinations have been passed. It entitles the student to temporary appointment. After 2 years of probation the teacher takes examination for certificat d'aptitude pedagogique. Success in this examination gives permanent appointment.</p>	<p>Entrance to the teaching profession is by state examination only. State of Prussia requires final examination—both oral and written—at end of 2-year course. A second examination (of a professional nature) after 2 years of probation. Professional examination requires demonstration of teaching ability. Other German States have an examination scheme similar to that of Prussia.</p>
		<p>SWEDEN</p> <p>Final examination for teaching certificates comes at the end of period of training. The examination is under the joint control of the normal schools and of central educational authority.</p>

STAFF OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTION

In training colleges, faculty members are expected to have some school experience and to hold university degree with honors. The subject staff of the training college makes use of the practice school for demonstration.

In the university training departments, professors and lecturers in the professional department have the same rating and training as other members of the university staff.

The faculties of the normal schools are composed of highly trained specialists who have had practical experience in the schools. The professors must hold the certificat d'aptitude au professorat des écoles normales, which is obtained through competitive examination.

The ideal of the teachers college is to obtain staff members who have both a university training and practical school experience.

Pedagogical institutes follow customary university standards.

In both teachers colleges and pedagogical institutes staff members have chance of teaching in the demonstration school. The professors are not merely educational theorists, but also teachers of children.

Minimum qualifications for staff of normal schools for infant-school teachers: Must have 2 years of teaching experience, be 23 years of age and hold highest certificate for elementary teacher.

Minimum qualifications for staff of normal schools for elementary teachers: Hold university degrees requiring about 8 years of advanced study if they are full-time professors. Members of the staff are in close contact with training school. Spend some time in teaching children.

CHART 2.—*The training of secondary teachers in European countries—Summary.*

GENERAL STATUS OF TEACHING PROFESSION—ELEMENTARY

ENGLAND

About 75 percent of the elementary teachers hold certificates. Average salary (1930), men, £324 per year; women, £217. Pension and disability allowances through a contribution system.

Tenure of the teacher is during the pleasure of the employer but is surrounded by traditional safeguards which give the teacher considerable security.

FRANCE

Normal-school training is required for a permanent position and for a rating under the salary schedule. Teachers holding brevet supérieur draw basic salary of 10,500 francs. Those holding certificat d'aptitude pédagogique, from 11,500 francs to 19,000 francs per year (1933). Various salary supplements are allowed. As civil servants, teachers are entitled to permanent tenure, old-age and disability allowances.

GERMANY

Teaching in the elementary school is a real profession which requires training at a university level for entrance. All teachers are certificated. Tenure is for life, pension and disability allowances provided by State without contributions from teachers. Basal salaries range from 2,800 marks to 5,000 marks, plus various allowances.

SWEDEN

All teachers begin as assistant teachers and are promoted on basis of worth to full teachers. Those who have less than standard qualifications are allowed to enter the work as substitute teachers. Trained teachers are recognized by better salary ratings and permanent tenure.

Pensions are provided through State plan with teachers contributing from 3 percent to 6 percent of salary.

Compensation comparable to that paid rural teachers in the United States. Teaching is an attractive line of work.

CHART 2.—The training of secondary teachers in European countries—Summary—Continued

NAME AND NATURE OF THE TRAINING INSTITUTION		
ENGLAND	FRANCE	GERMANY
Teachers are trained at universities. They usually take a postgraduate course in training department of a university after finishing the academic work for a degree.	The essence of the French system is: Selection of the best students through ruthless elimination by State examination. The universities and higher normal schools offer the training which forms the basis for selection. There is some advanced work given in lycées.	Training in the academic subject, which is to be taught takes place in universities. Professional training takes place after completion of the university work in seminars connected with secondary schools.
		SWEDEN
		Training in the academic subject to be taught takes place in the universities. Professional training takes place after the completion of the university work in seminars connected with secondary schools. There is a higher teachers college for women.
ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS		
For entrance to university student must have passed the first school examination, at least. His standing in this examination must be creditable enough to exempt him from matriculation examination. Many students remain in secondary school a year or so after the first examination and pass a more advanced test. Students enter at about 17 years of age.	After passing the first and second parts of the baccalauréat examination, students may enter the university directly without further examinations. Competitive examinations for scholarships and for entrance to higher normal schools. Students may prepare by taking advanced courses in the lycée. Students may enter university at about 18 years of age.	For entrance to university, the candidate must have graduated from a "gymnasium" and have passed the student examen. This requires about 13 years of previous schooling. Students usually enter university about the age of 19 or 20. Candidates enter secondary school seminars after 4 to 9 years in a university.

CHART 2.—*The training of secondary teachers in European countries—Summary—Continued*
GENERAL NATURE AND DURATION OF THE TRAINING PERIOD

ENGLAND

The candidate studies in the university, in preparation for the degree examination, for a period of 3 years or more. He then takes a year of purely professional work in the training department of the university. The total period of training is about 4 years, at a university level.

FRANCE

Little attention is paid to professional theory (pédagogie). Student usually works 2 or more years in university for the licence d'enseignement which is the minimum requirement for secondary teaching. The work for the diplôme d'études supérieures includes some work in research. An added year is then spent in preparation for the agrégation examination which admits to the highest rank.

GERMANY

A period of at least 4 years specializing in academic subjects in university. This is followed by 2 years of practical training in a seminar connected with a secondary school—a total of at least 6 years of work on a university level. Some students take 8 years.

SWEDEN

For the lower rating (adkunkt) from 4 to 5 years of university work plus the year of practical training are necessary. For the higher rating (lektor) 8 or 9 years of university study, plus the practical year, are required. At least 2 years of probation are required before permanent appointment.

NATURE OF CURRICULUM OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

The student may take either of two types of degree:

1. The pass degree gives a general academic training in a number of subjects. This is similar to the American A.B.
2. The honors degree which requires specialization in a single subject. Similar to the American M.A.

In the postgraduate professional work, the candidate learns to teach the academic subjects which he has previously studied.

All of the university work is specialized. For the licence the student must study certain subjects allied to his special field. The work for the diplôme is scholarly specialization in a special field. A thesis is required for this degree. A short period of professional study—the stage pédagogique—is required of candidates for the agrégation if they have not had previous teaching experience.

In university the candidate works for a doctor's degree specializing in three secondary branches and in philosophy. The 2 years of seminar training include mainly observation and practice. There is some emphasis on professionalization of the previous academic training and on educational theory.

Academic preparation is both general and specialized. The higher the university degree, the greater the specialization. For the lower teacher rating, the candidate studies three subjects. For the higher teacher rating, the student continues the specialization in one subject to a level of scholarly productivity and completes the doctors degree. There is little pedagogical training prior to the practice year.

PROVISION FOR OBSERVATION, PARTICIPATION, AND PRACTICE

At least 60 days must be spent in contact with class work in local schools under supervision of the education department of the university or of the faculty of the school selected. This work is rather loosely organized, because training departments have little control over the schools used for observation and practice.

Practice teaching and observation is done by candidates the agregation during the special period called the "stage pedagogique." Three consecutive weeks of observation and 2 weeks of consecutive teaching are required. This work is done under teachers selected by higher authorities. There is no practice teaching requirement for the licence, and agregation candidates with experience are excused.

During the year of practical training, the candidate teaches about 6 hours per week. The rest of his time is devoted to observation and conferences. He practices in the teaching of at least 2 but not more than 4 subjects. Supervising teachers are carefully selected.

During a 2-year period of professional training there is opportunity for abundant observation, participation, and practice under the supervision of selected secondary teachers in a practical situation.

CHART 1.—*Training of secondary teachers in European countries—Summary—Continued*

TYPES OF EXAMINATIONS REQUIRED BY INSTITUTIONS AND BY STATE

ENGLAND

The examinations for the university degrees and for the teacher's diploma, following the year of professional work, are controlled by the university. The professional examination covers the work in educational theory done during the fourth year of training.

