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The Professional Status of Teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region

William Lyle Evernden
University of Tennessee - Knoxville

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by William Lyle Evernden entitled "The Professional Status of Teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region." I have examined the final electronic copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration.

Dr. Orin B. Graff, Major Professor

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Dr. Galen N. Drewry, Dr. E.O. Wilton, Professor Ira N. Chiles, Dr. John W. Gilliland

Accepted for the Council:
Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

December 1, 1959

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by William Lyle Evernden entitled "The Professional Status of Teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.

Major Professor

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Dean of the Graduate School

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THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION

A THESIS

Submitted to
The Graduate Council
of
The University of Tennessee
in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Education

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by

William Lyle Evernden

December 1959

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Working with the writer's doctoral committee, with its able and understanding chairman Dr. Orin B. Graff, and with those effervescent and ebullient seekers-after-truth (the research teams involved in the Education Sub-Project of the Southern Appalachian Studies) has been a privilege in three dimensions--intellectual, professional, and personal.

To those and to all others who have assisted in any way in its financing, investigation, and preparation, this study is most respectfully dedicated.

W. L. E.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

General Introduction

The rise of teaching as a profession had been a fascinating, if slow-moving, thread in the fabric of the world's history. Teachers, who had comprised one of society's oldest vocational groups, were seriously attempting to become one of its newest professional groups. The extent to which this professionalization had taken place and the direction and speed of its movement was an appropriate subject for enquiry by anyone who was interested in the part that education was playing and would play in the development and security of the democratic way of life.

Huggett and Stinnett, in Professional Problems of Teachers, had this to say about the situation:

> The present status of teaching as a profession . . . still leaves much to be achieved. It has been shown that in many respects teaching does exhibit the characteristics of a profession, in some it does not. It should be noted, too, that the status of teaching differs widely from place to place and among teaching levels. In many modern school systems most of the marks of a profession are present. In some rural areas, few of these marks are evident. To sum up the case, it seems fairly clear that teaching can attain true professional status, if a few obstacles are removed and a few conditions are improved.[1]

In step with the general reawakening in the South, and to help to ferret out these "obstacles" and to suggest means for meeting them on all

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[1]A. J. Huggett and T. M. Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956), p. 27.

fronts, the Education Sub-Project of the Southern Appalachian Studies was initiated. In 1958, financed by the Ford Foundation and under the leadership of Dr. W. D. Weatherford of Berea College, Kentucky, the Southern Appalachian Studies began serious and extensive investigations of sixteen major facets of cultural and economic conditions in the Southern Appalachian Mountains.

That part of the study concerned with all aspects of the field of education was directed by Dr. Orin B. Graff, Head of the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, University of Tennessee. In addition to the report of the study itself, a number of related and interlocking theses were undertaken by graduate students in the College of Education, University of Tennessee, on specific aspects of the problems of education in the Southern Appalachian Mountains. These included intensive studies by Byar[2], DeLozier[3], Dykes[4] and Smawley[5] in addition to this one. At the time of writing an investigation concerned with the offerings, changes and current trends in the curriculum of the senior

