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OF THE

National Education Association

Practices Affecting Teacher Personnel

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Director of Research: John K. Norton
Assistant Directors of Research: Margaret M. Alltucker; Frank W. Hubbard.
Executive and Editorial Offices - - 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

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FOREWORD

There are few more encouraging signs upon the educational horizon than the new attitude which an increasing number of communities are taking toward the development of their teaching staffs. New York, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh—these are but a few of the cities which have recently fundamentally re-examined the principles and policies governing the recruiting, compensation, and retirement of their teaching personnel. Representative citizens committees, teachers organizations, and boards of education in each of these cities have cooperated in financing studies and in securing expressions of community sentiment needed for intelligent action on these matters. Thus the guaranteeing of a capable teacher for every classroom is being elevated to its rightful place as a major community issue.

It is to encourage and assist this movement that this Bulletin has been prepared. It presents in brief scope material bearing upon practical problems relating to the development of efficient teaching staffs. The topics dealt with are those most frequently inquired about in letters addressed to the Research Division by those in the field. The material presented should be of great value to the increasing number of college specialists who are working in this field, as well as to school executives who are striving to make their methods of administering teacher personnel more scientific.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*
National Education Association.

Introduction

This Bulletin presents material pertinent to the study of a number of practical problems concerned with the management of teacher personnel. Letters reaching the Research Division from superintendents, principals, teachers and other school people over a period of approximately a year offered the basis for decision as to what topics should be dealt with. These letters were studied as to the frequency of requests for information on all problems of personnel administration. Questions which were the subject of frequent inquiry were selected for study.

The questionnaire reproduced on pages 250 to 253 was circulated to obtain information as to present practise on these various topics. This questionnaire should be consulted in interpreting the tabulations of the succeeding sections. It was sent to all school systems of the 2880 cities over 2500 in population. A total of 1532 usable replies were received as follows:

Population group	Number of cities according to 1920 census	Cities replying	
		No.	Percent
Over 100,000.	67	66	98.5
30,000 to 100,000.	181	161	89.0
10,000 to 30,000.	511	326	63.8
5,000 to 10,000.	738	397	53.8
2,500 to 5,000.	1,383	582	42.1
Totals.	2,880	1,532	53.2

Every reasonable effort was used to make the preparation and circulation of this inquiry accord with the best procedure in such projects. The tabulations and conclusions based upon the replies received, however, are doubtless affected by the inherent shortcomings of the questionnaire method of investigation.

Practically all cities in the over 100,000, and the 30,000 to 100,000 population groups replied, and a representative number of the smaller cities responded. It is not believed that factors of selection entered to affect the general indications of the tabulations. The data given may be accepted as representative for all population groups.

The Bulletin does not attempt to state complete or final conclusions concerning any of the personnel problems dealt with. Any one of these administrative procedures might alone furnish a suitable subject for a study considerably longer than this whole Bulletin, and still leave much unsettled.

The whole field of teacher personnel has been relatively neglected by students of education. The problems of this field deserve a far larger share of the attention of scientific workers in education than they have received in the past. Experience in dealing with most of the teacher personnel practices touched upon in this study has been too brief to furnish a sure guide. These conditions call for an open mind as to all of these practices. Further scientific investigation, longer and more carefully evaluated experience are necessary before we can approach definite conclusions as to their ultimate effect on school efficiency.

But in the meantime school keeps. Superintendents of schools and teachers' associations are making decisions. It is better that they be made in the light of the best information available, meager though it may be.

It is to supply such information that this issue of the Research Bulletin has been prepared. It aims to do the following for each personnel practice dealt with:

1. Briefly sum up what is believed to be the best available opinion pro and con as to the practice and the issues involved.
2. Present up-to-date and representative data indicative of the extent and trend of the practice.
3. Cite a few of the most pertinent references in which further information may be obtained.

While such information is generally a better guide to those required to make immediate decisions than individual opinion, it is well to have the following advice of Judd and Buswell in mind:

It is often the highest exhibition of wisdom to depart from the traditional practices and certainly from the median of many discordant practices of school systems which are controlled by wholly different ideas of what education is and ought to be.¹

¹ C. H. Judd and G. T. Buswell. *Summary of Educational Investigations Relating to Arithmetic*. The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, 1925, p. 22.

Salary Scheduling

The expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools in the United States for the school year 1927-28 were close to \$2,100,000,000. Approximately \$1,155,000,000 or fifty-five percent of this sum was for the payment of salaries of professional school employees. The amount expended for this item represents a national investment of major importance. The returns expected are of the greatest significance to the nation's future welfare. It is these considerations which justify the attention school executives have given in recent years to the development of sound procedures in administering school pay-rolls.

The science of salary scheduling is still far from perfected. Recent years, however, have brought decided progress in the development of the principles and technics which should be employed in the intelligent scheduling of salaries. This section will point out sources of information for those who would have their salary scheduling accord with the best theory and practice.

General principles of scheduling. Those seeking general statements of the principles to be observed in fixing salary schedules will find considerable material available. Evenden's pioneer study has had a wide influence particularly in encouraging the development of the "single" salary schedule idea.¹ Cubberley gives a statement in his *State School Administration*.² Moehlman deals with the problem in Chapter IX of his *Public School Finance*.³ "The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries," an issue of the *Research Bulletin*, suggests a number of bases for fixing salary rates.⁴ Other statements covering general and specific phases of the problem of salary scheduling will be discovered by consulting the annotated bibliography beginning on page 181 of the last named reference.

Application of principles. During recent years a number of school systems have applied the newer procedures in revising their salary schedules. The salary investigations in Cin-

cinnati and New York are cited as examples.⁵ The approaches to the scheduling problem used by these and other cities are worthy of study.

A comprehensive investigation of the teacher salary situation in Pittsburgh is now under way. The results, to be available during 1928-29, will doubtless deserve close scrutiny.

It is significant that one progressive city after another is rejecting the old assumption that the scheduling of teachers' salaries is purely a matter of teacher concern. It is being replaced by the assumption which looks upon the question as one of general concern. When a community fixes teachers' salary rates and states the rules governing the payment of the same, it thereby determines to a large degree the amount of preparation and personal ability which its teachers will possess. The immediate welfare of the children and the future welfare of the whole community are involved.

Accordingly, several school systems have approached the problem of salary scheduling by organizing a committee made up of representative laymen to cooperate with the school board and teachers in studying the problem. Experts have been employed and adequately financed to collect the data necessary to an intelligent handling of this important community problem. This was the procedure in New York, Pittsburgh and several other communities.

Sources of salary data. Definite figures as to salaries paid teachers in representative communities and other statistical information are needed in careful salary studies.

The salary information service of the Research Division of the National Education Association is equipped to furnish much of the information needed. Biennially, inquiry blanks are sent to all city school systems to obtain figures as to salaries paid teachers, principals, executives and other school employees. The results are promptly sum-

¹ Reference No. 3, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

² Reference No. 2, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

³ Reference No. 6, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

⁴ Reference No. 8, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

⁵ References Nos. 1 and 4, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

marized and issued as a number of the *Research Bulletin*.¹ The study for 1926-1927 was based on a report for 295,063 employees in 1435 school systems, including most of the larger cities.

In addition to the summary report in the *Research Bulletin*, a series of ten Special Salary Tabulations² present information for individual cities. There are two sets of tables for cities of each of five population classes³—one for teachers, principals and other employees; and one for general supervisory and administrative officers. These tables give the following data for the various groups in each city: Median salaries for alternate years since 1923; and for the current year, minimum and maximum salaries; number of increments; number of employees reported; and a distribution of salaries paid.

During 1927-28, this being the alternate year, no comprehensive investigation of salaries was conducted. One brief investigation was made during this year to ascertain the trend of salaries between 1926-1927 and 1927-1928, for cities over 10,000 in population. Summarized results of this study are presented in Table 1. The complete results, giving data for individual cities, may be obtained by addressing the Research Division of the National Education Association, indicating the population of the city and requesting a copy of: *Public School Salary Revisions in 1927-1928*. A study of the document just named justifies these conclusions:

1. During 1927-1928, the great majority (approximately 78 percent) of cities of over

10,000 in population made no changes in their salary schedules, other than granting the regular scheduled increases.

2. Approximately twenty percent of cities over 10,000 in population revised their schedules during 1927-1928.

3. Of the small percent of cities revising their schedules during 1927-1928, the majority adopted schedules paying higher rather than lower salaries.

Since there were relatively few changes in salary schedules during 1927-1928, the Special Salary Tabulations for 1926-1927 should furnish data as to salaries paid, satisfactory for most purposes, until the 1928-1929 study is available.

The U. S. Bureau of Education recently issued a mimeographed circular giving maximum and minimum salaries paid various groups of classroom teachers in 1927-1928.⁴ The Bureau is now conducting a study of salaries of teachers in rural schools.

During 1928-1929 the Research Division will conduct its regular biennial salary study, collecting data as to salaries paid in that year. Blanks will be sent to cities early in the fall of 1928. Replies will be tabulated promptly, and the figures for 1928-1929 will be summarized in a number of the *Research Bulletin*. Complete data for individual cities will again be issued in the form of Special Salary Tabulations. This Bulletin and the tabulations will not be available before the spring of 1929.

Other statistical information. Data as to the trend of the cost of living and the stand-

¹ Reference No. 7, cited on page 212 of this bulletin, presents the results for the 1926-1927 salary study.

² Consult page 191 of reference No. 8, cited on page 212 of this bulletin, for information as to the cost and makeup of these Special Tabulations, and see reference No. 9, cited on page 212 for a further description of the contents of these tables.

³ Cities with populations of 100,000 and over; 30,000 to 100,000; 10,000 to 30,000; 5000 to 10,000; 2500 to 5000.

⁴ U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, City School Circular No. 5, May, 1928. Washington, D. C.

TABLE 1—THE TREND OF SALARY SCHEDULE REVISIONS IN 1927-1928

Population of cities	Number of cities:					Unclassified replies	Total number of cities replying
	Receiving inquiry blank	Reporting same salary schedule in 1926-1927 and 1927-1928		Reporting change in schedule during 1927-1928			
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent		
Over 100,000.....	59	35	64	19	35	1	55
30,000 to 100,000.....	147	101	80	23	18	3	127
10,000 to 30,000.....	298	197	81	43	14	4	244
Total.....	504	333	78	85	20	8	426

ard of living, as to the purchasing power of the dollar, as to the incomes of other economic groups, and other statistical information are essential to an adequate study of teachers' salaries. Sources of such data and suggestions as to their use are given in a recent issue of the *Research Bulletin*.¹ If this Bulletin does not supply the information needed, a letter should be addressed to the National Education Association, definitely indicating what is desired.² The Research Division keeps in touch with the best sources for reliable data bearing on teacher salary problems. The following selected bibliography indicates some of the references to be consulted preliminary to undertaking an investigation of teachers' salaries.

Selected Bibliography

1. CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS, *Report of Committee on the Study of Salaries*. Cincinnati, Ohio, May 24, 1926. 78 p.

Presents data for Cincinnati on basic factors of salary schedule construction.

2. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P., *State School Administration*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1927. 773 p.

See, "The Pay of Teachers," p. 651-8, for succinct discussion of bases for determining salary schedules.

3. EVENDEN, E. S., *Teachers Salaries and Salary Schedules in the United States, 1918-19*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 1919. 169 p.

The section beginning on p. 131, "Elements To Be Considered In Making Salary Schedules," has been widely consulted and was largely responsible for the initiation of the "single" salary schedule movement.

4. MCGAUGHY, JAMES R. and OTHERS, *Teachers' Salaries in New York City*. Final Report of Citizens Committee on Teachers' Salaries. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927. 256 p.

Presents results of application of principles of salary scheduling to a specific situation.

5. MEEKER, ROYAL, *A Study of Costs and Standards of Living of Minneapolis Teachers in Relation to their Salaries*. Central Commit-

tee of Teachers Associations, Minneapolis, Minnesota, September, 1926. 39 p.

An analysis of the cost and standard of living of 649 Minneapolis teachers and school nurses based on data for average salaries, expenditures, training, number of dependents, and position held.

6. MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B., *Public School Finance*. Rand, McNally Company, New York City, 1927. 508 p.

See p. 121-54 for discussion of principles of scheduling and types of schedules in use.

7. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "Salaries in City School Systems, 1926-27." *Research Bulletin*, 5:65-128; March, 1927. Washington, D. C.

Summarizes figures as to salaries paid 295,063 teachers, principals, administrative and supervisory officers and other school employees in 1435 city school systems.

8. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION, "The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries." *Research Bulletin*, 5:130-92; May, 1927. Washington, D. C.

Deals with nation's ability to pay teachers a professional wage, the economic position of teachers, and guides to salary scheduling. Extensive annotated bibliography of recent material on teachers' salaries.

9. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION, *Special Salary Tabulations*. Washington, D. C., 1927.

Tabulations giving by individual cities distributions of salaries paid 295,063 city school employees in 1926-27. Two sets of tabulations for each of five population groups, one for teachers, principals and certain other school employees; and one for administrative and supervisory officers. These tables, prepared for the convenience of those wishing to make special salary studies, are available at \$5.00 per set. Similar tables, for the school year 1928-29, will be available in 1929.

10. NORTON, JOHN K., "Teachers Salaries." *Journal of the National Education Association* 7:27-8, 55, 85, 115, 149; January to May inclusive, 1928. Washington, D. C.

Five brief articles tracing the major trends of teachers salaries under the titles: Teachers Salaries Before the War; Teachers Salary Trends Since 1913; Teachers Salaries—Present Position; Teachers Salaries—The Future; and Teachers Salaries—A Constructive Program.

¹ Reference No. 8, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

² Reference No. 10, cited on page 212 of this bulletin should also be consulted.

Requirements Affecting Appointment, Retention and Promotion of Teachers

Training Requirements for Beginning Teachers

When the work of a group is developed until its successful performance requires knowledge and skill of a high order, that service becomes of peculiar significance to the general public. Therefore, to protect its own welfare, society sets up barriers which prevent admission to this work of those who are unprepared for it.

We now examine with extreme care the qualifications of those who would practice as physicians. In most states those who would enter the legal profession must meet special requirements as to character and professional training. Society has similarly protected itself in many other forms of professional service.

In our early history, in spite of the urgings of such leaders as Washington and Jefferson, teaching service was placed on a very low plane. An editorial which appeared in a colonial newspaper about the time of the Declaration of Independence is representative of the general attitude. This editorial contained this paragraph:

Now for school masters. In the Ship *Paca* arrived at Baltimore in five weeks from Belfast and Cork are imported and advertised for sale in the Maryland Journal various Irish commodities, among which are school masters, beef, pork and potatoes.

As teaching has developed toward becoming a skilled service based on a body of exact and tested knowledge, and as society has better realized the vital significance to individual and general welfare of the influences under which the child develops, specifications have been stated as to who may teach. Pork and potatoes and teaching service are no longer looked upon as commodities of similar importance, even in our least progressive states.

Several states have already made high school graduation and two years of professional training the minimum requirement

for full certification for teaching. The number of states which have no definite training requirement for admission to teaching is now less than 15, and is rapidly being reduced.¹ In addition to the certificate for classroom teaching, some states are requiring special qualifications for admission to administrative and other specialized forms of service in the field of education.²

Necessity of training recognized. It is now generally agreed that certification requirements designed to protect children from unprepared teachers should be enacted by all states and local communities. Robinson sums up the situation as follows:

Just as people are unwilling to ask legal advice of those who have not studied law and passed the bar examinations, or to have their bodies treated by doctors without thorough medical training, they should be unwilling to employ anyone as a teacher who is not specifically trained to nurture the minds and characters of their children.

The theory formerly held that anyone can teach any subject has been exploded. More and more, teachers are selected with particular consideration to their personal fitness and their special training for the subjects to be taught.³

Lewis expresses a similar viewpoint as follows:

Teaching, if it is to be skilled and no other kind should be acceptable, demands a trained, experienced, and competent teaching personnel. The product of the public school will in many cases continue to be disappointing until our children are instructed by teachers properly qualified for this important service. Making good citizens is a skilled service and cannot be performed by unskilled workers.⁴

Buckingham states the factors which have created the demand for trained teachers thus:

The modern demands of society and of civilization require an everlengthening and intensive period of training for children and young people. Longer and longer grows the period of infancy—the period of dependence of the human child on

¹ Page 16 of reference No. 3, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

² See reference No. 7, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

³ Page 59 of reference No. 9, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

⁴ Page 33 of reference No. 6, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

adult guidance. Of supreme importance, therefore, it is, that there be at the service of society as the teachers of its dependents, men and women of first rate intellect, morals and skill.¹

A few, however, would qualify the generally accepted views stated above. Dillard fears an overemphasis on professional teacher training will result in a standardized teacher lacking originality and initiative. He recalls the time when:

. . . teaching was hardly thought of as a profession. Young men and women and older men and women took it up to make a living or an extra penny when nothing better seemed at hand. Any plan of professional preparation, as for law or medicine, was nowhere in the landscape, nor even on the horizon. . . . While the thing we call personality cuts a figure in whatever anyone does, it is in teaching that personality cuts deepest. . . . All of us know personally numbers of fine teachers who have not had professional training. . . . And yet, of course teaching has become a profession. As such it demands some professional preparation. Not however so very much. It is easily overdone. It can easily fall into the vice of killing originality and making molds.²

Champlin, however, has no fears that we will overtrain our teachers. He states:

the claim . . . that the professional training of teachers is easily overdone and that it destroys originality and individuality is hardly borne out by the facts. Most of us would have to search for a pretty long time to discover any actual case of an overtrained public school teacher and those in a position to observe most widely will testify that the most thoroughly prepared in pedagogy for classroom work are the very ones who possess the greatest amount of adaptability, resourcefulness and spontaneity in the daily round of instructional responsibilities. . . . The professional preparation of public school teachers has been so conspicuously underdone in past generations that it is inopportune to condemn the present program and premature to indict the leaders who so loyally and zealously seek to elevate the professional standards of the several hundreds of thousands now engaged in some form of teaching employment.³

The desirable minimum training. There is rather complete unanimity that beginning elementary teachers should have not less than two years, and that beginning high school teachers should have not less than four years,

of preparation for teaching beyond high school graduation.