FRANCE

The baccalaureat examination is taken before leaving the secondary school and entering the university. For the licence des sciences the student takes examinations which allow him to teach in a secondary school.

Competitive examination for certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire is similar in level to the licence. This examination gives opportunity to transfer from elementary to secondary teaching. One more year is needed to obtain the diploma d'études supérieures on top of which comes the added preparation (1 year or more) for the agrégation examination.

GERMANY

1. Maturity examination, upon leaving secondary school and entering university.

2. University examination for the doctor's degree (optional, but usually taken).

3. State academic examination, after 8 to 12 semesters, taken in the university.

4. Pedagogical examination, after training in the semester.

SWEDEN

The Ambetsexamen—the first qualifying examination comes after 4 or 5 years of university.

Successful candidates can, after taking year of practice, become assistant masters. The candidate wishing to rate as a master must take the examination for two higher degrees. The filosofie licentiat and the filosofie doktor.

STAFF OF TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

The standards of training for the faculty are those usually found in the universities of Europe. The staff of the training department which gives the year of professional work has the same standing as other university faculty members.

Secondary school teachers are educated in universities or in the école normale supérieure. Both types of institution demand high academic achievement but more professional training is given at the école normale supérieure.

Members of the staff of German universities at which secondary school teachers are educated usually have no professional training but have a doctor's degree representing specialization in their own subjects. Teachers of secondary schools at which candidates serve probationary years, have always passed their subject-matter examinations and professional teachers' examinations. Many have doctor's degrees but such is not required.

The standards of training for the university faculty are those usually found in Europe. The staff of the training department which gives the year of professional work has the same standing as other university faculty members.

GENERAL STATUS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION—SECONDARY

Status as regards tenure: ²⁻⁴⁴ will of employer, but surrounded by traditional safeguards which give considerable economic security. Pension system based on contribution from the teacher, duplicated by the state. About three-fourths of teachers are university graduates. Status not equal to that of French or German secondary teacher.

From a social point of view, status is equivalent to that of college and university professors in America. As a civil servant and member of a recognized profession, the secondary teacher has permanent tenure, pension, and disability allowances. Salaries have not kept pace with the cost of living. Basic rate: 14,000-26,000 francs for licence; 20,000-40,000 francs for agrégé.

Secondary teacher has been carefully selected and highly trained. The path to permanent appointment is long and arduous, teachers are often 35 or 40 before reaching it. As a civil servant, secondary teacher is entitled to pension and retirement. No contribution paid from salary. Salaries of permanent appointees vary from RM 4,400 to 9,600 plus supplements.

Status is commensurate with high standard of training necessary for entrance to the profession. Salary is on a level with that in other well-trained professions. The teacher enjoys life tenure, pension, and disability allowances. Teachers contribute from 3 to 6 percent of their salaries to a state pension fund.

PART 9

PART IX. SUMMARY OF COOPERATIVE STUDIES IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION

In developing plans for the National Survey of the Education of Teachers and in determining the scope of the several studies which were to be undertaken an attempt was made to consult recognized leaders in all phases of teacher education. State Superintendents of public instruction; city and county superintendents; presidents of universities, colleges, teachers colleges, normal schools, and junior colleges; deans of schools of education; representatives of the principal educational organizations; and through those representatives, teachers in the principal subject-matter fields were all consulted concerning the most pressing teacher-education problems in their areas, institutions, or fields. The suggestions submitted made it very evident that the resources at the disposal of the Survey were quite inadequate for all the studies which were desired. It became necessary to select the studies which, because of their importance, the number of persons affected or the availability of necessary data, would be made by the regular staff. At the same time it was decided to encourage and cooperate with properly sponsored individuals in making additional studies related to the education of teachers or in studying more intensively some group of teachers which was less thoroughly studied by the Survey. Several such studies were made, most of them by individuals who were candidates for the doctor's degree in a university and who because of their interest in the field were willing to apply the time and thought required for a doctor's dissertation to a topic related to the training of teachers and to use data collected for them by the Survey. Aside from the approval (by the Board of Consultants and the directors) of the study as pertinent to the Survey, the Survey staff assumed no official responsibility for these studies, leaving their guidance and supervision to the institutions in which the individuals were working for their degrees. Several of the studies undertaken were not completed. Those which were completed before this report was finished and which have not been reported upon in other sections of the report are briefly summarized in this part.

Two undertakings of a cooperative nature deserve mention here even though they have been reported and acknowledged in volume III. These were the studies of representative courses for normal schools and teachers colleges and for colleges and universities made by

the groups of master's degree candidates at Colorado State Teachers College at Greeley, and the University of Minnesota. These two valuable sets of studies were made possible by the cooperation of the two institutions, the careful supervision of Dr. Earle U. Rugg and Dr. W. E. Peik and the faithful performance of some difficult and arduous tasks by the students.

Another set of studies will not be summarized in this part because their principal findings have been incorporated in the report on the in-service education of teachers by Dr. N. H. Dearborn (pt. VI of this volume). These were the doctoral studies by Francis J. Brown, Stephen C. Clement, Anna Fuda, Mrs. Lalla H. Pickett, Mark E. Stine, and Walter E. Zaugg.

The doctor's dissertations of Francis Peterson and Obed Williamson were prepared in connection with the study of the educational theories held by staff members of higher educational institutions in which teachers are prepared. Dr. R. B. Raup directed this study and reported upon some of the findings of these two studies in volume III, part VII of the Survey report.

Another study of a special group of teachers undertaken in cooperation with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers was the survey of the personnel of teachers of the deaf which was made by Robert C. Wiltbank, principal of the William S. Pierce Public School in Philadelphia. This study includes detailed personnel data on about two-thirds of the teachers of the deaf in public day schools, and private and public residential schools throughout the United States. It also analyzes the academic and professional preparation of these teachers and secures their attitudes and opinions upon a number of controversial issues in this field. The conclusions were not available at the time this report was prepared.

The extensive study of the activities of critic teachers in normal schools and teachers colleges throughout the country which has been made by Miss Esther Marion Nelson of the State Normal School at Oneonta, New York was utilized in the discussion of the practice school by Dr. Frank K. Foster (vol. III, pt. IV).

The other studies done cooperatively with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers will be referred to separately and a few of their most significant findings given in the remainder of this part. Most of the material presented in these summaries is taken from the completed reports of the studies or from summaries prepared by the authors. Little interpretation has been attempted. The primary purposes of presenting these brief statements are to acquaint persons interested in the education of teachers, with the fact that these studies have been made and to give enough of the results to show what may be found in the completed reports.

THE PLACEMENT OF STUDENTS IN TEACHING POSITIONS AS CARRIED ON BY HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS¹

It is not only important that a teacher be prepared for his work but equally important that he have the opportunity to do the work for which he is prepared and under conditions which make for his happiness and growth. In other words the proper placement of teachers is essential to the success of any institution preparing teachers. Some schools have realized this and have developed extensive programs of placement and adjustment services for their graduates. Other institutions have neglected this educational service entirely or have left it to the desultory efforts of individual students and staff members.

It was thought that a detailed analysis of the placement work, now being carried on in different types of institutions would suggest forms of placement service to institutions with limited placement programs and would also be a means of evaluating existing services and methods. The Survey cooperated with Walter H. Adams in making this analysis.

In order to provide the analysis desired it was necessary to secure data which would help to answer the following questions:

1. What is the administrative organization through which placement is effected?
2. How much attention is being given to the work, as revealed by the amount of time devoted to it, the assistance given to the director, and the amount of money spent on it?
3. What are the policies which govern teacher placement in educational institutions?
4. What is the extent of the services rendered by the placement offices?
5. What preparation have placement directors had for their work?
6. What duties do the directors perform in addition to teacher-placement duties?