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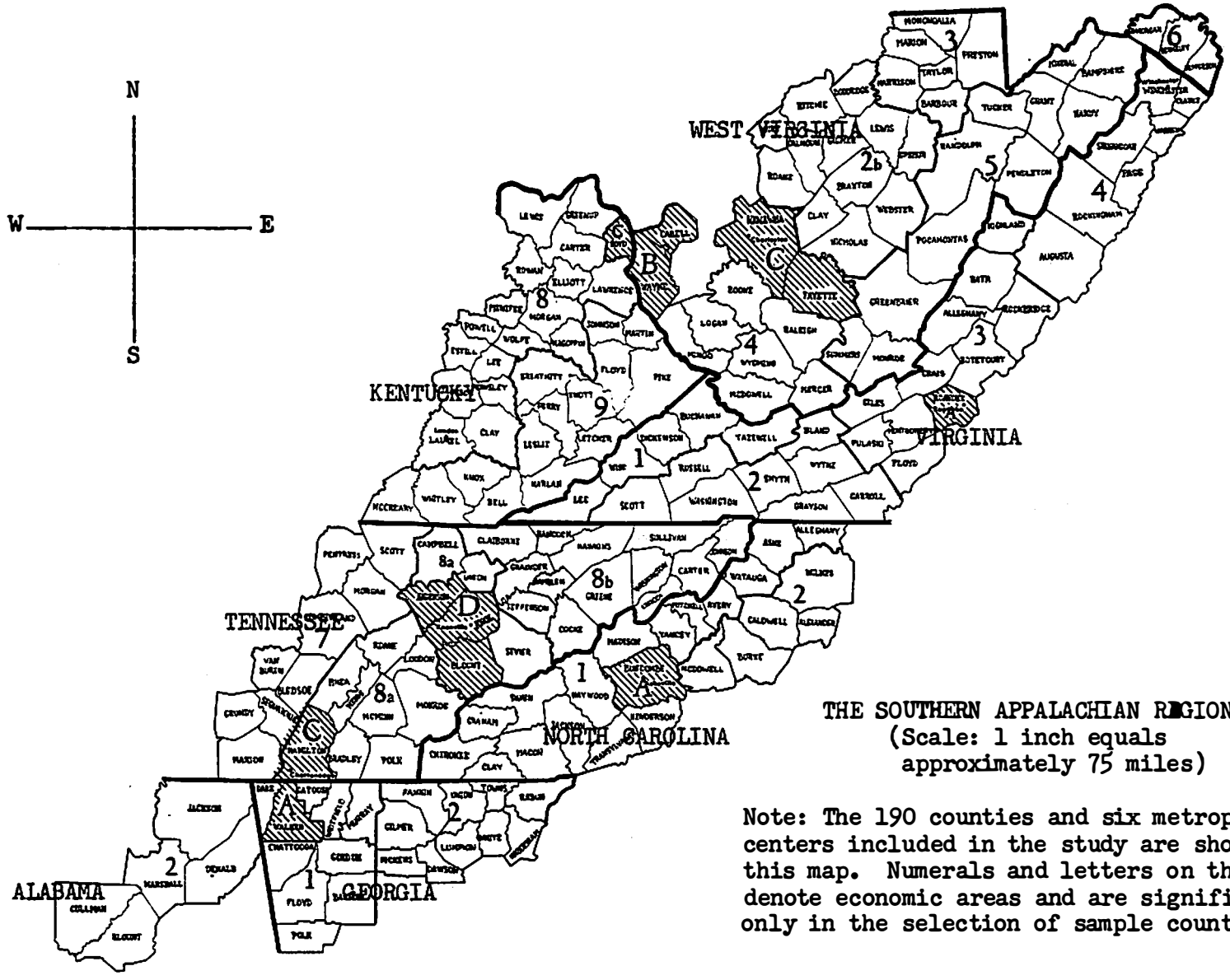
[2]T. Madison Byar, "A Study of the Student Populations in the Institutions of Higher Education in the Southern Appalachian Region, 1933-1959 (with estimate of needs by 1969)" (Unpublished Ed. D. thesis, The University of Tennessee, August 1959).

[3]Robert Campbell DeLozier, "Public School Enrollment Predictions for the Southern Appalachian Region" (Unpublished M. S. thesis, The University of Tennessee, August 1959).

[4]Archie Reece Dykes, "A Study of Public School Finance in the Southern Appalachian Region" (Unpublished Ed. D. thesis, The University of Tennessee, December 1959).

[5]Robert B. Smawley, "Changes in Purposes and Programs of Colleges and Universities of the Southern Appalachian Region" (Unpublished M. S. thesis, The University of Tennessee, August 1959).



THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION
(Scale: 1 inch equals
approximately 75 miles)

Note: The 190 counties and six metropolitan centers included in the study are shown on this map. Numerals and letters on this map denote economic areas and are significant only in the selection of sample counties.

high school in the Southern Appalachian Region was being carried out by Roy L. Cox.

It was felt that when all the information available from the Southern Appalachian Studies was brought together and made available as an interrelated whole, the teachers, administrators, professional organizations and, indeed, all the people of the Southern Appalachian Region would be better able to grapple with the educational problems with which they were faced.

Statement of the Problem

The problem in this study was to investigate, analyze and assess the progress made toward the development of a teaching profession in the Southern Appalachian Region.

Sub-Problems

1. Pertaining to criteria, measurement and assessment of findings:

(a) To develop criteria against which the degree of professionalization of teachers could be measured;

(b) To determine which of these criteria would give the fullest and most adequate measure of the development of a teaching profession in the Southern Appalachian Region;

(c) To determine by which means the professional characteristics of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region might be measured and

assessed against the developed criteria;

(d) To gather information about the teachers in the region pertinent to the developed criteria of professionalization.

2. To analyze information dealing with certain of the developed criteria of professionalization for selected teachers and for selected counties in the Southern Appalachian Region and to compare it with similar data available:

(a) On a state-wide basis for states within the region;

(b) On a nation-wide basis for the nation as a whole.

3. To investigate the part played by professional organizations within the region, and their place in the development of a profession of teaching.

4. To appraise the findings of the study and to indicate implications of the study for:

(a) Professional development of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region;

(b) Administration of education in the Southern Appalachian Region;

(c) Further investigation of the problems involved in the development of a profession of teaching.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were considered basic to this study:

1. That the extent to which teachers as a group met the standards of a profession was of vital concern to all the citizens of a

twentieth-century democracy.

2. That there was a direct relationship between the degree of professionalization of teachers and the extent to which society attained the goals and objectives which democracy had indicated as appropriate for education.

3. That criteria could be developed and that characteristics pertaining to a sufficient number of these criteria could be measured and evaluated whereby it would be possible to assess the relative level of professional status of the entire group of teachers in a given geographical region.

4. That insight gained from this assessment of the professional status of teachers would make it possible to so direct the aims, objectives and methods of programs in teacher selection and teacher education as to facilitate the attainment of educational aims.

Value of the Study

In the early days of public education "keeping school" was a very simple task in which the teacher needed to know a little bit more about the basic skill subjects than his pupils, had to be able to keep good order and discipline, and strove to inculcate into his not-always-diminuitive charges a profound respect for the authority and infallibility of all adults. These relatively simple competencies required a minimum of academic achievement on the part of the teacher, little or no pedagogical training, and few of the attributes which have since come to be associated with a professional person.

Twentieth-century society, however, confronted teachers with more complex problems and with greater challenges than those faced by teachers in any simpler era. The magnitude of the responsibilities of education in our culture, not only for fuller living but for survival, could hardly be overstated.

In numbers alone, teachers provided a significantly large proportion of the professional population to merit extensive consideration of their attempts to achieve a higher professional status. According to the 1950 census of the United States, teachers in public elementary and secondary schools numbered well over 25 per cent of all workers classified in twenty-three professional groups. Their numbers exceeded twice the combined totals of all the clergymen, architects, dentists, lawyers, medical doctors and optometrists in the country. If one were to add to this group of public elementary and secondary teachers all the private and parochial school teachers, teachers in public and private institutions of higher education, and those engaged in the supervision and administration of education at all levels, the total number of people involved would have been approximately one-third of all professional workers in the United States.

Numbers alone, however, could not convey a concept of the true place of teachers in a democratic society. The responsibilities faced by those engaged in the field of education in this nuclear age were a truer mark of the stature to which the profession had to aspire if it were to fulfill its proper function in the emerging social order.