The right of the state to prescribe desirable minimum standards of professional training is upheld by Buckingham:

There are those who, for selfish reasons, want entrance into teaching made easy. They regard it as their "right" to become teachers or to have their relatives and friends become teachers. There is no right in the matter except the right acquired by paying the price of competency. The state has rights, the community has rights, the children have rights . . . and one of the rights of the state—in this case acting for the community and the child as well as for itself—is to say what kind of teachers it wants in the schools. . . . This is one of its inherent rights, one of the rights which no individual may infringe. . . . The school does not exist to furnish jobs for anybody.⁴

Cubberley vigorously advocates such a minimum as follows:

For present-day city school work, graduation from a good high school with a good two-year normal course in addition is not too high a standard to insist upon from elementary school teachers. . . . also graduation from a good college or university with special preparation in some line or lines of secondary school instruction and some professional study in addition is not too much to demand of teachers for the high school. With the recent multiplication of good normal schools in our different American states, the increase in the number of colleges offering both academic and professional education and the increasing percentage of trained teachers it has become relatively easy for a city which has anything like a satisfactory salary schedule to make and to enforce such demands.⁵

Lewis argues for a similar minimum standard:

A reasonable minimum standard for teachers in kindergarten and in grades one to six—would be graduation from a two-year normal school after graduation from a four-year high school. This standard is already adopted in many cities and partially if not completely attained—the standard for high-school teaching is already graduation from college. Often from one-half to one full year of graduate work is also required of high-school teachers. The rapid growth of junior high schools is resulting in the gradual introduction of college-trained teachers in the seventh and eighth grades.⁶

¹ Pages 3 and 4 of reference No. 2, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

² Page 226 of reference No. 4, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

³ Page 58 of reference No. 6, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

⁴ Dillard, J. H., "What Is Teacher Training?" *School and Society*, 25: 406, April 2, 1927.

⁵ Champlin, Carroll D., "What Teacher Training Is." *School and Society*, 25: 572-3, May 14, 1927.

⁶ Pages 155-6 of reference No. 2, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

Myers sums up the consensus of opinion on this point as follows:

The day has passed in American education when it was necessary to try to prove that one year of training beyond the high school was an insufficient amount of training for teachers. No important recommendation or proposal regarding training requirements for teaching has been made within the last ten years which contemplated a minimum training of less than two years beyond the high school for elementary teachers and four years for high-school teachers.¹

There are those who maintain that the minimum standards advocated in the preceding paragraphs are insufficient. Robinson, doubtless familiar with the fact that some states already have passed measures requiring three and four years for graduation from the training course for elementary school teachers, states:

It requires no prophet to predict that within the next ten years most of the leadership in elementary education will have shifted to the persons whose professional preparation represents the equivalent of the standard or four-year college curriculum.²

Elsewhere Robinson states four reasons why training of beginning teachers should be increased:

1. As society advances and becomes more complex, a broader educational background is demanded before specialization begins. More time for acquaintance and interpretation is needed than when civilization was less developed and less complex.
2. During the past quarter of a century the sciences dealing with the physical and mental make-up of the child have developed at an unprecedented rate. The science of education has added much technical information that is needed by the prospective teacher. This vast amount of information is now available in suitable form for the teacher's guidance and makes a legitimate claim to a place in the normal school curriculum.
3. The application of such principles of philosophy as "one learns to do by doing," demands more observations, participations, conferences and teaching by the prospective teacher than heretofore. The addition of one or two years to the course allows for more of this type of laboratory work in normal school curriculums.

4. More liberalizing subject matter is being introduced into the training courses. These courses are designed to lead students to the everwidening circle of related subject matter more "advanced" in character and thus to awaken and promote the broadening of their intellectual horizon. This in turn will be passed on to pupils through richer teaching.³

It is probably such considerations which lead Buckingham to contend that the two-year course is insufficient, although it may be a step toward something better. He states that four years of training is now customarily thought of as a minimum for induction into a truly professional career. Therefore, he believes that: *

The goal should be a four-year course for every teacher; and this goal should not be a visionary one. It should at this moment form part of the definite plans of our educational leaders; its realization should be anticipated at an early date.⁴

Almack is less certain as to the desirability of requiring more than a two-year minimum training period for new teachers. While maintaining that he does not oppose four years of college training for elementary teachers, he contends that:

... we have no conclusive evidence that it is worth while to extend the training period this far. It is better to set down a reasonable standard—say two years—leaving it to the future to increase this minimum in the light of experience and investigation.⁵

The practice in city school systems. From the preceding theoretical statements we may go to practice as it now exists. The cities with their higher salary schedules maintain the higher standards for admission to teaching. Table 2 summarizes the professional training requirements for new appointees to the teaching staff in over 1500 cities. A survey of this table reveals these facts for the cities reporting:

1. Only seven percent of cities will appoint new elementary school teachers with less than two years of training beyond high school.
2. Practically all cities require at least two years, and a considerable percent already spec-

¹ Myers, Alonzo Franklin, *A Teacher-Training Program for Ohio*, Contributions to Education No. 266, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927, p. 108.

² Page 7 of reference No. 8, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

³ Page 59 of reference No. 9, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

⁴ Page 154 of reference No. 2, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

⁵ Page 23 of reference No. 1, cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

ify three and four years, of professional training for qualification as junior high school teachers. This accords with the conclusion of the Fifth Yearbook.¹

3. At least four years of training is now generally required for admission to high school teaching; some cities already require five years.²

A study of the questionnaires upon which Table 2 is based suggests that the figures given understate the requirements for admission for

teaching. In replying, several cities stated that whereas officially two years of professional training was required for elementary school teaching, in practice they appointed practically no new elementary school teachers who did not have three and in some cases four years training. Similarly some cities have officially set four years of training as the minimum for high school teachers, but in practice employ few for this work with less than a master's degree or equivalent.

¹ National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *The Junior High School Curriculum*, Fifth Yearbook, Chapter V, "The Junior High School Teacher," pp. 55 and 56.

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, *The Development of the High School Curriculum*, Sixth Yearbook, p. 280.

TABLE 2.—EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF NEWLY APPOINTED TEACHERS

Number of years training required beyond high school graduation	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Elementary schools:												
One year.....	2	3.0	2	1.2	23	7.1	26	6.5	54	9.3	107	7.0
Two years.....	49	74.2	136	84.5	255	78.2	314	79.1	435 ⁷	74.7	1,189	77.6
Three years.....	11	16.7	17	10.6	37	11.4	34	8.6	57	9.8	156	10.2
Four years.....			3	1.9			6	1.5	8	1.4	17	1.1
Five years.....							1	.3	1	.2	2	.1
No specified amount.....			2	1.2	5	1.5	2	.5	4	.7	13	.9
No report.....	4	6.1	1	.6	6	1.8	14	3.5	23	3.9	48	3.1
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Junior high schools:												
One year.....	1	1.5	1	.6	12	3.7	8	2.0	18	3.1	40	2.6
Two years.....	11 ¹	16.7	42 ³	26.1	90 ⁴	27.6	144 ⁵	36.3	183	31.4	470	30.7
Three years.....	12 ²	18.2	27	16.8	69	21.2	87 ⁶	21.9	107 ⁸	18.4	302	19.7
Four years.....	26	39.4	61	37.9	85	26.1	67	16.9	119	20.5	358	23.4
Five years.....			1	.6	1	.3	2	.5	1	.2	5	.3
No specified amount.....			1	.6	2	.6	2	.5	3	.5	8	.5
No report ⁹	16	24.2	28	17.4	67	20.5	87	21.9	151	25.9	349	22.8
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Senior high schools:												
One year.....	1	1.5	1	.6	12	3.7	7	1.8	17	2.9	38	2.5
Two years.....	4	6.1	6	3.8	13	4.0	17	4.3	24	4.2	64	4.2
Three years.....	1	1.5			4	1.2	2	.5	3	.5	10	.6
Four years.....	52	78.7	140	87.0	264	81.0	325	81.8	451	77.5	1,232	80.4
Five years.....	4	6.1	7	4.3	14	4.3	10	2.5	13	2.2	48	3.1
No specified amount.....					2	.6	2	.5	3	.5	7	.5
No report.....	4	6.1	7	4.3	17	5.2	34	8.6	71	12.2	133	8.7
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population replying, 2, or 3.0 percent, require one year's training beyond high school graduation as the minimum educational qualification of newly appointed elementary teachers, 49, or 74.2 percent, require 2 years beyond high school graduation, etc. Similarly read data for other teacher and population groups.

This tabulation is based on the replies to question 1 of the inquiry blank reproduced on page 250

Footnotes:

¹ One of these cities requires 2 years in 6 and 7 grade, and 4 years in 8 grade; and one city requires 2 years in 7 and 8 grade, and 4 years in 9 grade.

² One of these cities requires 3 years in 7 and 8 grade, and 4 years in 9 grade.

³ Two of these cities require 2 years in 7 and 8 grade, and 4 years in 9 grade; and one city requires 2 years in elementary subjects and 4 years in high school subjects.

⁴ Three of these cities require 2 years in 7 and 8 grade, and 4 years in 9 grade; and one city requires 3 years in 8 grade and 4 years in 9 grade.

⁵ Six of these 144 cities require two years in 7 and 8 grade, and 4 years in 9 grade.

⁶ One of these 87 cities requires 3 years in 7 and 8 grade and 4 years in 9 grade.

⁷ Two cities require 1 year of successful teaching beyond 2 years training.

⁸ One city requires 2 years experience beyond 3 years training.

⁹ Most of the cities not reporting as to requirements for junior high school teachers have not established such schools.

If present practice, and the tendency of development in city school systems may be accepted as having predictive value, it appears that we are approaching with relative rapidity the time when, in cities at least, the minimum requirements for newly appointed teachers in elementary schools will be not less than four, and in high schools not less than five years of training.

Needs for research. Opinion based upon mature experience and common practice constitute the best guide which we have on this issue to date. As yet research has little conclusive evidence to offer to aid those responsible for determining the particular amount or kind of preparation most desirable for teaching. The attempts at scientific work in this field are encouraging and should in time offer results of significance to those concerned with both pre-service and in-service training of teachers.

Selected References

1. ALMACK, J. C. AND LANG, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1925. See Chapter II. "Professional Training of Teachers." pp. 19-37.
Requirements for entrance to the teaching profession and the present status of teacher training in relation to minimum standards set up are discussed in this chapter. Recommends improvement in kind of training offered before attempt is made to extend training requirements beyond minimum standards now generally recognized as desirable.
2. BUCKINGHAM, B. R. *Supply and Demand in Teacher Training*. Ohio State University Studies, Vol. 2, No. 15, Bureau of Educational Research, Monograph No. 4. Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, March 15, 1926. 182 p.
A study of teacher-training in Ohio. Seeks to furnish information essential to the bringing about of a closer relationship between the state's supply of, and demand for trained teachers. Urges continuous study of this problem. Offers recommendations for improving Ohio teacher training program.
3. COOK, KATHERINE M. *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates*. U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1927. No. 19, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 296 p.
A study of progress made in the 48 states in improving state laws and regulations governing the certification of teachers. Tendencies toward centralization of power in the state and the development of higher scholarship requirements are revealed.

4. CUBBERLEY, ELWOOD P. *Public School Administration*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1922. pp. 225-37.

Deals with the improvement of the teaching corps by means of establishing higher standards of professional and academic preparation, and better methods of training and selecting teachers. Names standards of preparation which must be required to insure efficient teaching in the elementary and high schools.

5. EIKENBERRY, DAN H. *Status of the High School Principal*. U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1925, No. 24, pp. 36-39. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Quotes provisions of statutes and State Board of Education regulations governing requirements for the high school principalship in seven states. Finds college graduation to be the requirement most commonly made by local boards.

6. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. Century Co., New York City, 1925. Chapters III and IV. pp. 32-71.

The problems of the city superintendent in securing a staff of satisfactorily trained teachers are considered. Gives data on shortage of trained teachers and discusses the importance of training and the amount and kinds of training which should be demanded of the beginning teacher.

7. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "State Certification of Elementary School Principals," Seventh Yearbook, *Bulletin 7*: 391-401; April, 1928.

Lists states reporting no special certification requirements for the elementary school principalship. Presents a tabulation of special certificates issued by eleven states.

8. ROBINSON, WILLIAM MCKINLEY. *Preparation of Teachers*. U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1927, No. 36. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 34 p.

Advance sheets from Biennial Survey of Education, 1924-26. Presents data on status of and progress in the professional preparation of teachers based on reports from state superintendents of education, teacher training institutions, and department of education in colleges and universities.

9. ROBINSON, WILLIAM MCKINLEY. Shall Untrained Persons Be Employed to Teach Our Children?" *School Life*, 11:59; November, 1925.

Emphasizes the importance of the teaching service and compares teaching with other learned professions. Names four reasons for increasing rather than diminishing the period of time devoted to the pre-service preparation of teachers in the public schools.

Married Women As Teachers

Should married women be employed as new teachers? Should single women teachers who marry be allowed to continue to teach? These questions have been the subject of much discussion and some research.

Opinion divided. Opinion is widely divided on these questions. Lewis lists 31 relatively distinct arguments for, and 31 against the employment of married teachers.¹ The *American Educational Digest*² recently presented a general survey of opinion on the question, based upon 954 replies to a questionnaire by school superintendents. Many viewpoints were expressed. One superintendent stated:

I would not employ married women because I am old-fashioned enough to think that, when a woman marries, she should make a home, but as far as efficiency is concerned, I have found little difference.

Another superintendent declared:

Married women do little if any outside preparation, never attend summer schools, and dislike teachers meetings, as supper is likely to be late. Their children are neglected. One kept roomers and boarders. Most of this type were cleared out when the rule was adopted against employing married teachers.

The viewpoint of other school executives is expressed by this quotation:

The only question is, have married women been able to render efficient service? We have found them, if anything, more stable and equally efficient, in many cases superior. We make no distinction whatever between single and married women and see no reason why any distinction should be made.

Arguments against employment of married women as teachers. Lewis³ has classified the arguments frequently advanced against employing married women as teachers under three heads, as follows:

The first is the public bounty fallacy. Many laymen still hold that tax-paid positions belong to the needy citizens. A married woman presumably has a means of support. An unmarried woman has none. The second reason is that it is

the first business of a married woman to look after her home, and this duty is considered impossible of proper fulfillment if the woman teaches. The third reason is often given by superintendents. They argue that married women are home talent and are harder to handle as one often has to handle the whole family and sometimes many of the relatives and friends. It is expedient, therefore, to rule against all married women as a class rather than to deal with each case on its merits.

Arguments in favor of employing married women teachers. Those who support the policy of employing married women as teachers begin by rejecting the arguments usually advanced against the policy as largely irrelevant and appeal to a more vital consideration.

They contend that school boards should constantly strive to attract and retain efficient, and to eliminate inefficient teachers, and that this principle should be applied with impartiality to all teachers, both married and unmarried.

An article in a recent issue of *Harper's*, "Blue Laws for School Teachers," sees this question as a part of a larger one. The viewpoint expressed is as follows:

It is surprising that so little has been said in defense of the school teacher and her right to live her own life. For it is a lamentable fact that in any number of communities the public school teacher no more dares call her soul her own out of the schoolroom than she does in it. If she dresses too youthful, if she has too many "dates," . . . in short, if her social behavior is at all out of the ordinary, she lays herself open to censure, or perhaps even dismissal when her year's contract expires. And finally, if she commits the indiscretion of marrying, she is more than likely to become *persona non grata*.⁴

After opposing the barring of married women on several grounds the same article on page 334 concludes:

But the most cogent argument of all has not yet been mentioned, and that is that our public schools cannot afford to sacrifice teachers who have had extensive training and experience if the latter are willing to continue to serve the com-

¹ Page 185 of reference No. 6, cited on page 222 of this bulletin.

² Reference No. 4 cited on page 221 of this bulletin.

³ Page 174 of reference No. 6, cited on page 222 of this bulletin.

⁴ Page 329 of reference No. 5, cited on page 222 of this bulletin.

munity. Indeed, such teachers represent a social investment, for they have been trained by the normal schools and universities, institutions supported by the state or by private endowment, and as beginners they have gained their experience at the expense, let us say, of the public schools themselves. An analogous situation arises when young women doctors, who have been trained by medical schools at great expense to the latter, marry and give up their profession—to the horror of the leaders of the profession, for they, being wiser than our school heads, realize what an enormous loss is involved. Experience and training in any profession are the ultimate criteria and can hardly be affected by the married or unmarried status of the individual.

The attitude of parents. Recently in Washington, D. C., the matter of employing married women as teachers was made the subject of a city wide discussion and referendum.¹ It had been suggested that the policy of employing married women teachers be modified. Accordingly the superintendent of schools recommended that:

Since this question originated with the citizens and since it is a social problem affecting home life, as well as an administrative and educational problem, the superintendent is of the opinion that the matter should be thoroughly discussed by the public before any final conclusion can be reached regarding what, if anything, should be done.

Pursuant to the adoption of this recommendation, the Parent-Teachers Associations and various civic groups of the city were furnished with information as to the policy of the Board, and were given time in which to study, discuss and vote upon the question. The vote from 70 organizations was as follows:

Favoring married women as public school teachers and as normal school students.....	57
Opposed to above.....	7
Non-committal ("let the board decide," etc.)..	6
Total	70

The most frequent reason given for the votes favorable to married women was that "efficiency or merit and not the marital status of a teacher should be the guide."