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers ascertained which of the institutions cooperating with it maintained any form of placement service and then obtained the data required by means of a detailed data sheet. This was prepared by Mr. Adams with the advice of Prof. H. D. Kitson, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, who sponsored the investigation. The data sheet contained a series of questions and requests for pertinent data upon each of the six questions just listed. The report gives the tabulated results of the answers from 465 institutions in such form that any institution may compare its placement practices with those of its group and the practices of its group with those of other types of institutions.

¹ This study was made by Walter H. Adams, dean of students, Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Tex., and was published by the author at Abilene. It includes normal schools, teachers colleges, colleges, and universities.

A brief statement of the principal findings under each of the main headings and also some of the most significant recommendations are presented in this summary.

A. *The administrative organization for teacher placement.*—Some form of organized placement is found in 87 percent of the institutions cooperating in the study. In the majority of cases, however, the duties of teacher placement have been assumed by or delegated to an administrative officer whose primary work is something other than placement. Only 14 percent of the institutions have a placement office or bureau with a full-time executive in charge whose primary work is that of teacher placement. More than 83 percent delegate placement to 1 of 7 persons—a teacher of education, the head of the education department, appointment secretary, dean of the college, director of teacher training, registrar, or president.

B. *The attention being given to teacher placement.*—That considerable attention is being given to teacher placement is evidenced by the facts that: (1) 87 percent of the institutions provide for teacher placement; (2) the person in charge of the work gives 14.6 percent (median) of the time devoted to all college duties to teacher placement; (3) each institution provides, on an average, one full-time clerical assistant to the director; and (4) the median institution spends a total of \$831.25 annually on all placements, and \$15.27 in effecting each placement.

C. *The policies which govern teacher placement.*—More than 90 percent of the institutions meet all or part of the expenses of placement out of the general fund. Only 32.3 percent charge students a fee when they register with the placement office. Nearly 80 percent permit both students and alumni to register for the placement service while the remainder restrict registration of resident students to members of the graduating class.

Little attempt, on the whole, is made to select promising teaching prospects for the teacher-training course but approximately 75 percent of the institutions make some attempt to deflect probable teaching failures from the training course.

Nominations for positions are restricted usually to those who majored or minored in the subject or field for which a request for a teacher is received. Most institutions send the credentials of a student to employers when requested to do so by the student, employer, or member of the faculty.

D. *Extent of service rendered.*—One hundred and thirty placement offices reported medians of 174.5 calls for teachers during a period of 12 months, 215.4 nominations, and 68.8 placements as a result of the nominations. The median number of first-time registrants was 95.6 of which number 63.6 percent secured positions during the 12-month period.

Registrants who prefer to teach in the primary grades are more successful than others in securing positions of their preference. Registrants who prefer to teach in the junior high school find the greatest difficulty in this respect. The data reveal that probably not more than 10 percent of the registrants in placement offices secure positions for which they have not been trained.

E. *The directors of teacher placement.*—The typical placement director holds the M.A. degree, has 49.5 semester-hours of credit in courses in education, and has had approximately 17 years of experience in 4 different educational positions, and holds the rank of professor in the institution in which he is working.

F. *Other duties of teacher-placement directors.*—He teaches some course or courses (usually education) in the institution, holds an administrative position such as dean or director of teacher training, is a member of two standing committees, and is responsible for assisting students in securing part-time positions. In those institutions which maintain a program of follow-up of teachers in service, he is responsible for this program.

From practices and opinions of placement directors and other students of this field, a set of principles underlying the placement of students in teaching positions was developed. The major principles without their various subdivisions are as follows:

1. Teacher placement should be recognized as part of the personnel program of the institution and should be under the supervision of the personnel director.
2. Where possible, the placement service should be financed from sources other than registration fees charged to registrants.
3. Any student in the institution or former student of the institution who is eligible for an educational position should be permitted to register for placement provided he has a sufficient amount of work in the institution to make it possible to arrive at a fair estimate of his potential ability as a teacher.
4. Only those students who have majored (specialized) in the field about which the inquiry was received should be nominated for a position in that field, unless the director has reason to believe that a student who has minored in the field possesses certain personal traits which may compensate for a lack of training.
5. The credentials of a registrant should be sent to a prospective employer at the request of the employer, a member of the faculty of the institution doing the placing or at the request of the student, provided the director is assured that the vacancy exists.
6. Such records should be kept in the placement office as will make it possible for the director to make intelligent nominations. This will include information about the registrant and information about the vacancy.

7. The placement director should have at least 1 year of training beyond the bachelor's degree, preferably in the field of education.
 8. The duties of the placement director will depend upon the policy of the institution as to personnel administration. In general, it may be said that the one who assists students in securing teaching positions may well teach or supervise teaching part of the time in order to keep in touch with the problems of the teacher, and he should be responsible for the follow-up program of the institution.
- Some practical applications of the findings may be stated briefly as follows:

1. They make possible the formulation of a body of principles to direct teacher-placement activities in educational institutions.
2. The institutions contributing to the investigation can compare their placement work with that in institutions comparable to their own and may make whatever changes they believe are necessary to make the program consistent with the principles stated.
3. Placement directors can better determine the policies which should direct their work and define the scope of their services.
4. Prospective placement directors will know what preparation might well be expected of them, and graduate schools of education should find the material helpful in providing the necessary training for college administrators, particularly for those who expect to be responsible for teacher-placement work.
5. The findings should prove helpful to investigators in the future who are interested in studying trends in teacher-placement activities in educational institutions.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SUBSTITUTE TEACHING SERVICE IN CITIES OF 50,000 POPULATION AND MORE¹

Substitute teachers in large city systems may play an important part in the preservice education of teachers, the induction of young teachers, and the continued growth of teachers in service. Because of the close relationship between the problem of how to obtain efficient use of substitute teachers and the larger problem of educating teachers the National Survey of the Education of Teachers cooperated with Clare C. Baldwin in securing data necessary for the study of the problems connected with substitute teaching. Answers to a detailed questionnaire dealing not only with practices of handling substitute-teacher work but the underlying purposes were received from more than three-fourths of the cities in this country with more than 50,000 population. One of the principal contributions of this study will be the very convincing evidence which it presents of multiplicity of practices in handling substi-

¹ This study was conducted by Clare C. Baldwin, graduate student in Teachers College, Columbia University, and was made under the immediate sponsorship of Prof. W. S. Elsbree.

tute teaching. It is evident that there has been relatively little careful thinking on this problem and the possibilities of improving public-school service by the wise use of substitute teachers. A few of the results of this study will give evidence of this and at the same time show the type of material which may be obtained from this report by those interested in the administration of city school systems.

One distinct contribution has been the formulation of 14 criteria for the management of substitute teaching. These are supported by quotations from authorities in the field of educational administration. These criteria are as follows:

1. The superintendent of schools should be held responsible for the administration of substitute-teaching service.
2. The selection and assignment of substitute teachers should be administered centrally for the entire system.
3. The professional qualifications of those eligible for substitute-teaching service should be the same as the qualifications for the regular teaching staff.
4. The selection and assignment of substitutes for service should be made strictly on the basis of merit.
5. Each candidate for substitute service should be required to submit an application form giving his essential qualifications.
6. The specialization of substitute teachers within certain grade levels in the elementary school division and within subject fields in the secondary school division should be practiced.
7. A large city school system should systematically zone the school district for purposes of administering substitute-teaching service.
8. Salaries of substitute teachers should be administered on the basis of a scientific salary schedule.
9. Substitute-teaching service should be treated as a distinct item in budgetary and accounting practice.
10. A system of adequate records should be provided for the administration of substitute service.
11. In-service training for substitute teachers should be so planned and so administered as to assure a maximum of service and professional growth.
12. Adequate supervision should be provided the substitute teacher while in service.
13. The work of the substitute teacher should be rated for purposes of measuring and increasing efficiency, and the rating should bear some relation to promotion, salary, transfer, and termination of service.