Highlighted by the accelerating pace of social and technological change in the world and in the nation, the whole broad field of education was much in the public eye these last few years. In no part of the United States were these technological and social changes more pronounced than in the Southern Appalachian Region. In the Southern Appalachian Region, therefore, the place of education in the changing culture, and the place of teachers in their educational, professional and cultural settings would most readily lend themselves to study, assessment and reorientation.

This study was directed toward a determination of the current professional status of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region, with particular emphasis on trends in teacher-professionalization both in the past and as they seemed to presage professional evolution in the future. With accurate knowledge of the current state of the profession and the direction in which it was moving those who were responsible for the education of teachers and those whose tasks were intimately concerned with the administration and supervision of education would be better able to lead the way in the fulfillment of the role of education in an expanding cultural setting.

Limitations of the Study

The nature of the undertaking and the purposes of the study limited the investigations to:

1. An intensive study of a sample of teachers distributed throughout the Southern Appalachian Region in four selected metropolitan

public school systems, five selected rural county public school systems with increasing school populations, five selected rural county public school systems with relatively static school populations, and five selected rural county public school systems with decreasing school populations.

2. An extensive study of certain records in the school superintendents' offices in the metropolitan and rural county public school systems referred to in number one above, and in the state departments of education in the seven states which comprised the Southern Appalachian Region.

3. An extensive study of certain records and publications of teachers' professional organizations extant in the states of the Southern Appalachian Region, and of the National Education Association, for the purpose of obtaining state-wide and nation-wide data comparable to that obtained on an individual and county basis.

4. A consideration of the state of the profession in terms of the numbers of teachers by age and sex, salary, training, professional work-load, extra-professional work activities, professionally-related extra classroom activities, continuity of teaching service, mobility of teachers, activities of teachers in self-governing professional organizations, and continued professional growth.

General Procedures

In order to achieve the purposes of this study, three principal methods of research were used. In determining the background factors

which led up to the present cultural and educational characteristics of the region, the historical method was utilized.

The normative-survey method provided the data on which the assessment of the current state of the teaching profession was based. This included interviews, correspondence, questionnaires, searches of county and state department records, and a study of the publications of state departments and state and national professional organizations.

The final comparisons, analyses and tabulations of data employed the statistical method of research.

Specific Procedures Employed in the Collection and Treatment of Data

As has been stated previously, this study was one of six made in conjunction with the education sub-project of the Southern Appalachian Studies. In order that the separate studies might cover as broad as possible a segment of the field of education and still retain an interrelation as integral and complementary parts of the whole study, the cooperative method of planning was employed.

As early as June, 1958, planning sessions were begun by members of the education section of the Southern Appalachian Studies at the University of Tennessee. At these meetings, continuing through October, 1959, plans were made for the selection of sample counties for intensive study, for the methods of gathering extensive data for the region as a whole, for related topics for study by individual members of the research group, and for setting up the machinery whereby teams of researchers

could visit the sample rural counties and metropolitan centers. Later in the study, meetings were also held for the purpose of assessment of data collected and progress made, for return visits of research teams where necessary, and for a final recapitulation and "firming-up" of findings and recommendations.

Since the only reasonably comprehensive study of the region previously made and currently available was that published by the United States Department of Agriculture[6] in 1935, it was decided by the research group that, wherever possible, the lines of investigation set forth in that study would be pursued in the Southern Appalachian Studies. It was felt that this procedure would give a continuity to the two studies which would make it possible to better assess trends in the growth of education and in the development of facilities and personnel for the improvement of education in the region.

Accordingly, the plan for the selection of counties and metropolitan centers for intensive study proceeded on the following bases:

First, the "economic areas" of the Southern Appalachian Region as defined by the United States Department of Agriculture and based on sixty-six topographically, economically, socially and agriculturally oriented criteria should be taken into consideration in the selection.

Second, the selection should involve counties widely distributed by states, as nearly as possible on a per-capita basis. They should be

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[6]United States Department of Agriculture, Economic and Social Problems and Conditions of the Southern Appalachians, Miscellaneous Publication No. 205 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935).

within the geographical borders of the Southern Appalachian Region and representative of every state comprising the Region.