Legal aspects. According to a recent survey of the situation, only five states and the District of Columbia have adjudicated the

question of marriage as a bar to teaching.² In the decisions thus far handed down it has been held that in itself marriage is not a valid cause for the dismissal of a teacher who is under contract, or who is teaching under a tenure law which allows dismissal only for specified causes.

Brubacher quotes at length some of the decisions thus far made. The decision in the Oregon case is clear cut. Before quoting from this case, however, it is pertinent to cite the argument of the counsel for the Board:

There are many reasons why the policy adopted by the board is just and wise. In the lower court, however, counsel for petitioner pleaded that such policy casts a stigma on the marriage institution, and the court held it to be contrary to public policy. Of course, neither contention is sound. It is no reflection on the state of matrimony. It is simply a recognition of the new and sacred duties which that state imposes, not only on the wife but as well on the husband. They have entered upon a new life. Both have assumed new and additional obligations and duties. It is reasonable to assume that these new and additional duties and obligations will largely occupy and dominate her mind, and divert her attention. Prior to this state her whole energies were directed to and employed in school work. Now her mind must largely be centered on new duties and obligations. She, more than he, is affected by this status, so far as concerns the pursuit of their former respective callings. He must continue his efforts along previous or other lines with renewed energy because now he must not only support himself but his wife as well. She, on the contrary, must care for the home. Her independence, in a considerable degree at least, is surrendered, and in a large measure she ceases to be a free agent, for her life has now become blended with that of another, and hence her views, convictions and ideals are become the composite result of this blending process. Again, when a woman marries she rightfully assumes that her husband will support her, and society at large expects that of him. The unmarried women who are compelled to work for their livelihood expect that one in their ranks who marries will step aside and make room for one who has no husband to support her. The unmarried woman worker resents, and justly resents, the competition in her labor market of a married woman whose husband is in health and strength, and she has a right to assume that such is the condition of a newly acquired husband. Why should not, and why may not, a school board recognize these conditions?³

¹ Report on the Referendum on Married Women Teachers in the Public Schools. Board of Education of the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C. December 21, 1927 (12 pages, mimeographed).

² Page 435 of reference No. 2, cited on page 221 of this bulletin.

³ Quoted from page 431 of reference No. 2, cited on page 221 of this bulletin.

The Court replied to this viewpoint as follows:

If a teacher becomes inefficient or fails to perform a duty, or does some act which of itself impairs usefulness, then a good or reasonable cause for dismissal would exist. The act of marriage, however, does not, of itself, furnish a reasonable cause . . . The act to which the instant rule relates does not involve a single element of wrong, but, on the contrary, marriage is not only protected by both the written and unwritten law, but it is also fostered by a sound public policy. It is impossible to know in advance whether the efficiency of any person will be impaired because of marriage, and a rule which assumes that all persons do become less competent because of marriage is unreasonable because such a regulation is purely arbitrary. If a teacher is just as competent and efficient after marriage, a dismissal because of marriage would be capricious. If a teacher is neglectful, incompetent, and inefficient, she ought to be discharged whether she is married or whether she is single.

This and other decisions do not mean that the courts have decided a board of education cannot refuse to employ a married woman, or that it cannot refuse to reemploy her at termination of contract. But when an unmarried woman is employed, under conditions where cause must be shown previous to dismissal, marriage is not acceptable as a reason for dismissal.

Brubacher in the article previously cited raises an issue pertinent to this whole question in the following words:

. . . all the cases to date have arisen and been judged in the light of the early years of a woman's life. Of course, this is natural; it is the time when probably, marriage and possible maternity are most crucial for her career outside of the home. It is here submitted, however, that before the wife and mother are excluded from public school teaching and professional and vocational life in general, their cases should also be viewed from standpoint of middle life. With children grown up and quite able to care for themselves and home duties less pressing, it seems a misfortune if women are not to be allowed to realize greater possibilities within themselves than just the small part of their energies and working day which homemaking will consume. It will be further unfortunate, too, from the view of the state that the investment that has been made in the general and professional education of these women shall not continue to make a profitable return throughout their lives.

Objective evidence. The amount of research on the question of single vs. married women teachers is limited. The article in the *American Educational Digest* cited above asked 954 superintendents: Are married women with equal training and experience as efficient as unmarried? The answers were:

Yes	597 or 63 percent
No	174 or 18 "
Conditional	141 or 15 "
Married women more efficient.	42 or 4 "
Total	954 or 100 "

Opinion based on experience seems to indicate that marriage is not a significant factor in determining the efficiency of a teacher.

Carrothers'¹ study yields one bit of evidence. His data for the city of Cleveland indicate that married women who teach are subject to a greater amount of illness than single women. The difference between the two groups is not large, however, according to Table 3 derived from his data.

TABLE 3.—ILLNESS PER YEAR AMONG SINGLE AND MARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS

Ages of teachers	Single women		Married women	
	Number	Average days of illness	Number	Average days of illness
21-30	1,180	5.2	141	7.8
31-40	921	4.9	200	6.1
41-50	525	4.7	128	6.3
51-70	322	4.7	61	5.4
All	2,948	5.0	533	6.6

Lewis² reports a study in Detroit by Moehlman which sought to determine the relative efficiency of single and married women teachers. The conclusion was that married women teachers ranked a little higher in professional ability, as measured by principals' ratings, than the general ranking of women teachers. The same investigation arrived at some other tentative conclusions which are pertinent. Briefly stated these were:

1. Teaching by a married woman does not decrease the number of children in her family below the general average.

¹ Pages 34 and 76 of reference No. 3, cited on page 221 of this bulletin.

² Page 179 of reference No. 6, cited on page 222 of this bulletin.

2. The ratings of women teachers in service both before and after marriage were generally higher after marriage.

The evidence of the preceding paragraphs does not justify any final conclusions. Neither opinion nor research thus far suggests more than an open mind on the whole issue. A general evaluation of the evidence seems to reveal little basis for the blanket barring of married women from teaching on the basis that they are less efficient in the classroom than single women.

Current Practice. Turning from theory, opinion and research findings, we have in Table 4 a presentation of practice in city school systems as it effects the employment of married women. Approximately sixty percent of cities over 2500 in population do not employ married women as new teachers. This percent holds reasonably constant for cities of all populations. On the other hand approximately half of the cities report that single women who marry may continue to teach.

Selected References

1. ANDERSON, CARL WILLIAM, *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*. Contributions to Education, No. 246. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,

Columbia University, New York City, 1927. p. 43-5, 68-9, 79-80, 117-9.

An analysis of contract forms, local rules and regulations, state laws and legal decisions to discover legal restrictions placed upon the teacher. Among other restrictions those affecting the marriage of the teacher are dealt with.

2. BRUBACHER, JOHN S. "The Judicial Status of Marriage and Maternity as an Obstacle to the Education of Women for Professional Careers in Public School Teaching." *School and Society*. 26:428-35; October 1, 1927.

Reviews a number of judicial decisions and rulings of state superintendents on the validity of marriage and maternity as causes for the dismissal of women from public school teaching positions. Concludes that "Woman's opportunity for a career in public school teaching coincident with a career in homemaking is at least relatively well assured."

3. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E. *Physical Efficiency of Teachers*, Contributions to Education, No. 155. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1925. p. 34-8.

Quotes figures to show a greater number of absences due to illness among married women than among single women.

4. "Employing Married Women in the Schools." *American Educational Digest*, 46:57; October, 1926.

TABLE 4.—POLICY CONCERNING EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN AS TEACHERS

Married women employed as new teachers	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Yes.....	26	39.4	59	36.6	110	33.7	143	36.0	260	44.7	598	39.0
No.....	40	60.6	102	63.4	216	66.3	251	63.2	321 ¹	55.1	930	60.7
No report.....							3	.8	1	.2	4	.3
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Single women teachers who marry:												
Required to resign at once.....	23	34.8	48	29.8	97	29.8	97	24.4	120	20.6	385	25.1
Required to resign at end of school year.....	5	7.6	39	24.2	83	25.5	105	26.4	158	27.1	390	25.5
May continue to teach.....	38	57.6	71	44.1	144	44.1	188	47.4	292	50.2	733	47.8
No report.....			3	1.9	2	.6	7	1.8	12	2.1	24	1.6
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, 26, or 39.4 percent, employ married women as new teachers; 40, or 60.6 percent, do not employ married women as new teachers. Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting as to their policy concerning single women teachers who marry, 23, or 34.8 percent, require resignation at once; 5, or 7.6 percent, require resignation at end of school year; and 38, or 57.6 percent, allow teachers to continue in the service. Similarly read data for other population groups.

This tabulation is based on replies to questions 2 and 3 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ Yes, for grades; no, for high school, reported by one city.

Summarizes facts and judgments secured from 954 school superintendents, representing every state, in answer to an inquiry concerning the status of married women teachers in their respective school systems.

5. EWING, STEPHEN, "Blue Laws for School Teachers." *Harper's Monthly Magazine*, 156:329-38; February, 1928.

Among other restrictions placed on the private life of the teachers, discusses provisions for dismissal of women teachers who

marry and the refusal of many school boards to employ married women.

6. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. Century Co., New York, 1925. Chapter X, "The Married Woman Teacher," p. 173-89.

Court and school board decisions and magazine sentiment relative to the employment of married women as teachers in the public schools are reviewed. Presents arguments for and against, and reports trend of opinion concerning this practice.

The Written Examination in the Certification, Selection and Promotion of Teachers

In our early history teachers were usually examined by the minister or some representative of the dominant local church. The principal consideration was that the teacher should be acceptable in his church affiliations. Little else mattered.¹

Later teachers were examined by the members of a committee of the school board using such methods as their experience and prejudices dictated. Still later came the written examinations conducted by local and sometimes by state school officers. These examinations usually preceded on the part of teacher candidates by a brief period of intensive coaching, were often unsatisfactory. Those conducting the examinations were usually poorly qualified for such a responsibility. The examinations used were unreliable. Success in passing them offered no guarantee of success as a teacher.

The trend now is in the direction of making the certification of teachers a state function.² The examination as a basis for certifying beginning teachers is disappearing except in communities where salaries and other conditions of service are such that they are unable to command properly prepared teachers. It is coming to be generally recognized both in theory and practice that a statement from a reputable teacher training institution that a candidate has completed a prescribed professional course, and is qualified for teaching, is superior to a written examination as a basis for admission to this calling. Modern professional schools for teachers carefully select those admitted to training. They provide a bal-

anced training program of from two to four years or more including both academic and professional courses, and provide opportunity for practice teaching supervised by master teachers. Such a basis for eliminating the unfit and for preparing the fit for teaching outclasses the written examination.

Whereas, the written examination is being discarded as a basis for certifying those entering teaching, it is employed in some communities as one basis for selecting teachers from among those holding certificates, and as a basis for promotion to specific lines of work.

Table 5 reveals the extent to which written examinations are now used by city school systems in appointing new teachers and in promoting those already on the staff. This table shows that 27 out of 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, or 41 percent, use some form of a written examination in selecting new teachers. The percent rapidly drops as cities decrease in population.

Many of the larger cities have salary schedules which make it practical to insist that no teachers shall be employed who in ability, training and attitude do not reach the professional level. Such cities, with well trained administrative and supervisory staffs of mature experience, and frequently employing an expert in personnel administration, are in a position to adopt rigorous methods in selecting the instructors of their children.

Rapid progress is now being made in the development of scientific examination procedures. We may look forward to the time when examining instruments of high validity

¹ Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1919, p. 35.

² See page 16 of reference No. 3 cited on page 217 of this bulletin.

and reliability will be available to aid those charged with personnel administration. Cities with professional salary schedules should profit from and contribute to this movement and thereby guarantee their children the best possible teachers.

Various types of written examinations are used in the large cities and for different purposes. The place of the written examination as it affects elementary school principals is briefly described for several cities in the last yearbook of the Elementary School Principals.¹ The references given at the close of this section give further information as to the types of examinations used and their purposes.

Table 5 indicates that but one percent of cities below 10,000 in population use the written examination in selecting and promoting teachers. Whether the written examination as an instrument for selecting and promoting teachers should be used in the smaller communities is a question. The opportunity which the superintendent and his administrative and supervisory assistants have to come in close contact with the work of the individual teacher makes the examination less necessary in such communities. If employed, the examination

in the smaller school system should be adapted to the less complicated situation obtaining there.

Few would defend the written examination as a sole basis for selecting and promoting teachers. In the hands of an expert in personnel administration, with adequate time properly to devise and administer this instrument, the written examination may be of considerable value. But even at its best, it is but one of several means of measuring and stimulating the professional growth of teachers.

A poorly devised and poorly administered written examination system may be far worse than none at all. Such a system is likely to encourage teachers to become "credit chasers" rather than students of teaching. Those who go through the motions of professional growth may pass better examinations than those who actually do superior teaching. These unfortunate outcomes and a general lowering of teacher morale are likely to result under a poorly administered written examination system. Unless a school system is able to do the job well, it would probably do better to have no written examinations for selecting and promoting teachers.

¹ National Education Association Department of Elementary School Principals, Seventh Yearbook, "The Elementary School Principal," *Bulletin* 7: 372 ff.; April, 1928, Washington, D. C.

TABLE 5.—USE OF WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS IN EMPLOYING AND PROMOTING TEACHERS

Written examinations required of new teachers	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<i>I</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>
Yes.....	27	40.9	14	8.7	7	2.2	6	1.5	5	.8	59	3.8
No.....	38	57.6	146	90.7	313	96.0	391	98.5	575	98.9	1,463	95.5
No report.....	1	1.5	1	.6	6	1.8			2	.3	10	.7
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Written examination required for promotion:												
Yes.....	10	15.2	3	1.9	5	1.5	3	.8	2	.3	23	1.5
No.....	49	74.2	142	88.2	294	90.2	369	92.9	545	93.7	1,399	91.3
No report.....	7	10.6	16	9.9	27	8.3	25	6.3	35	6.0	110	7.2
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, 27, or 40.9 percent, require written examination of new teachers; 38, or 57.6 percent, do not require written examination of new teachers; 1 city left this question blank. Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting concerning their policy of requiring written examination for promotion of teachers, 10, or 15.2 percent, require such examinations; 49, or 74.2 percent, do not require such examinations; 7 cities left this question blank. Similarly read data for other population groups.

This tabulation is based on replies to question 4 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250.

Selected References

1. ALMACK, J. C. and LANG, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1925. p. 40-42.

Among other means of securing data on candidates for teaching positions mentions the written examination and presents some of the advantages and disadvantages incident to its use.

2. BALLOU, FRANK W. *The Appointment of Teachers in Cities*. Harvard Studies in Education, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1915. p. 60-85, 179-181.

Deals with the examination system in determining the eligibility of candidates for appointment to teaching positions. Studies practice in five selected cities. Presents a constructive plan for appointing teachers which includes system of competitive examinations for those who cannot qualify for certificates as graduates of approved institutions.

3. BALLOU, FRANK W. "Determining Who are Superior Teachers." *Elementary School Journal*, 28:256-62; December, 1927; also *Report of the Board of Education of the District of Columbia*, 1926-27, p. 43-7.

Describes examination system used in District of Columbia schools as a basis for selecting successful candidates for super-maximum salaries.

4. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Public School Administration*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1922. pp. 207-10, 261-2.

The use of the written examination as a basis for the selection and promotion of

teachers in large school systems is discussed. Names principles of action which should govern the competitive examination system for appointing new teachers. Maintains that promotional examinations, while capable of limited application in the framing of a plan for promoting teachers on the basis of merit, are chiefly useful as one of a number of bases of estimating growth and professional efficiency.

5. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. Century Company, New York, N. Y., 1925. pp. 135-8, 293.

Names purpose and describes content of written examination in use in Los Angeles as a part of the scheme of teacher selection. Disapproves of promotional examinations as a basis of salary increases unless these are equated in terms of academic and professional courses in recognized institutions for teacher training.

6. RUEDIGER, W. C. "New Duties New Occasions Teach," *School and Society*, 24:334-5; September 11, 1926.

States that the shortage of qualified teachers in New York City schools, said to exist in spite of high salaries offered, is primarily due to the competitive examination system governing appointments of new teachers. Declares that professionally-minded teachers, already successful, find "assembled" examinations humiliating but that without its examination system and with its present salary schedule, New York City could attract the most capable teachers within a radius of many miles.

Practices Affecting Professional Improvement

Leaves of Absence for Study and Travel

The encouragement among teachers of a progressive and dynamic attitude toward their own professional improvement is a first duty of an educational leader. Nothing can do more to lower the efficiency of a school system than to allow a situation to develop in which uninformed self-satisfaction and instinctive opposition to all progress characterize the attitude of the rank and file of the teaching staff.

Progressive schools administrators would generally agree that one means of encouraging a right professional attitude is the adoption of regulations which encourage, or at least make it easy for teachers to take leave of absence for study, travel, or other approved means of improving one's professional equipment.

This generally accepted theory, however, but partially finds its counterpart in practice. Table 6 indicates that 43 percent of the 1532 cities reporting do not grant leave of absence to teachers for professional improvement even though the total cost involved is borne by the

teacher. This high percent is due principally to the situation in the smaller cities. In many of these communities salary schedules are too low to permit the saving necessary for time off, or, if such saving is accomplished, the teacher expects after a period of study to move on to a community in which conditions of service are better. Over sixty percent of the cities from 10,000 to 30,000 in population grant leave for professional improvement. The corresponding percents are 80 and 92 in the two larger population groups.