14. A statement of the rules and regulations applying to the administration of substitute-teaching service should be formulated in every city school system.

A. *Organizing and directing substitute-teacher service.*—The officer who has this in charge is most frequently the secretary to the superintendent of schools. It is also handled in 21 cities by specially designated clerks, by the superintendent in 8 cities, by the assistant superintendents in 7, by telephone switchboard operators in 2, and by various other school officials in other cities. In 31 school systems the school principals direct substitute service for their schools independently of any assistance from a central office. In 93 systems in which the central office handles substitute-teacher service the principal is permitted to specify a choice of individuals from a list of eligibles.

B. *Recruiting and selecting substitute-teacher personnel.*—In 92 of the cities reporting, the superintendent of schools approves the candidates eligible for substitute service. These are selected by means of a variety of examinations and in practically all cases a personal application.

C. *Qualifications of substitute teachers.*—These qualifications differ by cities and also among the various school divisions. Somewhat more than the majority of cities have identical requirements for regular and substitute teachers in the elementary, junior high school, and senior high school divisions. In a number of other respects, such as required experience and health certificate, the requirements are waived for substitute teachers. Residence in the locality is, however, more frequently required for substitutes than for regular teachers. In the cities studied, very little use is made of student teachers, practice teachers, or cadet teachers for substitute service although two-thirds of the cities reporting stated that students were being trained in their school systems.

D. *Compensation.*—The most common practice in the payment of substitute teachers is to provide a uniform wage which varies according to the school division—elementary, junior high school, and senior high school. The next most frequently used plan is to pay all substitutes the same amount regardless of qualifications or school divisions in which the service is rendered. The third most frequently used plan is to pay substitutes on a separate schedule from the regular staff with pay varying according to individual qualifications. Salary data from most of the cities cooperating in the study would indicate that about 1½ percent of the salary budget is used for substitute teaching.

E. *Personnel records and accounting methods.*—The replies showed the following frequencies for records kept of the substitute personnel: Qualifications, 126; successive employment as a substitute, 108; efficiency rating, 89; professional progress, 43; and no records, 6. This

section of the report shows great need for more uniform records in this field.

F. Inducting substitutes into daily teaching service.—Wide varieties in practice were again found in notifying the central office of absence from school and of the need for substitute teachers, which variety persisted in the methods of selecting the teacher for the temporary vacancy. This section of the report has probably the most comprehensive data ever collected on the amount of time taught by substitutes, tabulated by months of the school year and by school divisions. The average percentage of total teaching days taught by substitutes in the combined elementary, junior, and senior high school divisions were September, 1.6 percent; October, 2.2; November, 2.5; December, 2.7; January, 2.8; February, 3.2; March, 3.6; April, 2.9; May, 2.6; June, 2.6.

G. Using the services of substitutes.—The extent to which substitutes were employed for services other than classroom teaching was as follows: Visiting teachers, 10; coaching, 14; research assistants, 15; clerical work, 30; study-hall supervision, 2; library, 2; grading, 1. This shows that substitute teachers in the cities cooperating in this study have been used for very little other work than caring for the work of absentee teachers. The study further reports that the supervision of the work of substitute teachers was performed in all cases by the principals or by the principals and grade and subject supervisors. In some school systems the substitute teacher was reported to receive more thorough or extensive supervision than the regular teachers. In most cases, however, no difference was shown. It was also revealed that in very few of the cities were substitute teachers considered to have the same privileges of tenure as were accorded the regular teachers.

This study will call attention in a forceful manner to the possibilities of more effective use of substitute teachers in the larger city systems.

THE INTERNAL ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION IN TEACHERS COLLEGES¹

Many of the problems in the education of teachers involve sooner or later the administrative organization of the institution in which teachers are prepared. Frequently changes considered desirable are not made because of administrative difficulties involved or because of existing administrative organizations. In order to have a more complete and recent picture of the administrative organization of the institutions educating teachers two studies were encouraged by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers—one having to do

¹ This study was prepared by Robert H. Morrison, director of practice teaching, State Teachers College, Montclair, N.J. The report is published by the bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.

with the administration of normal schools and teachers colleges, the other with the administration of colleges and universities. The first of these studies was done under the immediate direction of Robert H. Morrison, the second by James S. Kinder.

In outlining the study for the normal schools and teachers colleges it was decided to discover if possible the extent to which practice in the 250 State-supported institutions of this type varied and, if possible, the elements or practices which they had in common. In addition to this an attempt was made to develop criteria for the internal administrative organization of professional schools for the education of teachers and to obtain the validation of those criteria from writings in the field of teachers-college administration and by the opinions of a selected group of teachers-college presidents considered superior administrators by their fellow presidents. After these criteria were developed the existing practices in the normal schools and teachers colleges of the country were checked against the criteria and recommendations were made concerning the administrative officers needed, their principal duties, their administrative interrelationships and the use of faculty committees in the administration of these institutions. An elaborate check-list was developed to secure a detailed picture of the administrative officers in all of these schools, the percentage of their time given to administration, to teaching and other duties, and the administrative officers to whom they were directly responsible. The data sheet also obtained similar information concerning standing committees of the faculty. A long check-list of rather detailed administrative duties was used to ascertain the exact officer or officers in the teachers college to whom the duties in the list were delegated.

Data were procured from 150 teachers colleges scattered throughout the country in 41 different States and thus represent a very complete picture of present administrative practices in these institutions.

A. Criteria for evaluating internal administrative organization in a teachers college.—Twenty criteria for the internal administrative organization of teachers colleges were derived from the literature in this field and from administrative practices in teachers colleges. A jury of 50 selected college presidents rated these criteria on the basis of their desirability. Thirteen were approved by the jury as desirable or highly desirable. These 13, briefly stated, were:

1. Opportunity for the instructional staff to teach in their respective departments without being overburdened with administrative duties.
2. Faculty participation in formulating policies concerning instruction.
3. Responsibility for the performance of administrative functions centered in individuals.
4. The approval of policies by the State board of control.

5. Final decisions made by president or by officers to whom president has delegated authority to make decisions.
6. The utilization of an administrative council chosen by the president to serve in an advisory capacity concerning the formulation of policies and the making of administrative decisions. (Faculty representation on the administrative council received high endorsement.)
7. The freeing of the president from a multiplicity of administrative duties.
8. Grouping of related administrative functions under control of officers, who, in turn, are responsible to president.
9. Specialization of duties of the administrative officers.
10. Special committees for investigations requiring special study.
11. Few or no standing committees for administrative work.
12. A fixed procedure for replacing membership in standing committees.
13. Selection and appointment of all committees by the president.

B. *The administrative use of committees in the internal organization of teachers colleges.*—An average of approximately 10 standing committees of the faculty for each institution investigated was found with a slight tendency for the number to increase as the size of the college increases. The most frequently found faculty committees were those on: Entertainment and lyceum, student activities, student social affairs, and construction and reconstruction of the curriculum. Administrative councils were organized in 70 percent of the colleges included in this study. Nearly all of these councils were chosen by the president and expected to serve in an advisory capacity. The committees were usually appointed by the president who retained in most cases ex-officio membership in all standing committees. Approximately 75 percent of the committees had administrative duties in connection with policies which they developed. There was also a tendency to retain the same individuals on committees.

C. *Interrelations of administrative officers.*—Twenty-six different administrative officers were found in 5 percent or more of the colleges which furnished data for this study. The officials other than the president found most frequently were the business agent, the dean of men, the dean of women, the director of athletics, director of health, director of placement, the director of training, librarian, registrar, and superintendent of buildings and grounds. Officials established in only a few institutions are director of adjustment, director of housing, director of instruction, director of personnel, director of research, director of student activities, director of social affairs, and vice president. Teachers colleges in the study have an average of approximately 12 administrative officers each. The administrative officers averaged fairly heavy teaching loads in these institutions, particu-

larly in the smaller ones. Nearly all officers are administratively responsible to the president. Although there are numerous instances in which there is an approved sequence of responsibilities there is not a marked tendency on the part of the administrative officers of these institutions to delegate extensive administrative responsibility.