Third, since this portion of the total Southern Appalachian Studies was concerned exclusively with education, the primary criterion on which the selection of counties was based should be an education criterion. Consequently, much discussion, investigation, pooling of ideas, and consultation with available experts in the field of educational research resulted in committee agreement that the single criterion most pertinently related to current problems in education was concerned with whether the school population in a given system were decreasing rapidly, remaining stable, or increasing rapidly. This criterion was considered to be a function of certain social and economic upheavals around which most current problems in education were centered. Accordingly, a study was made of school enrollments for each of the 190 counties in the Region over a twelve-year period from 1945 to 1957 by three-year intervals. As a result of this analysis all 190 counties were classified into three groups: those with rapidly decreasing public school enrollments; those with relatively stable public school enrollments; and those with rapidly increasing public school enrollments. From these lists, with attention to state boundaries and the geographical boundaries of the economic sub-regions or areas within the Region, a total of thirty counties was chosen for potential intensive study.

It was the decision of the research group that any number of rural counties between thirteen and eighteen would represent an adequate sampling of the region, and that any number over twenty would be too

large to be handled intensively with the resources available. Since the fourth important consideration in the selection of systems to be studied was the willingness of county school officials within the sample counties to participate in the study on a co-operative and enthusiastic basis, it was decided to contact more counties than the number finally settled upon for intensive study.

A measure of the accessibility from research headquarters at the University of Tennessee, combined with an appraisal of the budget as set up for travel of research teams, further reduced the selection to twenty-three potential rural counties. Letters were then sent to the Superintendents of Schools in each of these twenty-three counties, outlining briefly the background, procedures and purposes of the study and the amount of local participation required in order to make the study a success. Each letter offered fuller information if desired, and requested that each superintendent of schools notify the research group if he wished his school system to participate in the study. From the replies received, a total of fifteen rural counties was chosen, five in each of the school population classifications previously described.

Of a total of six metropolitan centers in the region, four were chosen for intensive study. One of these was chosen because it constituted the only combined county-city school system to be found among the metropolitan centers. The other three were chosen on the basis of willingness to participate, accessibility from the research center at the University of Tennessee, and because they were located in areas to which the fifteen rural counties were not contiguous.

Years chosen for data-gathering and study were 1939-40, 1949-50 and 1958-59. The years 1939-40 and 1949-50 were chosen because they followed at even ten-year intervals the year 1929-30 on which was based the United States Department of Agriculture publication[7] previously referred to. The years 1939-40 and 1949-50 had the advantages of corresponding to the United States decennial census years and of representing prewar and postwar years. The year 1958-59 was chosen as the current year for which the most timely and in some instances the only data were available.

Members of the research group prepared forms suitable for gathering data pertinent to each aspect of the study, and provided copies of these forms for the teams who visited the sample systems. A sample of the form used to gather information included in this study was inserted in the study as Appendix A.

As a means of procuring more detailed data about a relatively small but widely distributed sample of teachers, a rather lengthy questionnaire was prepared by the writer. This questionnaire was submitted to the research group for criticism and suggestions, and after numerous revisions both in the wording and arrangement of questions, the fourth draft of the questionnaire was finally considered acceptable by the group. A copy of the questionnaire was included in Appendix B of this study.

Five hundred copies of the questionnaire were reproduced by the multilith process and placed in envelopes. Each envelope was addressed

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[7] Loc. cit.

to the writer and carried return postage. Packets of thirty questionnaires each were made up, complete with instruction sheets addressed, "To The Supervisor" (see Appendix C), and taken to the county schools office of each county by the research teams. In each case the superintendent of schools gave his permission to have the questionnaires distributed in his county, and one of the supervisors accepted responsibility for their distribution. Instructions to the supervisors were designed to attempt to get the widest possible distribution of questionnaires to teachers in different situations. In two of the sample school systems less than thirty questionnaires were accepted for distribution. Consequently, a total of 492 questionnaires was distributed to teachers in the region, of which 258 were returned fully or partially completed. A list of the numbers of questionnaires sent out and the numbers and per cent of returns by county, state and region were inserted in this study in Appendix D.