Of the 828 cities who grant leave for study, 750 or 91 percent pay no salary during such leave. The 63 cities composing the remaining nine percent pay some salary during leave; 30 of these pay half salary or more. Detailed information is available in a recent report of the National Education Association as to present practice among public school systems concerning granting of leave for professional im-

TABLE 6.—GRANTING LEAVE FOR PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT AND AMOUNT OF SALARY DURING LEAVE

Leave of absence granted for professional improvement	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>
Yes.....	61	92.4	129	80.1	197	60.4	208	52.4	233	40.0	828	54.0
No.....	5	7.6	32	19.9	125	38.4	173	43.6	331	56.9	666	43.5
No report or indefinite.....					4	1.2	16	4.0	18	3.1	38	2.5
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Amount of salary paid during leave:												
Full salary.....			1	.8	1	.5			2	.9	4	.5
Half salary.....	10	16.4	6	4.7	6	3.1	1	.5	3	1.3	26	3.1
Full salary less pay of substitute.....	4	6.6	2	1.5	3	1.5	5	2.4	4	1.7	18	2.2
Some other fraction of salary.....	3	4.9	7	5.4	1	.5	23	1.0	2	.9	15	1.8
No salary.....	41 ¹	67.2	112 ³	86.8	186	94.4	196	94.2	215	92.2	750	90.6
No report.....	3	4.9	1	.8			4	1.9	7	3.0	15	1.8
Total.....	61	100.0	129	100.0	197	100.0	208	100.0	233	100.0	828	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, 61, or 92.4 percent, grant leave of absence for professional improvement; 5, or 7.6 percent, do not grant such leave. Of the 61 cities granting leave for professional improvement, none paid full salary during such leave; 10, or 16.4 percent of the cities granting such leave, paid half salary; 4, or 6.6 percent, paid full salary less pay of substitute; 3, or 4.9 percent, paid some other fraction of salary; 41, or 67.2 percent did not pay any salaries; and 3, or 4.9 percent left this part of the question blank. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to questions 7 and 8 of the inquiry blank reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ One of these 41 cities reported "no salary but \$20 reimbursement per month for 50 months on return."

² Three of these 112 cities reported except to the extent that it placed them in a higher salary group.

³ One city takes care of pension payments for teachers during absence.

provement with compensation during such leave.¹

Opinion—pro and con. Whether leave with salary should become a general practice in public school systems is still an open question. The report cited just above indicates that cities with such a leave plan in effect are generally well satisfied with it. This attitude, however, is characteristic of the innovators of educational practices. We also have evidence that granting sabbatical leave to college professors, a practice now in effect in a considerable percent of colleges, has worked with success.²

Those favoring the application of this plan for public school systems believe that it increases school efficiency by improving the professional and cultural background of the teachers, and by making it possible for teachers to make up deficiencies in or to improve their mastery of the field in which they instruct. Opponents of the practice question whether the returns justify the cost and contend that the same amount spent on other means of encouraging professional growth will yield larger results with fewer difficulties of administration. Further experience and research will eventually decide the validity of these conflicting claims.

Below are listed essential elements for the effective administration of a plan of sabbatical leave for teachers. These were formulated as a result of a detailed study of such plans already in effect in thirty cities, and are taken from the report of the National Education Association previously cited.

1. A period of uninterrupted teaching service prior to taking sabbatical leave.
2. A provision which will safeguard to the school system the use of sabbatical leave for purposes of professional growth.
3. Compensation during the period of sabbatical leave sufficient to make the leave possible without undue sacrifice by the teacher.
4. A statement as to the number of teachers who may be on leave at one time without embarrassment to the school system.
5. An equitable basis for selecting the teachers to be granted leave, when more apply than may be absent at one time.
6. A period of leave long enough to make real professional study and growth possible.
7. A provision guaranteeing that the improved services of the teacher following sabbatical leave

shall be rendered in the school system granting the leave.

8. Protection of the salary and retirement status of the teacher taking leave.

Troy and Schenectady, New York, recently adopted a plan which combines provisions for granting both sick leave and leave for professional improvement. The plan is similar in both cities. That for Schenectady is informally described by Superintendent A. J. Stoddard as follows:

1. Each person coming under the plan shall be allowed a maximum of ten days' sick leave on full pay each year. These periods shall be accumulative in whole or in part until a total of 100 days has been reached. At any time, the person may use all or part of the days accumulated for sickness on full pay. Whenever 100 days have been accumulated, the person may apply to the Board of Education for a half year's leave of absence, on full pay, for study or travel or some other activity which in the judgment of the Board of Education shall be of equivalent value to the school system. These requests for leave shall be honored in the order filed as the budget permits. However, any person must use his half year's leave of absence within one year after the date approved by the Board of Education.
2. The budget for the present is to be one percent of the salary budgets for administrative officers, supervisors, special teachers, principals and teachers.
3. The plan is to be retroactive for ten years from June, 1927.
4. The plan shall apply to all teachers, nurses, heads of instructional departments, chief of medical staff, supervisors of instruction, principals or other heads of schools, director of research and superintendent and assistant superintendent of schools.

Selected References

1. "The Ann Arbor Plan for Leave." *Journal of the National Education Association*, 16:155; May, 1927.
Quotes resolutions adopted by Ann Arbor Board of Education with regard to the granting of leaves of absence to members of administrative, supervisory, teaching or library staff.
2. LEMON, ALLAN C. "The Leave of Absence in Universities and Colleges." *Journal of Educational Research*, 16:210-212; October, 1927.
Summarizes results of survey of current practices in regard to granting sabbatical

¹ See reference No. 7, cited on page 227 of this bulletin.

² See reference Nos. 2 and 9, cited on pages 226-7 of this bulletin.

leave in seventy-five universities and colleges.

3. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. Century Company, New York, 1925. 460 p.

Chapter V, p. 77-81 contains a brief summary of essential practices in granting sabbatical leave to teachers in seven cities. Gives Boston and Rochester plans in some detail.

4. MACCAUGHEY, V. "Sabbatical Leave for Teachers." *Journal of the National Education Association*, 15:18; January, 1926.

A brief article reviewing outstanding points in report, on sabbatical leave for teachers, to California State Council of Education. Lists typical cities which have plan in some form.

5. MCGLADE, JOHN C. "Leave-of-Absence for Study." *Sierra Educational News*, 24:9-10; January, 1928.

Summarizes data from two studies of practice in American cities relative to the granting of sabbatical leave to teachers. Benefits to teachers, school system, and community are discussed.

6. MORGAN, KATHERINE M. "Report on Sabbatical Year." *Proceedings*, 63:369-72; 1925, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

Report of committee of Teachers' Cooperative Council of Kansas City. Lists typical cities granting leave and surveys variations in practice. Concludes that "practice has passed the experimental stage and is fast becoming a recognized means of securing for the community the benefits of teacher improvement."

7. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. *Sabbatical Leave for Public School Teachers*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., July, 1927. 31 p.

A study directed by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association. Brings together data on systems for sabbatical leave in effect in thirty cities replying to questionnaire. Discusses purpose and

value of sabbatical leave, essential elements of plans for granting leave to teachers and characteristics of existing plans. Quotes in full Ann Arbor plan and California law passed in 1926 permitting local school systems to grant sabbatical leave to teachers. Presents tabular analysis and summary of thirty systems reported. Extensive bibliography.

8. "A Practical Plan for Sabbatical Leave." *Yearbook*, 1926, National League of Teachers' Associations. p. 40-43.

States that wherever a plan of sabbatical leave for teachers is in effect it has met with general approval, and expense is small. Gives some of most widely accepted regulations governing sabbatical leave. Names benefits accruing to teachers and to school systems.

9. RANDALL, OTIS E. "Report of Commission on Sabbatic Leave." *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, 8:104-118; 9:188-202; 10:137-140; March, 1922; April, 1923; May, 1924.

Commission reports for 1922, 1923, and 1924. Reports summarized results of questionnaire investigation of present and desired practice in five hundred and ninety colleges and universities and present general conclusions and recommendations based on data. A sabbatical year plan in every university and college is urged.

10. "Sabbatical Leaves for Teachers." *Elementary School Journal*, 27:321-3; January, 1927.

Quotes from an article by Albert M. Shaw in 1926 Yearbook of the National League of Teachers' Associations. Lists eleven regulations generally applicable to sabbatical leave plans; cites plans in Rochester, Richmond, and New York, as variations from the regulations suggested.

11. SHANK, THEO. B. "Investments with Large Dividends." *American School Board Journal*, 74:66; March, 1927.

Commends school board of Kansas City for adoption of a new policy with regard to sabbatical leave for teachers. Discusses practices current in school systems relating to teachers' leaves of absence.

Recognition of Additional Training

A considerable percent of school systems financially encourage professional study by teachers during summer vacation or concurrently with the school year. Such assistance of professional improvement may be adopted as alternative or supplemental to the granting of leave during the school year for purposes of professional training.

Summer session study. Attendance at summer sessions of colleges or universities is favored by some communities. Many opportunities for attendance at well conducted summer schools, even for specialized types of work, are open in every section of the nation¹ and foreign colleges offer unique opportunities for the enrichment of one's professional equipment. Over 280,000 teachers, nearly one in three in the United States, annually attend summer school for from six to eight and twelve weeks. Table 7 shows summer school enrolment by states for 1926, 1927, and 1928.²

Those favoring attendance at summer sessions contend that such work is of particular value since it (1) may be keyed to the practical needs of active teachers with backgrounds of experience, (2) offers an opportunity for an exchange of ideas on good practice by experienced practitioners, (3) makes possible an intermingling of theoretical training and practical experience over a number of years, (4) frequently makes it possible to combine educative travel with classroom work, and (5) need not involve a health menace if alternate summer sessions are attended and the school vacation beyond the six weeks summer school is used wisely.

Those unfavorable to summer courses believe that they (1) are too brief to allow the proper development of a unit of instruction, (2) bring together teachers whose previous training and experience are so diverse as to make satisfactory class work impossible, (3) give instructors insufficient time to discover and minister to the particular needs of their groups, and (4) constitute a serious health menace to a teacher who does conscientious work.

Table 8 indicates that nearly 40 percent of school systems now encourage summer school by financially assisting such attendance. The aid is most often given on the basis of the number of credits earned in a college or university. In some cases a "bonus" or single payment of \$100, or more or less, is paid to indemnify teachers who satisfactorily earn a given number of course units. In 58 percent of the 605 cities giving direct financial reward for summer school attendance, teachers are granted a permanent salary increase of a specified amount or an extra salary schedule increment.

Courses during the school year. Some cities encourage the pursuit of resident, extension, or correspondence courses during the school year. This plan when properly worked out allows a close and concurrent relating of the actual school work with the subjects of study, permits the instructor to develop a well rounded unit of work and to adapt it to the specific needs of the community and of the individual members of his class.

Those opposing such courses criticize the value of the work sometimes given and contend that it too often either endangers a teacher's health or is carried on at the expense of the regular school work.

Table 9 indicates that approximately one city in five now has some plan for financially encouraging college work during the school year. Such a financial award is usually based on the units of work completed and is most often granted in the form of an extra salary schedule increment.

Information was not secured as to the means used by cities to insure that college work is of the type calculated to increase the teacher's efficiency in the classroom.

Educative travel. Most people would agree that travel is desirable as a part of the preparation of a professional teacher. The direct contribution of travel to classroom instruction is not easily measured, however, nor is it easy to evaluate the worth of various types and amounts of travel. These and other considerations are responsible for the fact, indi-

¹ National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, *Seventh Yearbook*, April, 1928, pp. 411-12. Also see: Humphrey, Adele, "Opportunities in Summer Schools—1928," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XVII: 155-9; May, 1928.

² For a more complete presentation of figures and for information as to their proper interpretation see "Growth of Summer School Attendance," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XVII: 265; November, 1928.

cated by Table 10, that less than eight percent of school systems financially encourage such travel.

Direct versus indirect encouragement. It is an open question how far it is wise to relate financial rewards directly to the obtaining of increased professional preparation for

teaching. Professional competency must be paid for somewhere along the line. Teachers of sound scholarship and full professional preparation, with broad experience and contacts, cannot be obtained for the same cost as teachers with little training and contacts no wider than those of their local communities. As the

TABLE 7.—NUMBER OF PERSONS ENROLLED IN EDUCATION COURSES IN SUMMER SCHOOL

States	Number enrolled summer of:			Percent of teachers enrolled in 1928
	1926 ¹	1927 ²	1928 ³	
1	2	3	4	5
United States.....	218,695	249,268	282,068	31.32
Alabama.....	4,302	8,883	8,881	55.16
Arizona.....	873	585	1,255	40.48
Arkansas.....	1,639	2,136	3,337	26.70
California.....	5,883	12,118	15,622	41.11
Colorado.....	5,563	6,248	6,203	57.97
Connecticut.....	22	873	817	7.43
Delaware.....	272	237	243	16.20
District of Columbia.....	140	729	1,073	37.00
Florida.....	1,231	1,450	1,373	13.73
Georgia.....	2,347	3,778	4,725	25.89
Idaho.....	1,296	1,180	1,075	23.89
Illinois.....	15,145	12,700	15,781	34.31
Indiana.....	10,524	10,644	9,319	38.83
Iowa.....	6,059	6,562	7,775	29.90
Kansas.....	7,048	6,858	8,001	36.87
Kentucky.....	5,486	4,561	5,818	32.32
Louisiana.....	2,059	3,530	3,537	32.15
Maine.....	1,304	1,364	1,552	24.25
Maryland.....	1,548	1,428	1,836	21.86
Massachusetts.....	3,183	4,425	2,796	10.75
Michigan.....	8,161	8,437	8,809	28.23
Minnesota.....	3,789	4,300	5,084	21.18
Mississippi.....	1,570	1,707	2,373	15.82
Missouri.....	7,458	9,255	10,792	43.52
Montana.....	1,162	1,286	651	10.50
Nebraska.....	5,718	6,018	6,323	42.15
Nevada.....	139	88	100	12.50
New Hampshire.....	376	320	377	12.16
New Jersey.....	1,375	983	1,315	5.37
New Mexico.....	1,034	1,346	1,511	44.44
New York.....	15,978	19,887	21,611	29.60
North Carolina.....	7,862	8,152	10,767	44.49
North Dakota.....	4,297	3,573	3,547	37.34
Ohio.....	10,091	11,148	12,665	28.14
Oklahoma.....	11,223	8,894	12,171	63.06
Oregon.....	2,381	3,079	2,559	30.46
Pennsylvania.....	16,280	16,740	16,147	27.37
Rhode Island.....	369	459	457	11.72
South Carolina.....	2,868	2,355	2,593	18.52
South Dakota.....	2,378	1,933	2,411	25.38
Tennessee.....	7,615	7,228	9,280	51.56
Texas.....	8,429	14,155	18,817	47.04
Utah.....	395	1,337	866	18.83
Vermont.....	603	635	684	22.06
Virginia.....	4,455	5,856	6,397	35.54
Washington.....	3,873	4,457	3,761	31.61
West Virginia.....	3,874	4,922	4,679	29.24
Wisconsin.....	6,903	7,349	7,646	35.65
Wyoming.....	640	1,039	760	22.35
Hawaii.....	525	425	1,253	56.95
Philippine Islands.....	616	616	3,643	13.49
Porto Rico.....	950	1,000	1,000	19.23

¹ From reports from 482 of the 661 institutions conducting summer schools.

² From reports from 596 of the 662 institutions conducting summer schools.

³ From reports from 616 of the 626 institutions conducting summer schools.

Los Angeles Express recently commented editorially:

In education, as in other fields of human action, you do not get more than you pay for. If you persistently pay second-rate salaries, you will find the first-class teachers gradually drift from your employment and your teaching staff as inevitably in time will be composed of second-class material.

That we want the best teachers that can be had goes without argument, for it is the general purpose and resolution to build up the best schools. But as it is impossible that we shall succeed in building up such schools unless in that process we employ the best teachers, we must face the fact that to get the best teachers we must pay the best salaries.

Whether the economic cost of maintaining a corps of able and well trained teachers should be accomplished through petty financial rewards is another question. As a temporary device following the war such methods were probably necessary. The lowered

purchasing power of salaries had forced many of the best teachers from the profession. They had been replaced in many instances by relatively unprepared recruits. When a school system finds itself with a large percent of such teachers, the piece-meal method of lifting the professional preparation of its teaching staff to an acceptable minimum may be necessary and desirable as a temporary expedient.

Ultimately the aim should be to employ none but well prepared teachers and to encourage standards of performance in the classroom which can be met only by those who keep abreast of the best school theory and practice. The keystone to such a situation must be a salary schedule which makes it economically practical to expect first-rate people to equip themselves with the pre-service and in-service training basic to classroom work on a high level.

TABLE 8.—FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR SUMMER SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Direct financial reward granted to teachers for attending summer school	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>
Yes.....	24 ¹	36.4	79 ²	49.1	147 ³	45.1	151 ⁴	38.0	204	35.1	605	39.5
No.....	40	60.6	80	49.7	174	53.4	236	59.5	363	62.3	893	58.3
No report.....	2	3.0	2	1.2	5	1.5	10	2.5	15	2.6	34	2.2
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Reward for attending summer school made on the basis of the number of college or university credits earned:												
Yes.....	21	87.5	66	83.6	97	66.0	108	71.5	120 ⁵	58.8	412	68.1
No.....	1	4.2	5	6.3	16	10.9	31	20.5	58	28.4	111	18.3
No report.....	2	8.3	8	10.1	34	23.1	12	8.0	26	12.8	82	13.6
Total.....	24	100.0	79	100.0	147	100.0	151	100.0	204	100.0	605	100.0
Reward for attending summer school a permanent salary increase:												
Yes.....	19	79.2	52	65.8	75	51.0	87	57.6	117	57.3	350	57.8
No.....	3	12.5	15	19.0	39	26.5	48	31.8	63	30.9	168	27.8
No report.....	2	8.3	12	15.2	33	22.5	16	10.6	24	11.8	87	14.4
Total.....	24	100.0	79	100.0	147	100.0	151	100.0	204	100.0	605	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, 24, or 36.4 percent, grant financial rewards to teachers for attending summer school; 40, or 60.6 percent, do not grant such rewards, and 2, or 3 percent left this question blank. Twenty-one, or 87.5 percent of the 24 cities granting financial rewards for attendance at summer school, base the amount of such reward on the number of college or university credits earned; 1, or 4.2 percent, do not base the amount of such reward on the number of college or university credits earned; and 2 cities did not reply to the question. Nineteen, or 79.2 percent of the 24 cities granting financial rewards for summer school attendance, make such reward a permanent salary increase; 3, or 12.5 percent, do not make such reward a permanent salary increase, and 2 cities did not reply to this question. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to question 9 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ Five cities reported that a direct financial reward was given for summer school attendance to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

² Ten cities reported that a direct financial reward was given for summer school attendance to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

³ Twenty-two cities reported that a direct financial reward was given for summer school attendance to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group; one reported tuition paid.