D. *The performance of administrative functions.*—The check-list submitted to teachers colleges gave samples of activities under the following headings: Admission, registration, and records of students; buildings and grounds management; business management; campus instruction; extension instruction; educational research; faculty personnel relations; placement and adjustment service; public relations or good-will service; publicity and publications; student organization; student social activities; student standards of conduct; student teaching; student welfare. The president retains considerable administrative responsibility for each of these different fields, thus, in many instances, performing a multiplicity of duties. In more than a third of the cases it seemed evident that these duties were so numerous and so easily capable of delegation to others that their performance prevented giving the major attention of the president to the development of administrative and institutional policies. Presidents of these institutions retain the major responsibility for administrative duties in the approval of administrative policies, the management of buildings and grounds, the supervision and direction of classroom instruction, the administration of faculty personnel relations and public relations or good-will service. Among the administrative and supervisory activities frequently not performed in teachers colleges may be mentioned the following: (a) Supervising the instruction of the probationary members of the staff; (b) planning in-service training for staff members; (c) arranging exchange professorships; (d) formulating policies concerning educational research; (e) formulating policies concerning extension instruction; (f) determining what courses may be offered by correspondence; (g) planning adequate housing facilities for staff members; (h) planning staff insurance and retirement funds; (i) guidance of students in selection of courses to meet placement demands; (j) conducting educational conferences for graduates who are teaching in the field; (k) directing conferences with boards of education; (l) providing summaries of cost records for various departmental services; (m) requiring independent auditing of financial records; (n) insuring buildings; (o) planning adequate housing for maintenance staff; (p) directing in-service training of maintenance staff.

Mr. Morrissey's analysis of this problem is concluded with a set of recommendations concerning the reorganization of teachers colleges around the five functional divisions of public relations, instruction, personnel, business and finance, and faculty personnel relations.

The detailed information contained in this report as supporting evidence for the recommendations will be of interest to all administrative officers of normal schools and teachers colleges and also of interest to any persons responsible for proposing changes in the curricula of these institutions since, as was previously stated, radical changes in curricula often involve and sometimes depend upon equally radical changes in the administrative set-up.

THE INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION OF LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES¹

In connection with the problems that were related to the administrative organization of institutions in which teachers are prepared it seemed desirable to make the same division of institutions as was done in the study of curricula. For this reason the Survey accepted the opportunity to cooperate with the Association of American Colleges in the study of the internal administration of liberal arts colleges which was conducted by James S. Kinder. This study was organized so that its findings would be comparable to those from the study of the internal administration of normal schools and teachers colleges made by Robert H. Morrison. The data for the study of colleges and universities were obtained largely by questionnaires collected by the Association of American Colleges. This accounts for some of the differences in the treatment of the two groups of institutions. There is, however, enough similarity in the point of approach and in the items studied to provide interesting comparisons. Data for this study were obtained from the answers to questionnaires from 116 colleges and from 11 larger universities which were used to check the effect of size on administrative procedures.

The problem as undertaken by Mr. Kinder was expressed in the following five purposes:

1. To discover how the educational and administrative policies of colleges are determined.
2. To reveal the types of internal administration which now exist.
3. To show how the various administrative officers function in relation to each other.
4. To determine the extent to which the faculty as a group and as organized committees participate in internal administration.
5. To suggest some basic principles of administration as they are revealed in surveys and other educational literature and to show whether these principles have been adopted by the colleges and universities included in the study.

Some of the findings under each of these headings are presented in this summary together with the statement of the 17 principles drawn from the literature of this field.

¹ This study was prepared by James S. Kinder, professor of education, Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh, Pa., and was published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

A. Present administrative practice.—There is no common pattern of administration so far as officers employed is concerned. The only officers which were found in every institution are the chief executive and the business officer. Most of the administrative officers are assigned to a teaching schedule. Most of the colleges are organized along departmental lines and only a few have adopted a divisional plan of organization.

B. Interrelations of officers and duties.—More than half of the institutions have not defined the functions and duties of their administrative officers in bylaws or other formal regulations. As a result there is no common set of functions for a particular office when the entire group of colleges is considered. In the majority of colleges the type of organization described in this study as the "unit type" prevails. There are a number of instances, however, where several administrative officers are directly responsible to the board. In most of these cases the plan was considered satisfactory due perhaps to the cooperative spirit of the personnel.

C. Participation of the faculty in the internal administration of colleges.—The faculty occupies a position of preeminence in the institutions in this study, participating in administration through general faculty meetings, standing committees, boards, cabinets, councils, and senates. College presidents are making an extensive use of faculty standing committees with special fact-finding or policy-forming committees having a vital place in the affairs of the institutions. Faculty meetings have a tendency to settle down into discussions of institutional routine and detail.

D. Principles of internal administration and their relation to present administrative practice.—The following 17 principles were assembled from the opinions of leaders in the field of college administration. Each principle was supported by quotations from surveys, reports, and other discussions of college problems.

1. Administration exists for the purpose of enabling the institution to carry out more effectively its aims and policies rather than as an end in itself.
2. The administrative staff should be no larger than is necessary to handle efficiently the affairs of the institution.
3. Administration should provide for a high degree of staff morale. Every member of the administrative and instructional staff should be made to feel a responsibility for the progress of the institution as a whole.
4. The president as the chief executive officer of the institution should have final authority and responsibility, subject to review by the board of control, for all phases of administration in the institution.

5. The chief executive should be sufficiently free from routine administrative duties that he may devote the major part of his time to the development and execution of the policies of the institution.
6. All administrative officers should be responsible to the president either directly or indirectly.
7. Administrative officers should be given authority commensurate with their responsibilities.
8. Each member of the staff, especially the administrative staff, should be given a clear definition of his functions so that all functions will be properly cared for and that an overlapping or duplication of effort will not occur.
9. The institution should recognize that administration and instruction are specialized functions.
10. In the preparation of the budget, all executive officers and heads of departments or units should be consulted about the needs of their respective units.
11. The presentation of the budget to the board of control and the responsibility for its adequacy and soundness should rest with the chief executive.
12. The president should recommend to the board of control names of new faculty members; however, he should first consult with the administrative council, the departmental head, or the members of the department involved.
13. The faculty should be considered the legislative body of the institution in academic matters (in large institutions this function may have to be delegated to duly elected representatives).
14. The faculty should not attempt nor be expected to perform executive duties.
15. Standing committees should be few in number; special committees should be discharged upon the completion of their specific tasks.
16. The instructional staff organization should promote the institutional program as a whole.
17. The powers of the departmental head should ordinarily be ministrative rather than administrative.

A few of Kinder's conclusions in addition to those already given are:

1. Liberal arts colleges and universities differ in their administrative practices, although the difference is one of degree rather than of kind.
2. College administration is more democratic in practice than in form. Few presidents take delight in absolute authority for its own sake. Their correspondence is replete with allusions to efforts to keep all the members of the staff informed of the policies of the board and the administration.

3. There have been few changes in organization and administration in the last 5 years which come within the scope of this study. Collegiate experiments which are in progress center largely around the curriculum, the improvement of instruction, and the care and direction of students.
4. College administrative officers are doing more than a reasonable amount of teaching. It is often difficult to decide whether an individual is an instructor or an administrative officer.

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF READING *

The effective teaching of reading presents many problems especially to the teachers in elementary schools. Preparation of teachers to meet these many problems has in some professional schools been left almost to chance even though the ability to read is so fundamental to the whole educative process. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers cooperated with F. W. Phillips in his study of the preparation of teachers of reading—a study done under the guidance of Dr. William S. Gray and other members of the University of Chicago faculty.