The writer perceived in this method of distribution of questionnaires a probable sample-biasing effect, in that questionnaires were distributed to teachers most likely to return them. If interest in this type of research and willingness to complete the questionnaires were regarded as in themselves indicative of a professional attitude, then the sample probably represented the more professionally oriented teachers in each sample county, with a less adequate representation of the less professionally oriented teachers. This situation was not considered peculiar to the particular method of distribution used, but rather was regarded as characteristic of all questionnaire-types of data gathering.

In fact this shortcoming was considered to be characteristic of any subjective method of gathering highly personal data. These effects were considered to be outweighed by the great amount of valuable personal data gathered through use of an anonymous questionnaire, as compared to what most people would have been willing to reveal in a personal interview.

Upon receipt of completed questionnaires the data thereon were transcribed to data tabulation sheets separated by sex and geographical location of respondents. Had machine scoring facilities been available a much wider range of information about respondents could have been extracted from these complex questionnaires, and much more sophisticated methods of statistical analysis could have been employed. For the purposes of this study the writer concluded that simple raw scores, high-low ranges where applicable, mean averages and percentages expressed in tabular and graphic form were adequate to the types of data handled.

Primarily as a means of obtaining information about the range and extent of the activities of teachers' professional organizations in each county, a further brief questionnaire (see Appendix E) was sent to an entirely different sample of teachers. Each superintendent of schools in the entire region was asked to submit names, addresses, positions held, and length of service in the system of three teachers or administrators each with over fifteen years service in his system. He was asked to name those most likely to co-operate in a study such as this. It was planned to choose two teachers or administrators from each county in the region for this questionnaire. Some superintendents indicated that they had no personnel with fifteen or more years service in their systems;

others failed to respond. A total of 205 questionnaires were mailed out, 187 of them to rural counties and 18 to metropolitan counties. They contained covering letters and stamped, addressed envelopes for their return. Of the 205 sent out a total of 85 were returned wholly or partially completed.

Further specific procedures employed in this study included a compilation of factual data and information relative to the problem, from such sources as: census reports; Statistical Abstract of the United States; biennial reports of the State Departments of Education; publications of the teachers' professional organizations in the states comprising the Southern Appalachian Region; publications of the United States Office of Education; publications of the National Education Association and its component organizations; and emerging findings and publications of the concurrent Southern Appalacian Studies.

Definitions of Terms

The Southern Appalachian Studies. A composite of sixteen comprehensive studies begun in 1958, financed by a grant from the Ford Foundation, and headed by Dr. W. D. Weatherford of Berea College, Kentucky. The education sub-study, of which this investigation formed a part, was centered in the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee, and was conducted by Dr. Orin B. Graff, Head of the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, University of Tennessee.

The Southern Appalachian Region. This region consisted of 190 counties and six metropolitan centers located in the Appalachian Mountain areas of the states of Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia and West Virginia. The boundaries of the region are those defined by the Board of Directors, Southern Appalachian Studies, as the locale for the studies. The Southern Appalachian Region was frequently referred to in the study as "the Region."

The Region. The Southern Appalachian Region.

Training. This term was used to refer to any academic and/or professional education which the teachers had received beyond the high school level.

Professional work-load. Was used to refer to the classroom and playground teaching tasks for which the teacher had specifically contracted.

Extra-professional work activities. This was the term used to refer to any employment of a teacher for pay at any time of the year over and above his regularly contracted teaching assignment.

Professionally-related extra-classroom activities. This term included all work the teacher was expected to do in connection with his regularly contracted teaching assignment, but over and above his actual classroom work time. Examples of activities included in this term were: preparing lessons, preparing and grading test papers, home visits, after-hours counselling sessions with parents and pupils, and many others.