⁴ Fifteen cities reported that a direct financial reward was given for summer school attendance to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

⁵ One city reported yes for grades; no for high schools.

TABLE 9.—FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR PROFESSIONAL COURSES TAKEN DURING SCHOOL YEAR

Direct financial reward granted to teachers for professional courses taken during the school year	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Yes.....	23 ¹	34.8	63 ²	39.1	99 ³	30.4	73 ⁴	18.4	68	11.7	326	21.3
No.....	39	59.1	87	54.1	206	63.2	303	76.3	471	80.9	1,106	72.2
No report.....	4	6.1	11	6.8	21	6.4	21	5.3	43	7.4	100	6.5
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Reward for professional courses taken during the school year made on the basis of the number of college or university credits earned:												
Yes.....	18	78.3	51	81.0	69	69.7	63	86.4	57	83.8	258	79.1
No.....	5	21.7	12	19.0	6	6.1	5	6.8	3	4.4	14	4.3
No report.....	5	21.7	12	19.0	24	24.2	5	6.8	8	11.8	54	16.6
Total.....	23	100.0	63	100.0	99	100.0	73	100.0	68	100.0	326	100.0
Reward for professional courses taken during the school year a permanent salary increase:												
Yes.....	19	82.6	46	73.0	60	60.6	49	67.1	45	66.2	219	67.2
No.....	1	4.4	5	8.0	15	15.2	17	23.3	11	16.2	49	15.0
No report.....	3	13.0	12	19.0	24	24.2	7	9.6	12	17.6	58	17.8
Total.....	23	100.0	63	100.0	99	100.0	73	100.0	68	100.0	326	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting, 23, or 34.8 percent, grant financial rewards to teachers for professional courses taken during the school year; 39, or 59.1 percent, do not grant such rewards, and 4, or 6.1 percent, left this question blank. Of the 23 cities granting financial rewards for professional courses taken during the school year, 18 cities base the amount of such reward on the number of college or university credits earned, while the remaining 5 cities do not reply to this question. Nineteen, or 83.6 percent of the 23 cities granting financial rewards for professional courses taken during the school year, make such reward a permanent salary increase; 1, or 4.4 percent, do not make such reward a permanent increase; and 3 cities did not reply to this question. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to question 10 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ Nine cities reported that a direct financial reward is given for professional courses taken during the school year to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

² Ten cities reported that a direct financial reward is given for professional courses taken during the school year to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

³ One reported yes for a year's credits.

⁴ Five of these 73 cities reported that a direct financial reward is given for professional courses taken during the school year to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

TABLE 10.—FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR EDUCATIVE TRAVEL

Financial reward for educative travel	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Yes.....	5 ¹	7.6	22	13.7	31	9.5	30	7.6	31	5.3	119	7.8
No.....	58	87.9	124	77.0	264	81.0	334	84.1	501	86.1	1,281	83.6
No report.....	3	4.5	15	9.3	31	9.5	33	8.3	50	8.6	132	8.6
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting 5, or 7.6 percent, grant financial rewards to teachers for educative travel; 58, or 87.9 percent, do not grant such reward; and 3 cities left this question blank. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to question 11 of the inquiry, reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnote:

¹ Two cities reported that a direct financial reward is given for summer school attendance to the extent that it places teachers in a higher salary group.

Selected References

1. BOYNTON, F. D. "Improving Teachers in Service." *Journal of Education*, 106:352-3; October 17, 1927.

Declares that any adequate plan for the improvement of teachers in service should provide both opportunity and reward. Favors salary increases rather than the bonus as a form of reward for teacher improvement in service.

2. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Public School Administration*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass., 1922. p. 255-7, 263-4.

Declares that the number of superior teachers in a school system will depend greatly on incentives to growth offered by the salary schedule. Names some objections to granting salary increases for additional study but in general favors this method among others for stimulating teachers to greater efficiency.

3. HEBB, BERTHA Y. *Credit for Professional Improvement of Teachers*, U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, Teacher's Leaflet, No. 16, March, 1922. 7 p.

Quotes school board regulations of a number of cities governing the granting of financial rewards to teachers in recognition of study or educative travel carried on during the school year or in summer vacations.

4. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. Century Co., New York City, 1925. p. 72-81.

Gives extracts from school board regulations of a number of cities relative to the granting of financial rewards to teachers in recognition of study and educational travel for purposes of professional improvement. Emphasizes especially the Ann Arbor plan.

5. RUSSELL, CHARLES. *The Improvement of the City Elementary School Teacher in Service*. Contributions to Education, No. 128, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1922. p. 47-53.

Quotes provisions of a number of cities governing the granting of additional salary increments or bonuses in recognition of professional improvement of teachers by means of study or travel.

6. WALSH, MATTHEW J. *Teaching as a Profession*. Henry Holt and Co., New York City, 1926. p. 315-22.

Advocates the recognizing of additional training of teachers by means of tangible rewards. Summarizes provisions relative to rewards for advanced professional training in cities in eastern, southern, north central and western states.

7. WHITNEY, FREDERICK L. *The Growth of Teachers in Service*. Century Co., New York City, 1927. p. 80-91, 153-77.

Describes increasing use of tangible rewards as a method of motivating and rewarding teacher growth in service. Gives features of salary schedules in ten cities which aim at professional improvement of the teacher.

The Sick Leave Problem

According to a recent estimate, illness and its results annually cost the people of the United States nearly \$16,000,000,000. The nation's total yearly income is approximately \$90,000,000,000. It is evident from these figures that teaching is not unique in presenting a problem growing out of absence from work due to illness. In meeting this problem a considerable percent of cities have adopted plans whereby leave may be granted because of illness with part or full salary.

Opinion—Pro and Con. The literature dealing with this question presents an array of opinions both favorable and unfavorable to the granting of sick leave with salary. Those favoring the practice contend that it tends to increase teaching efficiency, that it is in accord with enlightened practice in other occupations, that the meagerness of most teachers' salaries makes it necessary, and that properly administered the abuse involved is negligible. Those opposing contend that the practice involves an undesirable paternalism, that a professional and saving wage should be paid all teachers and that they should then protect themselves against illness, that teaching offers no special illness hazards, and that abuses are likely to follow the adoption of sick leave plans.¹

The findings of research. Research has not proceeded to the place where it offers a sure guide in dealing with this question. There are some investigations which reveal data bearing upon this problem from which the following tentative conclusions may be drawn:

1. Teachers as a group are absent from work a comparatively small number of days a year. In eight out of nine cities for which Rogers presents data, the average absence per year was between two and four days. This was but half the average absence found among nine groups of workers in other occupations.²
2. The amount of absence due to illness among women in teaching is approximately twice as much as that among men.³ In other occupations, the same relationship holds.
3. Periodic illness (dysmenorrhea) as a cause of absence among women teachers is of less significance than is popularly supposed.⁴

4. The sick leave privilege is not abused by teachers since there is no correspondence between the amount of sick leave granted by different cities and the amount of absence.⁵

Present practice. In recent years there has been a trend, particularly in the larger cities, toward the adoption of provisions which indemnify the teacher for illness. Table 11 reveals the culmination of this trend to date. Ninety-one percent of the 1532 cities reporting now grant sick leave with some salary. A majority of the cities reporting allow such leave with full salary. Cities granting less than full salary probably do so to keep down costs and as a guard against abuse of the privilege. Cities which grant full pay during sick leave doubtless base this action on the belief that abuse of this privilege is the exception rather than the rule. It may be contended that a full salary is needed most at the time of illness. It is necessary for proper care and guards against a premature return to the classroom. Practice also varies widely as to amount of leave granted. In the distributions of Tables 12 to 16 the number of days granted tend to cluster around ten. This figure was doubtless suggested by the fact that in a ten months' school year this allows leave of one day a month. Since available studies indicate that illness peculiar to women, except in exceptional cases, is a minor rather than a major cause of absence, and since the amount of sickness absence among teachers averages less than four days a year, it is difficult to defend ten days' leave as being preferable to nine, eleven, or some other number. The ten-day period probably owes its popularity more to chance selection than to scientific determination.

The cumulative leave principle. In recent years the incorporation of the cumulative principle has been advocated as a desirable provision of a plan for sick leave allowance. Under the cumulative plan the days of sick leave available, but not used each year, may be added

¹ Consult bibliography at close of this section for elaboration of these arguments.

² Page 6 of reference No. 5, cited on page 236 of this bulletin.

³ See data on page 6 of reference No. 5 and page 196 of reference No. 1, cited on page 236 of this bulletin.

⁴ Page 197 of reference No. 1, cited on page 236 of this bulletin.

⁵ Page 14 of reference No. 3, cited on page 236 of this bulletin.

to those available in later years. Thus in a city allowing ten days of sick leave a year, a teacher who over a period of five years was absent respectively 3, 7, 2, 0 and 4 days would have a cumulated reserve of 34 days. Therefore, if in the sixth year of service a serious illness was encountered, the teacher could be absent without loss of salary for 44 days, that is for the 10 days allowed in the current year plus the 34 days accumulated from previous years. In favor of the cumulative sick leave plan these contentions have been stated:

1. It offers protection against the hardships of the occasional extended illness. The flat allowance plan indemnifies only for the brief illness for which there is less need for protection.

2. It encourages regularity of attendance, while the flat yearly allowance plan may place a premium on the use of the maximum days permitted.
3. It tends to reward length of service and is of greatest value to the experienced and presumably more professionally minded teachers.

Further study needed. A more careful evaluation of experience and additional research will eventually offer a clearer answer as to the desirability of granting sick leave with salary and as to the type of plan which means most for school efficiency. In the meantime the material presented or cited in this section offers a better basis for decision on these questions than average or chance opinion. The growth of the movement for leave for

TABLE 11.—PAYMENT OF SALARY DURING SICK LEAVE

Some sick leave granted with:	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>
Full salary.....	35	53.0	107	66.5	210	64.4	230	58.0	302	51.9	884	57.7
Less than full salary.....	30	45.5	49	30.4	94	28.8	132	33.2	206	35.4	511	33.4
No salary.....	1	1.5	3	1.9	17	5.2	33	8.3	69	11.8	123	8.0
No report.....			2	1.2	5	1.6	2	.5	5	.9	14	.9
Total.....	66	100.6	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Sick leave with pay cumulative:												
Yes.....	51	7.7	243	15.4	283	9.2	164	4.4	235	4.5	96	6.9
No.....	55	84.6	120	76.9	239	78.6	278	76.8	378	74.4	1,070	76.7
No report.....	5	7.7	12	7.7	37	12.2	68	18.8	107	21.1	229	16.4
Total.....	65	100.0	156	100.0	304	100.0	362	100.0	508	100.0	1,395	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting 35, or 53 percent grant some sick leave with full salary; 30, or 45.5 percent, grant some sick leave with something less than full salary; and 1, or 1.5 percent does not pay any salary during sick leave.

Of the 65 cities reporting as paying some salary during sick leave, 5, or 7.7 percent, allow the number of days of such leave to cumulate; 55, or 84.6 percent do not allow such leave to cumulate; and 5 did not reply to this question. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to questions 5 and 6 of inquiry blank reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ The 5 cities over 100,000 in which sick leave is allowed to cumulate reported the following lengths of time during which sick leave may cumulate:

1 reported 2 years; 1 reported no limit; 1 reported not to exceed 80 days; and 1 reported not to exceed 60 school days, and 1 reported 10 years.

² The 24 cities 30,000-100,000 in which sick leave is allowed to cumulate reported the following lengths of time during which sick leave may cumulate:

1 reported 2 years; 3 reported 4 years; 4 reported 3 years; 3 reported 5 years; 1 reported 10 years; 1 reported 20 years; 2 reported no limit; 1 reported cumulative to 90 days; 1 reported cumulative to 100 days; 1 reported cumulative to 6 months; 4 reported no definite number of years, and 2 left question blank.

³ The 28 cities 10,000 to 30,000 in which sick leave is allowed to cumulate reported the following lengths of time during which sick leave may cumulate:

6 reported 3 years; 1 reported 4 years; 7 reported 5 years; 1 reported 10 years; 1 reported 12 years; 1 reported not to exceed 95 days; 1 reported not to exceed 20 days; 1 reported not to exceed 40 days; 3 reported not definite and 6 left question blank.

⁴ The 16 cities 5,000 to 10,000 in which sick leave is allowed to cumulate reported the following lengths of time during which sick leave may cumulate:

1 reported 2 years; 4 reported 3 years; 2 reported 4 years; 3 reported 5 years; 1 reported no limit; 3 reported indefinite; and 2 left question blank.

⁵ The 23 cities 2,500 to 5,000 in which sick leave is allowed to cumulate reported the following lengths of time during which sick leave may cumulate:

2 reported 2 years; 2 reported 3 years; 1 reported 4 years; 3 reported 5 years; 1 reported 10 years; 11 reported no limit; 1 reported not definite; and 2 left question blank.

illness offers one more reason why professional schools for teachers and local communities should rigorously eliminate candidates preparing for and seeking admission to teaching who cannot pass examinations indicating physical and emotional health. It also emphasizes the need of maintaining a positive program designed to encourage physical and mental health among the members of a teaching staff.

Even the most perfect theoretical plan for granting sick leave will not work itself. As in other personnel problems constant vigilance is the price of success. Few things can do more to reduce abuse of a sick leave allowance plan to a minimum and to secure the

TABLE 12.—NUMBER OF DAYS SICK LEAVE GRANTED AND PART OF SALARY PAID

66 Cities over 100,000 in Population

Number of days	Full salary	Half salary	Full salary less pay of substitute	Some other fraction of salary	No salary
1	2	3	4	5	6
5-9.....	5 ¹				
10-14.....	21 ²	3	1		
15-19.....	3 ³	1	1 ⁴		
20-24.....	3 ⁴	8 ⁵		2 ⁶	
25-29.....	1 ⁵	2			
30 and over.....	2 ⁶	4	4	2 ¹⁰	
No definite number....			1	1	1
Total....	35	18	7	5	1

Read table as follows: Of the 35 cities over 100,000 in population granting sick leave with full salary, 5 cities reported between 5 and 9 days allowed; 21 reported between 10 and 15 days, etc. Similarly read data for other salary groups.

Footnotes:

¹ These 5 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary.

² Nine of these 21 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary; and one city reported, "10 to 60 days, depending on length of service."

³ One of these 3 cities grants additional days leave with something less than full salary; and one city reported, "15 to 30 days, depending on length of service."

⁴ One of these cities reported, "20 to 60 days, depending on length of service," and one city reported, "4 to 6 weeks, depending on length of service after 10 years."

⁵ This city grants additional days leave with something less than full salary.

⁶ One of these cities grants additional days leave with something less than full salary.

⁷ One of these 8 cities reported, "20 days to 1 year;" and one city reported, "4 to 6 weeks, depending on length of service."

⁸ This city reports, "15 days to 4½ months, depending on length of service."

⁹ One of these cities reported, "Full salary less \$3 a day; and the other city pays ¾ of salary."

¹⁰ One of these cities reported as paying ¾ salary; and the other city pays full salary less \$1 a day for first 10 days; for 11 to 100 days forfeit \$2 a day; for teachers having 10 years or more service, half pay for each day after 100 days.

TABLE 13.—NUMBER OF DAYS SICK LEAVE GRANTED AND PART OF SALARY PAID

159 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population

Number of days	Full salary	Half salary	Full salary less pay of substitute	Some other fraction of salary	No salary
1	2	3	4	5	6
Under 5.....	2				
5-9.....	36 ¹	4 ³		2	
10-14.....	50 ²	5 ⁴	1	7	1
15-19.....	8 ³	1			
20-24.....	5 ⁴	8	4	2	
25-29.....					
30 and over.....	4 ⁵	2	3	6	
No definite number....	2		3	1	2
Total....	107	20	11	18	3

Read table as follows: Of the 107 cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population granting sick leave with full salary, 2 reported under 5 days allowed; 36 reported between 5 and 9 days, etc. Similarly read data for other salary groups.

Footnotes:

¹ Twenty-two of these 36 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary and 1 grants from 5 to 30 days, depending on length of service.

² Nineteen of these 50 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary and 1 grants from 10 to 20 days, depending on length of service.

³ One of these 8 cities grants additional days leave with something less than full salary and 1 grants an additional day full salary for each year of service in city.

⁴ Two of these cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary.

⁵ One of these 4 cities grant additional leave with some other fraction of salary and 1 grants from 5 to 20 days half salary, depending on length of service.