Data on staff personnel and on the representative courses for teachers of reading were obtained from the institutions cooperating in the study of curricula for teachers. The same data were obtained for all representative courses but their number prevented detailed analyses except those in which individual graduate students used the data for doctors' theses.

The findings from this study were based upon returns for nearly 200 courses in 110 institutions in 39 States. The distribution by sections and by types of institutions gives a satisfactory sample for study.

Some of Phillips' findings and recommendations are given under each of the major headings used in his report.

A. Aims of professional courses for the training of teachers of reading.—The aims submitted for evaluation to teachers of courses in reading were the same as were submitted to teachers of representative courses in all subjects and so were too general to give the data desired about courses in reading. Each teacher, however, was asked to interpret the aims in terms of his own subject. Three of these aims were approved for 135 of the 140 courses for teachers of reading. These were: (1) To give students a knowledge of the principles of the subject; (2) to make students familiar with the aims and problems of the subject; and (3) to make students familiar with the methods of teaching the subject. Five other aims for these courses which were listed as applying to two-thirds or more of the courses indicate that

* This study was made by F. W. Phillips, superintendent of schools, DeKalb, Ill.

courses in reading were primarily professional courses. These five aims were:

1. To have students acquire facts or meanings concerning the subject through textbooks, lectures by the instructor, classroom discussion, and laboratory activities.
2. To develop proper appreciations (valuations) of the significance of the subject for its contributions to present-day living.
3. To train in right methods of study, including training in the location and use of reference and source material, relating to the subject.
4. To give practice in teaching including lesson planning and other types of teaching activities.
5. To supply students with the necessary background of subject matter for teaching purposes.

B. Materials of instruction used in courses for teachers of reading.—One hundred and forty-six courses reported 61 different textbooks as used in reading courses with 15 reported as the highest frequency for any one book, and 40 texts used in only one course.

In listing books used as reference material 615 notations included 123 different titles—only 16 of which were mentioned 10 or more times.

Two hundred and thirty-three notations of periodicals used included 26 different publications only 7 of which were mentioned 10 or more times.

An analysis of the lists of materials used in these courses indicates practices inconsistent with the more scientific tendencies in education and in a number of instances misplaced emphasis for a professional course.

C. The placement and content of the professional course in reading.—One hundred and fifty-four courses were listed under 89 titles and offered in 19 different departments. Eighty-two of the courses were given in departments of education and 37 in English groups.

This section of the report presents a detailed analysis of the content of courses in reading showing the variations in emphasis on each of 19 major items when the reading courses are taught by different departments and for different levels of education. These tables are interesting to teachers of reading but are too detailed to summarize here.

D. Some classroom procedures.—The most commonly used technique for assigning lessons in these courses was to refer to the text or to a reference book and indicate the way the book was to be used. A variety of other methods of assignment were listed, the most frequently mentioned being the use of lesson plans, the selection and preparation of teaching materials, and observation followed by discussion and reports.

There is evidence to show that instructors of these courses used the socialized recitation, the organization of courses on the problem basis, large units and illustrative lessons, the study of teaching materials, and individual assignments.

Tests were given on an average of 3 or 4 times per term. The types of tests most frequently used were in the order of frequency of mention: True-false 115, completion 107, multiple choice 95, essay 91, and matching 51.

Student grades in professional courses in reading were most frequently determined on the basis of class participation in discussion (144), written papers or projects (117), laboratory exercises (117), final examinations (106), and general attitude toward work (104).

Teachers of these professional courses in reading used the discussion method of teaching most frequently. Special reports by students and lectures were the next in order of frequency of mention.

Some of the general conclusions from the study may be listed as follows:

1. Wide difference of opinion exists as to the need for a professional course in reading.
2. Those who recognize a need differ as to the departmental placement and basic content of the course. This is shown by the various combinations offered.
3. No uniformity was found in the selection or use of texts, reference books, or periodicals.
4. The aims of the reading course showed greater uniformity than was to be expected when the various combinations, departments, and individual interpretations are considered. This is, no doubt, in part, a surface agreement influenced by the suggested list in the questionnaire.
5. The evidence indicated that methods of instruction, of testing, and determination of grades tend toward progressive practices.
6. The major items of instruction show the influence of recent studies in the reading field.
7. Greater uniformity of practice and unanimity of understanding are desirable.

THE TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN THE FIELD OF ARITHMETIC*

Another of the cooperative studies approved by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers was the analysis of the preparation of elementary teachers in the field of arithmetic. Mr. Robinson's interest in the problem grew from his work with teachers of arithmetic in the New York City schools—both in preparing teachers in one of

* This study was made by Arthur E. Robinson, formerly professor of mathematics, Jamaica Training College for Teachers, Jamaica, N.Y., now teacher of mathematics New Town High School, New York City.

the city training schools and in supervising arithmetic teaching of teachers in service.

The investigation undertook to study the preparation of elementary teachers in the field of arithmetic and then to evaluate that preparation by means of the strengths and weaknesses of the teachers at work.

The picture of the preparation of these teachers was obtained from the analysis of the catalogs of 141 normal schools and teachers colleges in 45 different States and from detailed reports from the teachers of arithmetic courses for elementary teachers in 24 normal schools and teachers colleges selected by a competent jury as representative of better practice in the education of teachers in different sections of the country.

These reports were two in number. The first asked for data on the academic and professional preparation in mathematics of the 37 different teachers offering courses in arithmetic in the cooperating schools. The second part was a detailed analysis of the content of the 51 courses for elementary teachers of arithmetic and included such items as: Clock-hours given to different types of courses and the number which teachers think should be given; instructional material used in the several courses; points of emphasis as revealed by distribution of time allotted to different topics; and the extent to which professional material was introduced as shown by a check-list of 450 topics and activities. This list contained samples of typical topics and activities and was used to procure the basic data for the analysis of courses in mathematics provided for elementary school teachers of arithmetic.

The needs of elementary teachers of arithmetic were determined from four sources:

1. An analysis of the questions and answers of approximately 19,000 candidates for the license to teach in the elementary schools of New York City. These examinations were in two parts—the first dealing with knowledge of arithmetic and ability to use arithmetical processes and the second part dealing with the teaching of arithmetic and the applications of psychological and educational principles.
2. Detailed accounts of 652 observations of the teaching of arithmetic in 28 different New York City schools and of 200 conferences with teachers held after their teaching had been observed.
3. Special arithmetic examination papers of 322 teachers employed in New York City and nearby suburban communities.
4. Studies reporting the teaching difficulties and subject-matter deficiencies of teachers of arithmetic in elementary schools.

A few of the more significant findings from this study are here presented under the principal headings of the investigation:

A. Difficulties which teachers have with the subject matter of arithmetic.—Elementary teachers as a whole are fairly proficient in the

manipulation of the mechanical processes of arithmetic but are significantly lacking in their knowledge of the fundamental principles of arithmetic which underlie the mechanical processes. This group lacks mathematical insight when confronted with mathematical situations varying from those of the textbook type.

B. Difficulties teachers have with methods of teaching arithmetic.—From the analysis of examination papers, observations of teaching and conferences following observations, it is evident that the teachers in this group failed to use many of the fundamental and accepted principles of effective teaching in their teaching of arithmetic. These teachers depended more upon special devices and prescribed methods of teaching than upon fundamental principles underlying the learning difficulties of children in this subject. There is little apparent application to the classroom situations of methods of teaching arithmetic as given in the better professional courses.