⁶ One of these 5 cities grants 10 additional days with ¾ salary and 2 cities grant an addition of 10 days at ¾ salary and 10 days at ¼ salary.

full benefit of its proper use than wise leadership in explaining its purpose and in pointing out the ultimate result of its abuse. Existing evidence seems to indicate that teachers whether working under a sick leave plan or not are absent a surprisingly small number of days a year. With this professional attitude as a foundation, a morale can be built and maintained which will secure the conscientious and intelligent cooperation of all but the most unusual teacher. The experience of Gary¹ in making the teachers jointly responsible with the superintendent's office for the administration of a sick leave plan is deserving of study. It suggests the desirability of doing something better than handing the plan down from above with the hope that it will successfully administer itself.

¹ Reference No. 7, cited on page 237 of this bulletin.

Finally, the importance of administering a sick leave plan on a "human" rather than on a mechanical basis can hardly be over-emphasized. Nothing has yet replaced the human touch in personnel administration as an effective builder and conservator of a high morale in a working group.

Selected References

1. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E. "Health and Physical Efficiency of City Teachers." *Journal of Educational Research*, 16:184-97; October, 1927.

A study undertaken with the purpose of securing evidence as to the amount of absence among city teachers and the effect of existing school conditions. The need of objective data to guide school administration in formulating equitable policies with regard to allowed absences for sickness is pointed out.

TABLE 14.—NUMBER OF DAYS SICK LEAVE GRANTED AND PART OF SALARY PAID

321 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in Population

Number of days	Full salary	Half salary	Full salary less pay of substitute	Some other fraction of salary	No salary
1	2	3	4	5	6
Under 5.....	15 ¹			3	
5-9.....	75 ²	4 ³	6	7	2
10-14.....	87 ³	10	4	8	1
15-19.....	4 ⁴	1		2	
20-24.....	15 ⁵	14 ⁷	6	5	
25-29.....					
30 and over..	2	3		5	
No definite number....	12	1	9	6	14
Total....	210	33	25	36	17

Read table as follows: Of the 210 cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population granting sick leave with full salary, 15 allow under 5 days; 75 allow between 5 and 9 days, etc. Similarly read data for other salary groups.

Footnotes:

¹ 9 of these 15 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary.

² 29 of these 75 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary; 1 city grants from 5 to 15 days and 1 grants 5 to 20 days, depending on length of service.

³ 14 of these 87 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary; and 1 city grants from 10 to 20 days, depending on length of service.

⁴ 1 of these 4 cities grants 15 days for those in the system less than 5 years; for those serving 5 years or more, 30 days full salary.

⁵ 3 of these 15 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary and 1 city grants from 20 to 40 days, depending on length of service.

⁶ 1 of these 4 cities grants additional days leave with some other fraction of salary.

⁷ 2 of these 14 cities grant additional days leave with some other fraction of salary.

TABLE 15.—NUMBER OF DAYS SICK LEAVE GRANTED AND PART OF SALARY PAID

395 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in Population

Number of days	Full salary	Half salary	Full salary less pay of substitute	Some other fraction of salary	No salary
1	2	3	4	5	6
Under 5.....	17 ¹		4 ⁴	8	
5-9.....	100 ²	6	5	5	3
10-14.....	85 ³	10	4	9	
15-19.....	2			1	
20-24.....	6	7	3 ⁵	1	
25-29.....		1	1		
30 and over..	5	5	10	1	
No definite number....	15	6	37	8	32
Total....	230	35	64	33	35

Read table as follows: Of the 230 cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population granting sick leave with full salary, 17 allow under 5 days; 100 allow from 5 to 9 days, etc. Similarly read data for other salary groups.

Footnotes:

¹ Five of these 17 cities grant additional days sick leave with something less than full salary.

² Twenty-seven of these cities grant additional days sick leave with something less than full salary.

³ Fourteen of these 85 cities grant additional days sick leave with something less than full salary; 1 grants from 10 to 30 days, depending on length of service.

⁴ One of these 4 cities grants additional days sick leave with some other fraction of salary.

⁵ One of these 3 cities grants from 20 to 40 days, depending on length of service.

2. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E. *The Physical Efficiency of Teachers*, Contributions to Education, No. 155. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. p. 61-76.

Presents data secured from a study of absenteeism among teachers in Denver, Cleveland, and Springfield, Massachusetts schools. Compares sick leave provisions in relation to the number of teacher absences in the three cities. Concludes that of all sick leave plans, the cumulative is the best if a definite number of days of paid sick leave must be written into school board rules.

3. "The Compensation of Teachers during Absence." *American School Board Journal*, 74: 108; March, 1927.

Quotes recommendation of special committee on teachers' sick leave, of school Board of Racine, Wisconsin. Presents tabulation of sick leave provisions in 118 cities, based on data received in reply to committees questionnaire.

4. U. S. DEPARTMENT OF INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION. *Pay Status of Absent Teachers and Pay of Substitute Teachers*. City School

Leaflet, No. 21, April, 1926. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 14 p.

Gives provisions of school systems in 163 cities, of 30,000 or more population, as to: the number of days teachers are granted leave for sickness; the pay of teachers during leave for sickness; and the rate of pay of substitute teachers.

5. ROGERS, JAMES FREDERICK. *The Health of the Teacher*, U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, School Health Studies, No. 12. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 1926. p. 14-15, 22, 34-7.

Summarizes data from several studies on practice of cities in granting sick leave to teachers. Finds no relation indicated between allowed length of leave and amount of absenteeism. Declares that cities are wise in granting sick leave with pay for at least ten days a year. Quotes by-laws of departments of education relative to the granting of sick leave in six large cities.

6. ROGERS, JAMES FREDERICK. "Wide Variation in the Matter of Sick Leave." *School Life*, 13: p. 28-9; October, 1927.

Gives data on sick leave for teachers in cities reporting to U. S. Bureau of Education and lays down a few principles, relating to the health of the teacher, which should govern in the administering of sick leave system. States that a cumulative plan is "the next best thing" to allowing as many days as are needed and deciding each case on its individual merits.

7. ROSSMAN, JOHN C. "Teachers Sick Benefit Funds." *American School Board Journal*, 73: 36; December, 1926.

Describes plan in use in Gary, Indiana. Plan which is administered by teacher them-

selves, provides for ten days leave annually at full pay, the accumulation of balance of unused days, and medical examinations of teachers entering the system and those returning to their positions after an illness.

TABLE 16.—NUMBER OF DAYS SICK LEAVE GRANTED AND PART OF SALARY PAID

578 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in Population

Number of days	Full salary	Half salary	Full salary less pay of substitute	Some other fraction of salary	No salary
1	2	3	4	5	6
Under 5.....	29 ¹	1	6	6 ⁷	1
5-9.....	137 ²	3 ³	14 ⁴	16	
10-14.....	91 ⁵	4	8	10	
15-19.....	8	1		2	
20-24.....	6	7	6	2	
25-29.....	1 ⁴				
30 and over..	3	1	3	2	
No definite number....	27	4	96	14	68
Total....	302	21	133	52	69

Read table as follows: Of the 302 cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population granting sick leave with full salary, 29 allow under 5 days, 137 allow from 5 to 7 days, etc. Similarly read data for other salary groups.

Footnotes:

¹ Ten of these 29 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary.

² Twenty-three of these 137 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary; 2 grant from 5 to 10 days; 1 grants from 5 to 20 days and 1 grants additional day for each year of service with full pay.

³ Twelve of these 91 cities grant additional days leave with something less than full salary.

⁴ This city grants additional days leave with something less than full salary.

⁵ One of these 3 cities grants additional days leave with some other fraction of salary.

⁶ Two of these 14 cities grant additional days leave with some other fraction of salary.

⁷ One of these 6 cities grants from 3 to 10 days.

Relation of Salaries to Efficiency

Teachers' salaries were generally increased in the years immediately following the war in order to restore their prewar purchasing power. These salary adjustments were usually granted in the form of flat amount or percentage increases covering all teachers. The differences in salary received were based almost wholly on length of service.

Having restored the prewar buying power

of teachers' salaries most communities recognized the need of providing further increases in order that their incomes might more nearly approach a professional level. This second phase of the movement has been accompanied by a tendency in a few communities to add to the length of service criterion, as a basis for determining salaries, such factors as amount of training and professional ability.

Efficiency Measures and the Normal Schedule

The single salary principle. Amount of professional preparation, as a basis for salary scheduling, has been emphasized in some cities by the adoption of a single salary schedule. Under such a schedule teachers with equal training and experience receive equal salaries whether employed in elementary or high schools.¹

According to a recent partial survey made by the Research Division not less than 153 cities have the single salary schedule principle in practice. Further experience and research is needed before final evaluation can be made of this type of schedule. The single salary schedule among other things attempts to recognize superior competence as it is measured indirectly, but with some objectivity, by the amount of professional training possessed.

Certain other cities have adopted subjective merit ratings by principals and supervisors as a means of measuring teaching efficiency.

Table 17 reveals the number and percent of cities which rate their teachers as to quality of service rendered. It indicates that 43 percent, or less than half of the cities of the United States now have some formal rating scheme. A comparison of this table for 1927-28 with a similar one in the study of Teacher Rating made by the National Education Association in 1924-25² suggests that a smaller, or at least a no larger, percent of cities now rate teachers than did three years ago. The reply in 1924-25 was less representative, and the form of question used in the earlier study differed somewhat.

Table 17 reveals that whereas over 40 percent of cities now definitely rate teachers as to

quality of service rendered, but 10 percent of the cities with rating plans use the scores for differentiating the salaries of teachers under the normal schedule. But 67 out of 1532 cities so use the scores. One city over 100,000 in population reported this practice. The rule covering this city reads as follows:

The teachers of the city shall be classified by a Committee on Classification, to be composed of the Superintendent of Schools, the Assistant Superintendent of Schools, and the principal of each separate school, into three classes to be known as "A Class," "B Class," and "C Class," the "A Class" representing the highest degree of efficiency and the "C Class" the lowest degree of efficiency. The method of conducting the classification shall be determined by the Teachers' Committee and Classification Committee.

The salary of a teacher classed as A or B shall be increased annually until the maximum salary is reached. The rate of increase for A class teachers shall be \$100 per annum and \$50 per annum for B class teachers. The salary of C class teachers shall not be increased.

A smaller city reports as to salary differentiations on the basis of efficiency as follows:

Our initial salary is \$120.00 per month, for subordinate teaching positions. Our maximum is \$180.00. Principals receive from \$200 to \$250, determined by size of building, length of service and efficiency. Supervisors receive from \$250 to \$370, determined in the same manner. The increases based upon the efficiency rating, range from \$5 per month to \$17.50 per month as per the following schedule: S—Superior—\$12.50; E—Excellent—\$10.00; VG—Very Good—\$7.50; G—Good—\$5.00; F—Fair—Receives no increase on probation for one year.

The service increase is discontinued as the median of \$150 per month has been reached being

¹ For a brief discussion and an extensive bibliography on the single salary schedule, see pages 160 and 186 of reference No. 8, cited on page 212 of this bulletin.

² Reference No. 11, cited on page 245 of this bulletin.

thereafter based on efficiency ratings only. We are not satisfied with the present rating scheme. We are making one that will take effect beginning September, 1928.

Most of the plans reported by the 67 cities in Table 17 made a somewhat less definite tie-up between the efficiency rating and the salary received than the two reported above.

A large number of cities reported that they grant no salary increases to the small percent of teachers rated as doing unsatisfactory work. This common practice, however, is quite different from granting several different increments on the basis of ratings given teachers all of whom were doing satisfactory work, but work of ranging degrees of merit.

Certainly detailed rating scales have not reached the point of objectivity and reliability where they may be used confidently in connection with salary schedules. The human and subjective factors involved suggest a conservative attitude toward such use. A useful report on *Teacher Rating* by a committee of the National Education Association is now available. This report suggests the following principles for a teacher rating system:

1. A rating plan must have as its main purpose the guiding of teachers into better service.

The chief purpose of any system of teacher rating is the improvement of teaching; for this rea-

son a rating plan should be inspirational and instructive.

2. Teacher rating systems should afford each person rated a definite and concrete basis for the improvement of his efficiency as a teacher.

How much of the right relationship between the rating official and the teacher is dependent upon the procedure which precedes the giving of the rating? Should the recording of the rating be preceded by: (a) Personal conference between the rating official and the teacher? (b) Written suggestions to the teacher showing where his work needs improvement and how he may accomplish this improvement?

3. The methods used in arriving at a rating of teaching efficiency should be as objective and scientific as educational progress permits and should be understood by all those rated.

A teacher should be fully informed, in advance, upon beginning service in any school system, what requirement will enter into the estimation of his work, and also how that estimation of his work will be recorded.

4. The results of ratings when completed should be automatically transmitted to the teacher rated in written form for his information and guidance.

If the chief purpose of rating is the improvement of instruction, is it not necessary that a teacher be informed of his weak points as well as of his strong points?

5. There should be one official who is the final rating authority. Principals, supervisors of special subjects and special divisions may be advisory to this rating official.

6. A rating system should be arrived at as a result of mutual agreement by administrative, supervisory, and classroom staff.¹

¹ Pages 6-7 of reference No. 11, cited on page 245 of this bulletin.

TABLE 17—RATING OF TEACHERS

Teachers definitely rated as to quality of service rendered	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>
Yes.....	47	71.2	103	64.0	121	37.1	165	41.5	221	38.0	657	42.9
No.....	18	27.3	56	34.8	196	60.1	225	56.7	343	58.9	838	54.7
No report.....	1	1.5	2	1.2	9	2.8	7	1.8	18	3.1	37	2.4
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Teachers rating directly and automatically determines the amount of salary increase for the following year:												
Yes.....	1	2.1	16	15.5	21	17.4	20	12.1	9	4.1	67	10.2
No.....	43	91.5	83	80.6	88	72.7	115	69.7	162	73.3	491	74.7
No report.....	3	6.4	4	3.9	12	9.9	30	18.2	50	22.6	99	15.1
Total.....	47	100.0	103	100.0	121	100.0	165	100.0	221	100.0	657	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population replying 47, or 71.2 percent definitely rate teachers as to quality of service rendered; 18, or 27.3 percent do not rate teachers, and 1 did not answer this question. Of the 47 cities which rate teachers, 1, or 2.1 percent, reported that rating directly and automatically determines the amount of salary increase for the following year; 43, or 91.5 percent, reported that rating does not determine the amount of salary increase; and 3 cities did not answer this question. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to questions 12 and 13 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250ff.

Efficiency Ratings and the Supermaximum

Some cities use the efficiency rating in connection with a supermaximum salary. In Table 18 nearly 30 percent of the cities report a supermaximum. Such a maximum usually takes the form of one or more salary increments above the regular maximum provided in the basic schedule. Usually the regular maximum is reached by automatic increases, based on length of service, whereas qualification for a supermaximum utilizes other factors in addition to experience.

Professional preparation and supermaxima. Table 18 indicates that in 20 percent of the 449 cities with some type of supermaximum salary, the basis for qualifying for such a salary is the acquisition of additional professional training. The salary schedule of Trenton, New Jersey, illustrates this type of supermaximum. The 1926-1927 schedule for elementary school teachers was as follows:

Years of service	Rates	
1	\$1100	
2	1200	
3	1300	
4	1400	
5	1500	
6	1600	
7	1700	
8	1800	
9	1900	
10	2000	
11	2100	
12	2200	
13	2300	
14	2400	
½ year of professional preparation beyond standard normal school training and after 14 years of service.....		\$2500
1 year beyond standard preparation and after 14 years of service.....		2600
1½ years beyond standard preparation and after 14 years of service.....		2700
2 years beyond standard preparation and after 14 years of service.....		2800

TABLE 18.—SUPERMAXIMUM SALARIES

Super-maximum salary to which regular teachers with special qualifications may be promoted	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>
Yes.....	27	40.9	56	34.8	97	29.8	122	30.7	147	71.6	449	29.3
No.....	36	54.6	101	62.7	215	65.9	260	65.5	417	25.3	1,029	67.2
No report.....	3	4.5	4	2.5	14	4.3	15	3.8	18	3.1	54	3.5
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Bases upon which a teacher's advancement from the regular maximum to the super maximum is dependent:												
Additional training.....	11	40.8	15	26.8	18	18.5	18	14.8	28	19.1	90	20.1
Additional training plus superior rating and performance..	7	25.9	7	12.5	11	11.3	18	14.8	15	10.1	58	12.9
Superior rating and performance.....	4	14.8	22	39.3	30	31.0	48	39.3	48	32.7	152	33.9
Extra duties.....	4	7.1	4	7.1	11	11.3	8	6.6	20	13.6	43	9.6
Length of service.....	1	3.7	2	3.6	6	6.2	7	5.7	16	10.9	32	7.1
Married men doing excellent work.....							1	.8			1	.2
No fixed rule.....					2	2.1	2	1.6	6	4.1	10	2.2
No report.....	4	14.8	6	10.7	19	19.6	20	16.4	14	9.5	63	14.0
Total.....	27	100.0	56	100.0	97	100.0	122	100.0	147	100.0	449	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population replying, 27, or 40.9 percent, reported super-maximum salaries to which regular teachers with special qualifications may be promoted; 36, or 54.6 percent do not give super-maximum salaries; and 3 cities left this question blank.

Of the 27 cities reporting super-maximum salaries, 11, or 40.8 percent reported additional training as the basis upon which a teacher may be promoted from the regular to the super-maximum salary; 7 reported additional training plus superior rating and performance, etc. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to questions 14 and 15 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250ff.

Under the Trenton schedule the teacher would receive the regular maximum during the fourteenth year of service. The additional increases may be obtained by meeting the prescribed professional training. The same plan is used in fixing the schedules of principals, high-school teachers and others.

The plan of making professional training the criterion for determining advancement to the supermaximum was recommended in the Report of the Citizens Committee on Teachers Salaries in New York City as follows:

The super-maximum salary proposed by the Committee should be the forerunner of a new era in professional education in the City of New York. Heretofore it has been impossible to make any distinction in salary between the teacher who qualified for a position and made no effort to grow professionally and the teacher who was willing to sacrifice any reasonable amount of energy and money in order to keep herself alive in a professional way. At present the teacher who has taught for fifteen years and who knows nothing of the modern theory and practice of teaching receives just as much salary as the teacher who has kept herself in close touch with the great educational advancement which has been made in recent years. The Committee does not deny that a few rare individuals have kept themselves up-to-date professionally through private study and observation. Such individuals will be no worse off under the working of the proposed super-maximum plan than they now are. On the other hand, the Committee believes that any teacher who has secured as much as one year of professional preparation beyond the minimum requirement of the license which she holds will of necessity have a reasonable understanding of the meaning of modern education, and will be almost certain to be alive and up-to-date in her teaching. The proposed plan guarantees to these teachers a part of the recognition which they deserve. The Committee attaches even greater importance to this proposal because of the belief that it will stimulate professional activity on the part of teachers who have heretofore had no substantial incentive to improve themselves in service.¹

At the same time the New York Committee recommended against the application of the results of rating to the scheduling of salaries. The rejection of detailed merit rating as a factor in salary advancement was, according to the report of the Citizens Committee, due to these considerations:

Probably the soundest principle which may be defended as a basis for determining the amount of a teacher's salary would be her actual teaching efficiency—a measure of how well she actually does the job which she is chosen to do and held responsible for doing. If this indefinite quality or characteristic could be measured objectively, as age or weight or height can be measured, probably most persons would agree that school administrators could throw into the discard all consideration of professional preparation, years of teaching experience and other commonly accepted determiners of teachers' salaries. If such an instrument for measuring teaching ability were available, boards of education could then set up qualifications solely in terms of the individual's score on this measuring device, and then could determine the salaries which they would pay on the basis of the workings of the law of supply and demand with respect to prospective teachers who could measure up to these standard qualifications.

Such an objective measure of teaching ability is entirely lacking. It is entirely possible that it will not be available for many years to come. We do not yet agree as to just what the product of public education is, or ought to be, in any objective sense. We do know that pupils in school acquire certain skills, like ability to read and to spell and to perform certain operations with numbers. We know that there are many bits of information, facts concerning history and geography and literature, a few of which any individual pupil learns to know. In addition to acquiring these skills and facts there are many most important ideas and ideals and character traits which we have a pious hope will in some way grow out of each child's schooling. Important as they are in society, these ideals and traits are vague and not yet subject to objective measure, yet it is the instilling of these vague and unmeasurable qualities which most people would defend as the most valuable service of the teacher.

If, then, we are as yet entirely unable to measure the product of education, it becomes almost absurd to assume that we can now measure the teacher's efficiency in turning out that product. Even if we could measure the product, other difficult problems would face us in measuring teaching efficiency, for the home and the church and all the rest of society are playing their parts in developing the pupils who are in school. It will not be enough to be able to measure how much or how many of these highly desirable ideals and characteristics each pupil secures in a given length of time; we must also be able to measure the exact part of the total which each teacher contributes.

The nearest approach yet made to a measurement of teaching ability is that of having each teacher rated by one or more supervisory officers. All of the arguments presented above prove to us that such a rating is almost purely subjective—a matter of personal opinion on the part of the person who does the rating. When such a rating of

¹ Pages 137-8 of reference No. 9, cited on page 245 of this bulletin.

teachers is allowed to play even a small part in determining what a teacher's salary shall be, the natural feeling and knowledge on the part of all teachers who are rated low that the rating is personal and partial and unscientific more than offsets in loss of morale any possible gain which might otherwise attach to the use of this measure for administrative purposes.¹

The new Cincinnati schedule makes length of service and preparation the criteria for advancement to the higher salaries. Here an elementary teacher of more than ten years experience and superior professional preparation may reach a maximum of \$3250. The following paragraph is from the Cincinnati schedule:

Because of the practical impossibility of rating teachers subjectively, college graduation is set up as the standard of preparation for all future appointments of class-room teachers, and pay schedules are grouped in equivalents of years of college preparation. On the other hand, college degrees or their proportionate equivalents give no assurance of professional interest or adequate teaching, so reasonable amounts of approved cultural and professional study, coupled with satisfactory work and growth in teaching power will be the conditions upon which teachers will receive their annual increases or even retain their maximum salaries when they have attained them.²

Amount of preparation for teaching is similarly the basis for advancement to a supermaximum salary in Omaha according to the following excerpt from the Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education of that city:

Super-maximum Salary. Principals, teachers, assistant supervisors or supervisors who have served at least one year at the current maximum salary may be granted an increase of \$100 in salary upon presentation of six credits from an approved university, college or normal school. A second increase of \$100 will be granted for six additional or a total of twelve credits. A final increase of \$100 will be granted for a third set of six or eighteen credits. Advance in salary granted on this basis shall in no case exceed \$100 per year.

At least one-third of the work represented by each group of six credits must be in education. All courses must be approved in advance by the Committee on Promotive Requirements.³

Twenty percent of cities with supermaxima use professional preparation as the sole or principal criterion in determining who shall receive such maxima.

Superior ratings and performance and supermaxima. Table 18 indicates that 34 percent of cities with supermaximum salaries make merit ratings or some similar measurement of teaching performance the principal basis for advancement to the supermaximum, while an additional 13 percent combine ratings and merit with that of the amount of professional training. Below are reproduced in some detail the plans used in three cities in advancing teachers to supermaximum salaries.

Oakland, California, a far western city, applied the following plan to all members of the certificated staff in July, 1928. The normal maxima, after ten years service, are \$2460 for elementary teachers, \$2820 for high school teachers, and \$3660 and \$5160 respectively for the principals of large elementary and high schools. The special maxima, paid in addition to the normal maxima, are indicated in the following plan:

Special Maxima

First Special Maximum.....\$120
Requirements

1. At least one year's experience at the maximum rating provided in one of the regular schedules.
2. Twenty units of credit, not heretofore counted on salary schedule, earned while in the employ of the Oakland Public Schools, these units to be in the general field of education and in the teacher's special field—not more than one-half of these units to be in the special field—and a research study on some approved problem in education affecting the Oakland Public Schools which shall be adjudged the equivalent of a thesis for the Master's Degree.
3. Recommendation of supervisory staff, including principals and superintendents.
4. Application for first special maximum must be submitted to the Superintendent and evidence of having met the requirements adjudged by the Professional Study Board.

Second Special Maximum.....\$180
Requirements

1. Two years or more experience under the first special maximum.
2. A creative contribution to education made while in the service of the Oakland Public Schools and upon a problem directly affecting the Oakland Public Schools such contributions to consist of the equivalent of a dissertation for the Doctor's Degree. The merit of this con-

¹ Pages 105-7 of reference No. 9, cited on page 245 of this bulletin.

² *Salary Schedule*, Cincinnati Public Schools, 1927, p. 2.

³ *Rules and Regulations, and Salary Schedule*, Board of Education, Omaha, Nebraska, 1925, p. 23.

tribution is to be judged by the Professional Study Board of the Oakland Public Schools, the Dean of the School of Education of the University of California and the Dean of the School of Education of Stanford University.

3. Recommendations of supervisory staff, including principals and superintendents.
4. Application for second special maximum is to be submitted to the Superintendent and evidence evaluated by the Professional Study Board.¹

Kansas City, Missouri, a midwestern city thus describes its plan:

The super-salaries provided are not given for excess in preparation alone, but depend primarily and chiefly upon merit or the quality of teaching. The excess in professional preparation above the minimum requirements has no value to the school unless it results in better service in the school. The "superior qualities" and "superior results" specified must be distinctly better and higher than that described as "good and satisfactory," which is necessary to reach the maximum of \$1900. To be rated in the superior group and be eligible to a super-salary above \$1900 requires "superior qualities as a teacher" and "superior results in the classroom." This means that a teacher must have a progressive, loyal, professional, and helpful attitude toward all school interests and show a spirit of willing service both in class-room and in general school activities—all of which shall be a matter of common recognition by superintendents, supervisors, and principals. To be rated as "notably superior" and be eligible to a salary above \$2100, the above qualities must exist in a more marked degree and in addition, the teacher must possess "notably superior" qualities in leadership with students, teachers and patrons.

The special salaries are in accordance with the principle that superior professional preparation, superior power, and skill as a teacher and superior results in teaching be recognized by increased compensation. These salaries shall be determined by special action of the Board of Directors and shall be continued only so long as the type of work specified is maintained. The special advances shall not exceed in amount more than \$200 in any one year. It is further provided that in the case of a teacher who possesses notably superior power as a teacher and who secures notably superior results, such superiority may be accepted by the superintendent and the Board of Education in lieu of a part of the academic requirements prescribed.

In considering, evaluating and defining the abilities of teachers and the qualities of service rendered, the superintendent and his assistants shall use every means at their command to procure a just, unbiased and impartial judgment. For this purpose, the qualities constituting good teaching

shall be clearly analyzed, and so definitely stated that teachers may be able to analyze and estimate their own work and discover the elements of strength and weakness in their own teaching. In the supervision given, the terms used shall be, as far as possible, so clearly defined and so definitely stated that the teacher may not be in doubt as to what is expected of her. Such freedom, however, shall be allowed as to give the teacher large initiative in the use of sound principles and correct methods in securing results, and permit her to exercise and develop her own individual powers, rather than confine her to formal, definite narrow lines of procedure.

It is expected that the principles, methods, and terms used in the supervision shall be fully and freely discussed by the teachers and administrative and supervisory officers in order that a clear and definite understanding may be reached as to methods to be used and results to be obtained. The ultimate purpose is that all who are engaged in educational work may reach the highest plane in their own personal power and equipment and render the highest possible service to the district. When high professional ideals are held and when the worker is imbued with an ambition and a professional pride to reach them, then the best, the most exacting and the most helpful supervision is self-supervision.²

Washington, D. C., an eastern city has developed a plan into which a number of elements enter, the prepotent one being recorded success in teaching based upon ratings. In this city the normal maximum for elementary teachers in \$2200 and the supermaximum \$2600, and for high school teachers, \$2800 and \$3200. On page 244 is outlined the principal features of the Washington plan.³

In order to be considered for advancement to a supermaximum a score of not less than 700 points must be made on the examination. A teacher may take the examination after having been on the normal maximum one year. Approximately 250 Washington teachers had so qualified in June, 1927. Of this number 56 entered the examination, 41 passed and were advanced to the supermaximum salary. At the close of the school year 1927-28, 57 teachers took the examination and 27 qualified for the higher salary.

This section presents information as to the extent and general character of the movement to relate measures of teaching efficiency to salary paid. It is as yet too soon to decide whether the movement is a wise one, or whether professional efficiency is best encouraged through other available means than

¹ Oakland Public Schools, *Selection of Teachers and Schedule of Salaries*, Oakland, California, 1927. p. 11.

² *Rules and Regulations*, School District of Kansas City, Missouri, 1926. p. 28-30.

³ For further details, see *Report of the Board of Education*, 1926-27, District of Columbia, p. 43-7.

direct and more or less automatic tie-up with the salary received. Only longer carefully evaluated experience and additional research can answer these questions.

Selected References

1. ALMACK, J. C. and LANG, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1925. p. 175-95.
Discusses objections raised to the rating of teachers and the use of various devices of measurement. Names six purposes for which rating schemes are used. Maintains that value of rating lies in the stimulating of professional improvement rather than in the measuring of suitability for promotion or in determining salary increases on the basis of merit.
2. BALLOU, F. W. "Determining Who are Superior Teachers." *Elementary School Journal*, 28:256-62; December, 1927; also *Report of The Board of Education of the District of Columbia*, 1926-27. p. 43-7.
Presents schedule of supermaximum salaries paid to superior teachers in the elementary, junior high and senior high schools of Washington, D. C., with description of system for determining successful candidates for promotion to this schedule, on basis of efficiency ratings, promotional examinations and other criteria set up for determining eligibility.
3. BRUECKNER, L. J. "Scales for the Rating of Teaching Skill." *University of Minnesota Bulletin*, Vol. 30, No. 12 College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn., Feb. 18, 1927. 28 p.
Names three primary functions of teacher rating. Points out difficulties involved in the use of existing scales and seeks to develop a plan for measuring teaching skill on an objective basis. Scales developed provide for rating of teacher according to type of teaching methods used and are designed to be of value both for administrative and teacher improvement purposes.
4. CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS, *Report of Committee on the Study of Salaries*, Cincinnati, Ohio, May 24, 1926. 59 p.

THE SCOPE OF WRITTEN AND ORAL EXAMINATIONS AND THE APPORTIONMENT OF CREDITS FOR ADVANCEMENT TO SUPERMAXIMUM¹

	Maximum number of credits	
	Distributed	Total
A. Recorded success in teaching. Determined by the five official discriminated ratings in the office of the superintendent immediately prior to the date of the examination.		310
B. Familiarity with present-day educational theory and practice related to the teacher's line of work. Determined by a written examination, one hour in length.		200
C. Educational preparation. Accredited college or normal-school education courses over and above eligibility, taken during the past fifteen years, not to exceed ten in number. Courses are classified into the four groups given below.		100
Group 1. Those in the teacher's line of work.		
Group 2. Those in subjects allied to the teacher's line of work.		
Group 3. General courses in educational psychology and the profession of teaching.		
Group 4. Other education courses.		
D. Approved constructive educational work. Constructive, well-organized written educational investigations and plans made to official superiors and by them deemed worthy of adoption to carry out or improve the established educational program of the local schools or of the system as a whole, including contributions made to the work of important educational committees and individual investigations.		100
1. Investigations. Covering any or all of the following: methods of teaching, organization and management of school and line of work, educational welfare of local school community.	50	
2. Plans. Covering any or all of the following: methods of teaching, organization and management of school and line of work, educational welfare of local school community.	50	
E. Professional interest and growth (other than under C and D above).....		75
1. College or normal-school courses over and above eligibility other than under C. above, not to exceed ten courses, 4 credits each.	40	
2. Publications or manuscripts on educational subjects.	20	
3. Affiliations with educational associations.	6	
4. Travels.	9	
F. Civic interest—distinct from special educational work.		50
1. Civic associations and similar associations.	30	
(a) Membership—maximum, 6; (b) participation—maximum, 24.		
2. Lectures, articles, etc., prepared, of a non-professional nature, maximum, five, 2 credits each.	10	
3. Other outside contacts.	10	
G. Assigned work other than teaching.		50
H. Personal equipment of a superior teacher. Determined by questions on any of the foregoing parts of the examination or matters pertinent thereto.		115
Total.		1,000

¹ Page 261 of reference No. 2, cited above.

Presents single salary schedule one feature of which is a supermaximum salary increment to be paid after four years of service to those earning the Master of Arts degree. Rating as a basis of awarding this increment is rejected due to lack of objective standards of teaching ability and the influence of irrelevant factors which it is claimed render rating plans of doubtful validity.

5. CRABBS, LELAH MAE. *Measuring Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching*. Teachers College, Contributions to Education No. 176, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1925. 165 p.

Describes a practical program of supervision based on measurement and seeks to evolve a technic for the evaluation of such a program. Outlines the development of teacher rating methods. Describes results of applying Franzen teaching efficiency formula to urban and rural teachers.

6. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Public School Administration*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1922. p. 255-7, 264-9.

Among essential features a good salary schedule names "further salary increases beyond the common maximum to progressive and capable teachers, the basis for such payments being so arranged as to stimulate industry, encourage individual improvement and reward exceptional merit." Declares that a salary schedule based only in part on years of service and with additional rewards for growth and efficiency offers one of the best means for stimulating professional growth. The use of rating plans as a basis for fixing teachers' salaries is described as in accord with principles of efficiency and economy.

7. KIMBALL, FLORENCE. *Teacher Rating in the United States*. Minneapolis Grade Teachers' Association. Minneapolis, Minn., 1923. 19 p.

A survey of teacher rating practices in the United States based on replies to questionnaire received from two hundred and fifteen superintendents. Presents table indicating bases of salary increases and relation of rating of teachers to salaries in twenty-five large cities. Summarizes provisions of fifty-four printed plans. Quotes opinions of educators in favor of or opposing rating.

8. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*, Century Co., New York City, 1925. p. 190-213.

Reports results of Buckingham's study in 1922 to the effect that among superintendents of 156 school systems who were questioned,

more than ninety percent declared teachers should be rated, and while in 77 percent of school systems a definite scheme of rating was in operation, less than half of the superintendents used rating plans as a basis for promotion, salary increases, transfers, or termination of teachers' services.

9. MCGAUGHY, JAMES R. and OTHERS. *Teachers' Salaries in New York City*, Final Report of Citizen's Committee on Teachers' Salaries. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927. p. 115-18, 136, 137-9, 192-3.

Describes supermaximum feature of proposed salary schedule and defends committee's action in introducing this feature based on teacher's professional preparation. Rejects teacher rating as a basis of promotion to the supermaximum schedule due to the subjective nature of rating plans thus far devised. Since we are not yet able to define, much less to measure the product of education, the possibility of measuring objectively teaching efficiency in turning out that product is denied.

10. MOORE, J. G. "The Rating of Teachers." *American School Board Journal*, 75:49; December, 1927.

Names objectives and gives characteristics of good rating plans. States that while value of rating is dependent upon local school situation, in many school systems it may prove a useful administrative device.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, COMMITTEE OF ONE HUNDRED ON CLASSROOM TEACHERS' PROBLEMS. *Report on Teacher Rating*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., July, 1925.

A summary of the teacher rating situation in American schools. Arguments for and against rating and fundamental principles and data on prevalence of rating plans are presented.

12. WHITNEY, FREDERIC L. *The Growth of Teachers in Service*, Century Co., New York City, 1927. p. 42-55, 143-53, 207-12.