C. The professional training and experience of instructors of professional courses in arithmetic in the selected normal schools and teachers colleges.—The 37 teachers in this group whose professional courses were analyzed had met in almost all cases the requirements of a master's degree. However, the majority of the group received their bachelor's degrees from liberal arts colleges or universities on an average of nearly 13 years after graduating from high school, and the master's degree from a liberal arts college or university approximately 9 years after the bachelor's degree. These figures would indicate that these teachers have secured their professional preparation in most cases by a piecemeal process over an extended period of time. As a group these teachers of arithmetic had considerably less undergraduate and graduate work in mathematics courses than is true of the teachers of other mathematical subjects. The 37 teachers also had appreciably more teaching experience in high schools than in elementary grades. As a group they had had a median of nearly 12 years' teaching experience either in elementary or secondary schools.

D. Materials of instruction used in professional schools.—The median number of clock-hours given in the selected institutions to professional courses in arithmetic is in the neighborhood of 36 to 40 with the teachers of the courses suggesting that at least 50 percent more time should be given to these courses. The range of the number of hours given to the various professional courses in arithmetic indicates the probability that other factors than the needs of teachers in service determine the length of these courses. An analysis of the basic texts and other indices of the content of the professional courses would indicate that these courses are largely methods of teaching and review of elementary subject matter with very little emphasis upon new arithmetical material, supplementary material from other mathematical subjects, or professional units such as the history of arithmetic, the

recognition of learning difficulties, the use of diagnostic tests and remedial instruction.

E. *An analysis of the classroom activities of professional courses in arithmetic.*—In this section of the study the sample list of classroom activities was divided into the headings: Rational work, historical aspects, psychological aspects, sociological aspects, methods of teaching, materials of instruction, tests and measurements, curriculum studies, review work, and observation. The samples included in the check-list show the extent to which teachers of professional courses for arithmetic emphasized these professional units in their courses. The analysis of the check-list of activities compared with the analysis of 28 detailed syllabi of professional courses in arithmetic and an analysis of examination questions given in connection with these courses indicate that rational topics, application of psychology to the teaching of arithmetic, methods of teaching, and review of elementary school subject matter are the phases receiving the largest emphasis in these courses.

The general conclusions from the study are that the content of these courses is not sufficiently new to be challenging to students of collegiate maturity nor are the relationships between the professional units, the new subject matter, and the opportunities to do practice teaching in arithmetic close enough to secure an enriched teaching of arithmetic in the schools nor a satisfactory application of the fundamental principles of teaching and learning to this field.

THE STATUS OF TEACHERS OF SECONDARY MATHEMATICS IN THE UNITED STATES¹

At the meeting of the congress of mathematicians held in Geneva in 1928 it was decided to revive the work of the International Commission on the Teaching of Mathematics which was interrupted by the World War. This commission had planned to study the preparation of teachers of secondary school mathematics in the various countries. Dr. David Eugene Smith, professor emeritus of mathematics of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, was elected president of the commission, and Prof. E. R. Hedrick, of the University of California at Los Angeles, was appointed chairman of the American Committee to make the study for the United States. The American Committee consists of E. R. Hedrick, chairman; J. W. Young, W. D. Reeve, Ben W. Frazier, and Eva May Luse. After the death of Professor Young, Ben A. Suelz, professor of mathematics at the State Normal School, Cortland, N.Y., was made a member of the American Committee and entrusted with the direction of the study and the preparation of the report.

¹ This study was made by Ben. A. Suelz, professor of mathematics, State Normal School, Cortland, N.Y.

In the meantime, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers had secured data on the preparation and experience of almost half of the high-school teachers of mathematics in the United States. It was therefore decided to make available to the American Committee any data which the National Survey had obtained and to cooperate with it in the study. In this way it was possible to make a much more intensive and extensive study of this important group of teachers than was contemplated by the Survey. In addition to making available the data from the inquiry sent to all teachers, the Survey assisted in the collection of additional data on the preparation of secondary teachers of mathematics needed for the more detailed analysis.

Mr. Sultz stated that the final report on the status of teachers of mathematics involved the following phases:

1. Certain social and economic characteristics.
2. Certain characteristics of educational training.
3. Certain characteristics of the teaching job.
4. The experience of teachers.
5. The helpfulness of certain factors influencing teaching success.
6. Reasons why present teachers have become teachers of mathematics.
7. Reasons why present teachers did not study more academic mathematics.
8. Reasons for teaching certain courses in mathematics.
9. Professional magazines read by present teachers of mathematics.
10. State legislation relating to certification.
11. Formulation of some theses for education of teachers of mathematics.

The relationship (correlation) between some of the more important items was also studied. These items included training, experience, amount of work in mathematics, salary, amount of work in education, and similar items.

The present status of American teachers of secondary school mathematics was shown from data collected by inquiry no. 1 of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers and an additional supplementary questionnaire sent to the teachers of mathematics in the high schools of a selected number of cities representing a sample of all parts of the country and all sizes of cities. The very close agreement between the findings of comparable elements from the two samples of teachers indicates beyond question that the samples are adequate and that the figures are satisfactorily representative of American conditions. In addition to the picture of high-school teachers of mathematics that came from these two sources, the report contains an analysis of certification practices in the several American States with respect to teachers of mathematics and concludes with recommendations for improvements in the preparation of teachers of secondary mathematics and the certification of such teachers. Some

of the most interesting and important conclusions from this report have been selected for this summary.

A. Location, sex, age, experience, training, and teaching subjects.—From inquiry no. 1 it was ascertained that approximately 40 percent of these teachers are employed in small communities (less than 2,500 population) in schools employing between 10 and 14 teachers. More than half of these teachers are women. The median age of teachers of mathematics is in the upper twenties. Forty percent have had 5 or fewer years of experience, while 55 percent of them have done all their teaching in one or two school systems. Ninety-five percent of the mathematics teachers have had 4 or more years of college training, more than half of it obtained in private colleges and universities. High-school teachers of mathematics have obtained in the neighborhood of 20 semester-hours of credit in educational theory but, 20 percent of the group obtained no credit in practice teaching. The amount of college credit earned in the field of mathematics ranged from zero to more than 90 semester-hours with a central tendency between 20 and 25 semester-hours. Twenty-five percent of the group teach only mathematics while 61 percent teach mathematics and one other field. The subjects most commonly combined with mathematics for those who teach two or more subjects are the physical or biological sciences, social studies, and English. In general, the less-experienced teachers have earned more credit in the field of mathematics than the more-experienced ones.

B. Special training and professional equipment.—The data from the supplementary inquiry indicated the following facts, among others, concerning the special training and professional equipment of high-school teachers of mathematics. Almost all of the teachers studied elementary algebra and plane geometry in secondary schools. Some of the younger teachers had had newer courses, such as general mathematics and mathematical analysis. In general, the teachers of junior high school mathematics were less well prepared in the field of mathematics than were teachers in senior high schools. Approximately one-third of the junior high school teachers and more than half of the senior high school teachers studied college physics. A minority of the teachers had studied modern geometry and a small group of them had studied college geometry, which, in most cases, implies demonstrative geometry based upon Euclid's later extensions in the field. Approximately half of all teachers studied some course in the teaching of high-school mathematics.

More of the junior high school teachers of mathematics were recruited from elementary school teaching positions and had had more extended experience in the elementary school than was true of the senior high school group. Almost 65 percent of senior high-school teachers of mathematics had obtained 8 years of training

beyond the elementary school before doing any teaching, compared to 30 percent for the junior high school group. Less than 20 percent of each group had extended their training more than 2 years after beginning teaching and before entering their present positions. Teachers of mathematics voted that courses in academic college mathematics were more important to them as teachers than professional mathematics courses. The votes varied concerning the value of advanced courses in mathematics and courses in education, although more teachers reported a failure to benefit from courses in educational theory than did so for the advanced courses in mathematics. In both the junior and senior high school groups the professional course in the teaching of algebra was rated as definitely helpful by the largest percentage of teachers. The four courses in educational theory most frequently listed as helpful are: Psychology, principles of education, educational measurements including statistics, and methods of teaching, although more than 50 percent of those who had studied educational theory did not list any course in this field as being definitely helpful to them as teachers of mathematics. Approximately two-thirds of these teachers selected mathematics as a teaching field because they liked the subject. Other interesting data were obtained on the professional reading of these teachers and their attitudes toward certain changes in the reorganization of the traditional subject divisions of the field of mathematics.