Discusses methods of teacher rating. Suggests method based on activity analysis and the "trade-test" form of arrangement of material as being most helpful. States that in a number of school systems rating plans in connection with schemes for basing salaries on merit are being tried out in advance of any relation to changes in salaries while in others the idea of relating teacher improvement to the salary schedule has been abandoned. Summarizes details of reports on teacher rating plans in thirty-one school systems under 5000 in population and seventy city school systems as to items of technic and gives tentative ranking of methods in order of value.

Salaries of Men and Women Teachers

Table 19 gives facts as to the present practice affecting the payment of salaries of men and women teachers. Of the 1532 cities replying, 908 or 59 percent indicated positions in their school systems in which men receive higher salaries than women of equal training and experience. This percent is not representative for the larger cities, however.

Seventy-seven percent of the cities over 100,000, and 52 percent of those from 30,000 to 100,000 reporting, answered that they did not have positions in which men receive higher salaries than women of equal training and experience.

Table 19 also reveals the positions in which differentiation is made between the salaries

TABLE 19.—DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN SALARIES PAID MEN AND WOMEN IN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Are there positions in which men receive higher salaries than women of equal training and experience?	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Yes.....	14	21.2	83	51.6	206	63.2	259	65.2	346	59.5	908	59.3
No.....	51	77.3	75	46.5	112	34.4	135	34.0	219	37.6	592	38.6
No report.....	1	1.5	3	1.9	8	2.4	3	.8	17	2.9	32	2.1
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Positions in which men are paid higher salaries than women of equal training and experience:												
Elementary school teachers.....	2 ¹		11		16		30		42		101	
Junior high school teachers.....	3		52		90		97		95		337	
Senior high school teachers.....	12 ¹		77		175		229		279		772	
Elementary school principals.....	2		30		53		61		83		229	
Junior high school principals.....	1		15		46		48		67		177	
Senior high school principals.....	4		21		60		100		149		334	
Cities having rules requiring salaries of men and women of equal training and experience holding similar positions:												
To be the same.....	37	56.1	52	32.3	91	27.9	77	19.4	110	18.9	366	23.9
To be different.....	4	6.1	19	11.8	43	13.2	33	8.3	20	3.4	119	7.8
No rule.....	24	36.3	87	54.0	188	57.7	285	71.8	436	74.9	1,021	66.6
No report.....	1	1.5	3	1.9	4	1.2	2	.5	16	2.8	26	1.7
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0
Nature of statute or rule effecting salaries paid men and women:												
State law.....	16	39.0	24	33.8	54	40.3	50	45.5	64	49.3	198	40.8
City ordinance.....	1	2.4									1	.2
Rule of the board of education.....	5	12.2	14	19.7	23	17.2	18	16.4	18	13.8	78	16.1
Local salary schedule.....	17	41.5	31	43.7	48	35.8	38	34.5	32	24.6	173	35.7
No report.....	2	4.9	2	2.8	9	6.7	4	3.6	16	12.3	35	7.2
Total.....	41	100.0	71	100.0	134	100.0	110	100.0	130	100.0	485	100.0

Read table as follows: Fourteen or 21.2 percent of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population replying, reported as having positions within their school systems in which men receive higher salaries than women of equal training and experience; 51, or 77.3 percent reported as not having positions paying higher salaries to men; 1 city left this question blank.

The following positions were reported the following number of times, by the fourteen cities reporting positions in which men receive higher salaries than women of equal training and experience: elementary school teachers 2; junior high school teachers, 3; senior high school teachers, 12; elementary school principals, 2; junior high school principals, 1; and senior high school principals, 4.

Of the 66 cities over 100,000 replying, 37, or 56.1 percent reported as having rules requiring salaries of men and women of equal training and experience holding similar positions to be the same; 4, or 6.1 percent reported as having rules requiring the salaries to be different; 24, or 36.3 percent reported as having no rules governing this provision; and 1 city left this question blank.

Of the 41 cities reporting as having rules requiring salaries of men and women of equal training and experience holding similar positions to be either the same or different, 16, or 39.0 percent, reported that this rule was governed by state law; 1, or 2.4 percent, reported city ordinance; 5, or 12.2 percent, reported rule of the board of education; 17, or 41.5 percent, reported local salary schedule; and 2 cities left this question blank.

Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to questions 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20 of the inquiry blank, reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ One city stated that this applied to "colored only."

of men and women as reported by the 908 cities reporting such differentiation. Since more than one position is affected in many cities, the total number of positions reported is several times the number of cities which report paying men higher salaries than women.

Table 19 shows the number of cities with formal rules which require that men and women holding similar positions and with equal training and experience shall receive either different or equal salaries. Two-thirds of the cities report no rule covering the point. This indicates that the payment of equal or different salaries to men and women is based on informal practice rather than upon definite regulations which express the policy of the Board of Education. In a majority of the large cities, however, this matter is governed by a formal local or state regulation.

The last item of Table 19 indicates the type of formal regulation affecting the salaries of men and women where such regulation exists. Forty percent of the 485 cities with a formal rule or act governing the matter are bound by a state law; and 52 percent by a rule of the local board of education or the provisions of the salary schedule adopted by the local board.

Limitations of space preclude discussion in this Bulletin of the many opinions which have been expressed pro and con on this question, or of such research as bears on the issue. A brief bibliography is appended of some of the more recent statements which have been made upon the subject.

Selected References

1. ALMACK, J. C. and LANG, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1925. p. 245-7.

Names arguments that have been advanced favoring higher salaries for men teachers than for equally qualified women teachers. Concludes that none of these are justified on sound logical and factual basis. States that law of supply and demand is responsible for higher salaries paid men in school positions.

2. DEFFENBAUGH, W. S. *Recent Movements in City School Systems*. U. S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1927, No. 8. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1927. 26 p.

States that defense of some boards for establishing a differential in the salary schedule in favor of men teachers, is on basis

of law of supply and demand. Contends that equal salaries should be paid wherever possible but that if capable men are to be held in the profession their salaries must not be lowered to equal those now paid women.

3. "Equal Pay," *Elementary School Journal* 25: 405-6; February, 1925.

Extracts from report of school superintendent of Little Falls, N. Y. setting forth problems arising in connection with enforcement of New York law requiring equal pay for men and women teachers. Declares that raising salaries of women teachers to equal those of men will necessitate a large increase in school budget for salaries while to lower men's salaries to equal those of women will result in damage to school system. Suggests family wage for all teachers as a possible solution.

4. "Equal Pay for Equal Service." *American Educational Digest* 45:113-14; November, 1925.

Presents arguments of Kansas City Schoolmen's Club against "equal pay for equal service" slogan. Equal compensation of men and women teachers opposed on grounds that such a practice would be contrary to operation of law of supply and demand, that cost of living of men is higher due to greater number of dependents, that men carry a heavier extra-curricular load and that preference for men teachers is evidenced by parents.

5. KOCH, HARLAN C. "Is There a Difference Between the Problems of Men and Women Teachers." *Educational Research Bulletin* 5:163-6; April 14, 1926, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

An analysis of the difficulties of men and women teachers in the public schools the result of which supports the contention that "the qualities desired in a teacher are more characteristic of an individual than of a sex."

6. LEWIS, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*, Century Co., New York City, 1925. p. 267-73.

Discusses feminization of classroom teaching and growing demand for "equal pay for equal service." States that average salary of women teachers in United States is approximately 74 percent that of men. Predicts that as long as women outnumber men seeking the same positions and as long as women can be employed in other occupations at lower salaries than men, equalization of salaries between the sexes will be difficult. Names equal pay as a principle of salary schedule construction which should be adopted where possible.

7. MCGAUGHY, JAMES AND OTHERS. *Teachers' Salaries in New York City*, Final Report of Citizen's Committee on Teachers' Salaries. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927. p. 75-83, 108-9, 120, 127.

Reports rejection by committee of salary differentiation on the basis of sex as a factor in construction of proposed New York City schedules. Cites as reasons for Committee's action, lack of evidence of relationship between sex and teaching ability and the New York State law requiring that men and women in corresponding educational positions be paid equal salaries. Presents figures on dependents of men and women teachers.

8. MEEKER, ROYAL. *A Study of Costs and Standards of Living of Minneapolis Teachers in Relation to their Salaries*. Central Committee of Teachers' Association, Minneapolis, Minn., September, 1926. p. 10-11.

Presents data on number of dependents of single and married men and women teachers in Minneapolis public schools.

9. "Men's and Women's Salaries in Cincinnati Schools." *School and Society* 24:39; July 10, 1926.

Reports protest, through a committee of ten, of women teachers in Cincinnati High Schools against the establishment of a higher maximum salary for men. Sets forth reasons on which objection is based.

Number of Monthly Salary Payments

There has been some tendency to extend the payments of a teacher's annual salary over the full twelve months. It has been pointed out that the custom of paying teachers for the school year as opposed to the calendar year term, has caused their annual income to be overestimated in the popular mind.¹ A teacher who receives \$150 a month for nine or ten months with a resulting yearly income from teaching of \$1350 or \$1500 is popularly compared with the person receiving such a salary for twelve months for a total income of \$1800.

Teachers have to live twelve months. Their vacation period should be so financed that it may be used for professional improvement and recreation. Otherwise the teacher

finds it necessary temporarily to "live off the folks," or to become a temporary book agent or summer camp menial. Such a situation is not likely to contribute to an efficient professional personnel for the nation's classrooms.

On the other hand, granting that the total annual salary is adequate, teachers should be sufficient masters of their own affairs so that it makes little difference whether the total sum is received in ten, twelve, or some other number of payments. This question is a matter of opinion.

For those seeking the facts, Table 20 reveals the extent to which the movement for twelve payments has progressed. Eleven percent of the cities reporting have adopted the twelve-month payment plan.

¹ Almack, J. C. and Lang, A. R. *Problems of the Teaching Profession*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1925. p. 235.

TABLE 20.—NUMBER OF MONTHS OVER WHICH THE PAYMENT OF TEACHER'S ANNUAL SALARY EXTEND

Number of months	66 Cities over 100,000 in population		161 Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		326 Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		397 Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		582 Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		1,532 Cities over 2,500 in population	
	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent	Num- ber	Per- cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Eight months.....							1	.3	4	.7	5	.3
Nine months.....	6 ¹	9.1	30 ²	18.6	114 ³	35.0	153 ⁴	38.6	308 ⁵	52.9	611	39.9
Ten months.....	48	72.7	101 ³	62.7	176	54.0	193 ⁷	48.4	210	36.1	728	47.5
Eleven months.....			3	1.9			2	.6	1	.2	6	.4
Twelve months.....	12	18.2	27 ⁴	16.8	33	10.1	48	12.1	50	8.6	170	11.1
No report.....					3	.9			9	1.5	12	.8
Total.....	66	100.0	161	100.0	326	100.0	397	100.0	582	100.0	1,532	100.0

Read table as follows: Of the 66 cities over 100,000 in population reporting 6 or 9.1 percent, extend the annual salary over 9 monthly payments; 48, or 72.7 percent over 10 monthly payments; 12, or 18.2 percent over 12 months. Similarly read data for other population groups.

Tabulation is based on replies to question 20 of the inquiry blank reproduced on page 250ff.

Footnotes:

¹ Two of these 6 cities pay for 9½ months.

² Five of these 30 cities pay for 9½ months; 2 pay for 9¼ months, and 1 for 9¾ months.

³ Six of these 101 cities pay for 10 or 12 months.

⁴ One of these 27 cities pays for 9 months if under \$1,200, and 12 months if over \$1,200.

⁵ Fifteen of these 114 cities pay for 9½ months; 1 for 9¾ months.

⁶ Ten of these 153 cities pay for 9½ months; 1 pays for 9¼ months; 1 city leaves the choice of 9 or 12 months to the teachers themselves.

⁷ Five of these 193 cities report that teachers may have a choice of 10 or 12 months.

⁸ Nine of these 308 cities pay for 9½ months.

Form Used In Collecting Data

On this and the three subsequent pages is data presented in most of the tables given in reproduced the form used in collecting the this bulletin.

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March 20, 1928

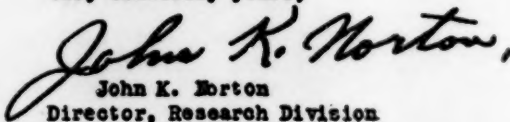
Administrative Practices Relating to Teachers' Salaries

To the Superintendent of Schools:

The Research Division receives many inquiries from superintendents of schools on the topics dealt with in this questionnaire.

So that we may be in a position to answer these requests will you kindly give us the information requested in the attached sheet? Experiments here at headquarters show that it will take approximately six minutes to fill in your replies.

Very sincerely yours,


John K. Norton
Director, Research Division

Replies which reach us not later than April 1, 1928, can be included in our general summary.

The extra copy of the inquiry may be retained for your files.

Return one copy only, to:

Research Division, National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES RELATING TO TEACHERS' SALARIES

Educational Qualifications of Newly Appointed Teachers

1. Check below the number of years of training *beyond high school graduation* required of newly appointed teachers in your city:

(Indicate by check mark the number of years' training required in each type of school.)

Elementary School Teachers. Number of years' training required:	Junior High School Teachers. Number of years' training required:	Senior High School Teachers. Number of years' training required:
One year.....	One year.....	One year.....
Two years.....	Two years.....	Two years.....
Three years.....	Three years.....	Three years.....
Four years.....	Four years.....	Four years.....
Five years.....	Five years.....	Five years.....

Married Women as Teachers

2. Has your board of education a rule or policy against the appointment of new teachers who are married women?

Yes..... No.....

(Indicate answer by check mark.)

3. Does your school board require women teachers who marry to give up their positions at once? Yes.....

No..... At the end of the school year? Yes..... No.....

(Indicate answer by check mark.)

(Indicate answer by check mark.)

Written Examinations

4. Does your school system conduct written examinations in any form in connection with employing new teachers?

Yes..... No.....

(Indicate answer by check mark.)

In connection with promoting employees within the service? Yes..... No.....

(Indicate answer by check mark.)

Sick Leave

5. What part of the regular salary is paid to teachers taking sick leave?

(Check below)

Full salary.....

Half salary.....

Full salary, less pay of substitute.....

Some other fraction of salary.....

No salary.....

6. If sick leave with some salary is allowed:

a. How many days are allowed in one year?.....

b. Is the allowance cumulative, i. e., may the days not used during one year be added to those of later years?

Yes..... No.....

(Indicate answer by check mark.)

c. During how many years may sick leave allowance accumulate?.....

(Indicate number of years.)

Leaves of Absence for Professional Improvement

7. Do you grant leaves of absence to teachers for professional improvement? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
8. What part of the regular salary is paid to teachers taking leave for professional improvement?
(Check below)
Full salary.....
Half salary.....
Full salary, less pay of substitute.....
Some other fraction of salary.....
No salary.....

Financial Reward for Additional Training

9. Is a direct financial reward granted to teachers for attending *summer school*? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
a. Is such reward made on the basis of the number of college or university credits earned?
Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
b. What is the amount of such reward?.....
c. Is this a permanent salary increase? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
10. Is a direct financial reward granted to teachers for professional courses taken *during the school year*?
Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
a. Is such reward made on the basis of the number of college or university credits earned?
Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
b. What is the amount of such reward?.....
c. Is this a permanent salary increase? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
11. Do you make any direct financial reward for educative travel? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)

Ratings

12. Have you a plan under which all teachers are definitely rated as to quality of service rendered? Yes.....
No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
13. Does a teacher's rating *directly* and automatically determine the amount of her salary increase for the following year?
Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)

Super-maximum Salaries

14. Beyond the regular maximum of your salary schedule do you have a super-maximum to which regular teachers with special qualifications may be promoted? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)
15. If a super-maximum salary is provided, list the bases upon which a teacher's promotion from the regular maximum to the super-maximum is dependent:
- _____
- _____

Salaries of Men Teachers

16. Are there positions in your school system in which men receive higher salaries than women of equal training and experience? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)

17. If question 16 is answered "Yes," check below the groups of employees among which such positions are found:

- Elementary school teachers.....
- Junior high school teachers.....
- Senior high school teachers.....
- Elementary school principals.....
- Junior high school principals.....
- Senior high school principals.....

18. Is there any statute or rule affecting your school system which requires that the salaries of men and of women, of equal training and experience, and employed in the same types of positions, be the *same*? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)

19. Is there any statute or rule affecting your school system which requires that the salaries of men and of women, of equal training and experience, and employed in the same types of positions, be *different*? Yes.....No.....
(Indicate answer by check mark.)

20. If question 18 or 19 was answered "Yes," check below the nature of such statute or rule:

- State law.....
- City ordinance.....
- Rule of the board of education.....
- Local salary schedule.....

Ten-month or Twelve-month Basis for Paying Teachers' Salaries

21. Over how many months does the payment of a teacher's annual salary extend?

(Check below)

- Nine months.....
- Ten months.....
- Eleven months.....
- Twelve months.....

Name of person reporting:.....

Official position:.....

City:.....State:.....

Return one copy only, to: Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Washington, D. C.

Please include with the questionnaire two copies of the salary schedule now in effect in your school system.

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States the fundamental principles of a teacher retirement system with particular emphasis upon value of such a system in improving school efficiency. Presents an analysis of state and local requirements now in effect.

 HE ECONOMIC effects of public education are scarcely capable of exaggeration. As producers and claimants of their respective shares of the product and as consumers of wealth, the whole character of a people is governed by the degree and the nature of the education which it enjoys. The economic superiority of the United States and the other leading nations of the world, or equally the economic inferiority of such nations as China and India, is without doubt largely to be ascribed to differences in education.—*Fairchild, F. R.; Furniss, E. S.; Buck, N. S. Elementary Economics, page 201.*