C. Certification.—From the replies to the inquiry sent to State departments of education concerning the certification of secondary teachers of mathematics it appears that there are strong tendencies toward the centralization of certification authority in State departments, the elimination of examinations, and the prescription of required amounts of work in the field of mathematics. There is also a slight tendency toward the specification of certain courses in mathematics within the required amount. Thirty States in connection with their certification of teachers of mathematics require some form of apprentice or practice teaching.

D. Conclusions.—The last chapter of the report consists of the general conclusions from the study and Suelz's recommendations. To the extent that these have the approval of the American Committee they may be considered as representing the judgment of mathematics teachers in this country. The program is discussed in considerable detail in chapter V of the report and will not be reproduced here. A desirable sequence of subjects is proposed, covering a minimum of 32 semester-hours of college work for a college major in mathematics. Other specific recommendations are included in the last chapter.

STATE CONTROL OF TEACHER TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES*

It is now quite generally recognized that the States, by virtue of their responsibility for public education, are also responsible for determining what shall be taught in the schools and who shall teach it. In assuming this last responsibility the States have obtained the kinds of teachers they desired either by controlling the certification of teachers or by establishing State-supported institutions for the special purpose of preparing teachers for the public schools.

It is impossible to discuss improvements in the education of teachers without taking into consideration the State authorities, which must approve even if they do not promote the proposed improvements. Therefore it was desirable in connection with the National Survey of the Education of Teachers to know the methods by which each of the States exercised its control over the education of its teachers in order that proposals could be made in terms of existing administrative organizations. The study of this problem was conducted by Claude W. Street and his data were gathered with the needs of the National Survey of the Education of Teachers in mind. Data were obtained from:

1. The constitutional and statutory laws of the 48 States, relating to general educational organization and to the State agencies of teacher training and their control.
2. The surveys of State educational systems which have dealt with the problem of teacher training. Forty-six such studies covering 34 States were used.
3. Numerous other studies in the fields of education and American government which have touched upon various phases of the problem.
4. The check lists calling for judgments on some of the important questions concerning the State control of teacher training, which were filled out by 81 outstanding men representing three fields of educational administration as well as the field of American government.

Five fairly distinct methods for State control of teacher-preparation institutions were discovered from the data. These five forms or types were:

1. The type in which each of several State institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers is under the major control of its own separate board of trustees.

* This study was made by Claude W. Street, director of training, State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans., and published by the bureau of research, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans.

2. The type in which the several State institutions devoted exclusively to the professional preparation of teachers are under the control of a single board which does not have jurisdiction over the public-school system or other State institutions of higher learning.
3. The type in which all State institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers are under the major control of a board of higher education which does not have jurisdiction over the public-school system.
4. The type in which all State institutions devoted exclusively to the professional preparation of teachers are under the major control of a State board or department of education which has jurisdiction over the public-school system but does not control other institutions of higher learning.
5. The type in which all State institutions devoted exclusively to the professional preparation of teachers are under the control of a State board of education which has jurisdiction over the public-school system and also controls other State institutions of higher learning.

An analysis of the more common features of the five types of State control as found in the different States was made. The general composition of the boards under each type was also discussed together with certain legal aspects of the problem of State control. The desirability of the several types of control was determined by submitting the essential elements of each to a jury made up of outstanding men in four fields: (1) Officials in State and Federal offices of education; (2) authorities in educational administration and teacher preparation in college and university departments of education; (3) administrative officers in State teachers colleges and normal schools; and (4) authorities in American government.

This study was confined to the control of State institutions for the education of white teachers.*

Some of the more important conclusions and recommendations are repeated in this summary for the convenience of those who do not have the original study.

A. Analysis of the general features of the five types of State control of teacher training.—

1. The number of States employing each type of control at the present time is as follows: Type I, 9; type II, 9; type III, 7; type IV, 16, and type V, 3.

* A supplementary study of the methods of control of teacher-training institutions for Negro teachers has since been completed by Felton G. Clark, assistant professor of education, Howard University, Washington, D.C. This study may be procured from the bureau of publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

2. The need for some form of coordinated or integrated State control has come to be generally recognized as essential to the development of an efficient and economical program of teacher training.

3. The trend in types of control, during the past 2 decades, has been clearly in the direction of the more centralized forms of control, represented by types III, IV, and V.

4. The preponderance of evidence presented by State studies of the survey type has been favorable to control of the State teachers colleges by a strong State board of education (type IV), having jurisdiction over the public-school system, with a commissioner of education, chosen by the board, as its executive officer.

5. Evidence afforded by other educational literature and by authorities on American State government likewise supports a centralized form of control for the teacher-training function.

6. Evidence is not conclusive as to the most feasible method of coordinating the teacher-training work of State institutions, other than teachers colleges, with the rest of the educational system. There seems to be considerable support, however, for either the direct control of such institutions by the State board of education, or for some plan whereby the State board may serve as a coordinating agency for the teacher-training work without assuming full control of the institutions.

B. Composition and general organization of boards required under different types of State control of teacher training.—

1. Boards of all kinds should consist of an odd number of members—preferably 7 or 9.

2. The term of office for board members should be fairly long, from 6 to 9 years. The terms should overlap in such a way that not more than 1 or 2 end simultaneously.

3. The appointment of board members should be vested in the governor, who should be given a free hand in the selection of appointees who are best qualified for board membership and should not be restricted by legal requirements as to age, sex, residence, occupation, or political affiliation. There should be no ex-officio members, except the chief school officer, who should probably serve on boards of which he is not the executive officer.

C. Legal aspects of the problem of State control of teacher training.—

1. The State constitution should make it the duty of the legislature to establish and maintain a complete system of public education. It should not prescribe the form of organization nor the governmental framework for the State educational system, but should invest the legislature with full jurisdiction in such matters.

2. The statutory code should determine the general policy of the State in education and the form of organization for educational administration, and also should provide the necessary agencies for administration.

3. In establishing educational boards the law should confer upon them broad general powers, giving them wide discretionary jurisdiction and the necessary authority in carrying out the purposes for which they were constituted.

D. Judgment of the jury on certain features of State control of teacher training.—

1. A marked majority of the jurors (69.1 percent) favored centralized control of teacher-training institutions and that control in the hands of the State board of education.

2. Two-fifths of the jurors (39.5 percent) voted to have the State university also controlled by the State board of education.

Some of the other opinions of the jury are reflected in the list of recommendations with which Street concludes his study.

*E. General recommendations.—*Some of the final conclusions were

The provision of an effective plan for the control of teacher training in any State is dependent upon having a properly constituted State organization for the general administration of education.

A specialist in the administration of teacher training should be employed as director of teacher preparation to serve as an assistant to the commissioner of education. In cooperation with the heads of the teacher-training institutions, and members or committees of the faculty, the director should carry on research studies relating to various problems of teacher training.

The State board of education should be given direct control over all State institutions provided especially for the preparation of teachers.

The State board of education should also be vested with general supervision over teacher-training work of other State and private institutions in a sufficient degree to bring about a well-coordinated or integrated State program of teacher training based upon the needs of the State. Such supervision should be broad in scope and based upon leadership of the highest type. It must not be of the petty or arbitrary sort which tends to interfere unnecessarily with local initiative and to reduce everything to dead uniformity.

Whatever the general type of control, provision should be made for conferences of the chief school officer and the executive heads, presidents or deans of education, of all State institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers, for the consideration of general policies relating to teacher training.

Under a unified plan of control, such as that outlined above, conditions should be favorable for the development of an efficient and economical program of teacher training. Much depends, however, upon the character of the men appointed to the board, and upon the ability and leadership of the commissioner of education.