Continued professional growth. This expression included all activities carried out by a teacher for the purpose of, or specifically

designed to, promote his professional growth. Included in the study were such activities as taking college extension and resident courses after teaching began, in-service training, activities in teachers' professional organizations, professional reading, and travel.

Present county or PC. This was a term used to designate the county in which particular teachers were teaching at the time of the investigation.

Present state or PS. This term was used to designate the state in which particular teachers were teaching at the time of the investigation. When used in conjunction with "present county" it meant that part of the state in which the teacher was currently teaching which was exclusive of the county in which he was teaching.

A state in the Southern Appalachian Region or SSAR. This term was used to designate a state in the Southern Appalachian Region other than the state in which particular teachers were teaching at the time of the investigation.

Outside the region or OR. This was a term used to designate locations of birth, travel, previous teaching experience, etc., of teachers in the sample who had been born, travelled in, taught in, etc. any geographical location outside the Southern Appalachian Region.

Permit teachers or emergency teachers. These terms were used interchangeably to refer to all teachers who did not qualify for minimum certification in the states in which they were teaching at the time of the investigation.

Metropolitan teachers. All teachers who were currently teaching

in metropolitan counties, metropolitan county-city systems, and city school systems were classified as a distinct group in this study, and were called--for purposes of brevity--metropolitan teachers.

Parent organization. The state organization with which a local organization is affiliated is said to be its parent organization. Similarly, the national organization with which a state or local organization is affiliated is the parent organization of the state or local association referred to.

Review of Related Studies

A thorough search of available source materials revealed a paucity of genuine research studies concerned with the professional status of teachers. A perusal of the literature verified the writer's impression that, although teachers had for some years tended to refer to themselves as members of "the profession," dedicated educators had done little about the problem other than to write at considerable length about the professional shortcomings of teachers in general. Many of these authors concerned themselves with detailed lists of things that teachers would have to do if they wished to make of themselves a true profession. While these many writings were interesting, informative and useful in a general sort of way, they were in no wise based on the findings of scientifically conducted research. Several of these publications were reviewed in the succeeding chapter of this study, and an extensive list of them was placed in the bibliography.

A study done by Gupton[8] in 1955 under the auspices of the Southern States Co-operative Program in Educational Administration threw some light on certain aspects of the professional status of teachers in the South. The purpose of the study was defined by the author as a determination and analysis of trends in numbers, pupil-teacher ratios, training and salaries of classroom teachers, by races, in the elementary and secondary schools of Southern states.

Chapter II of Gupton's study[9] dealt with "The Professionalization of Teaching," and reached the following conclusions:

1. The number, size of membership, and types of programs of local, state and national education associations indicated trends toward professionalization.

2. The increased amounts and more varied types of training prescribed for certification in all Southern states had contributed to the development of a teaching profession.

3. Certification on a state-wide rather than a local basis had become universal throughout the South. This the author regarded as an essential step toward professionalization of teaching.

4. Trends toward equality of training, both in quality and quantity, for elementary and secondary teachers were regarded as stimulating factors in the development of professional attitudes among teachers of both groups.

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[8]Fred W. Gupton, "Trends in Public School Teaching Personnel (Salary, Training and Pupil-Teacher Ratio)" (Unpublished Ed. D. thesis George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955).

[9]Ibid., pp. 22-96, 267-269.

5. The author of this study saw the upward trend in average salaries for teachers as contributing to professionalization through making possible advanced training and other kinds of professional growth. He regarded the establishment of state salary schedules, which tended to eliminate discrimination on the bases of sex, race, or grade levels, as a further step toward professionalization of teachers. He pointed out that this trend not only had a unifying effect upon teachers themselves, but that it also tended to raise the status and stature of teaching in the eyes of the public.

6. The establishment and continued improvement of state-wide tenure and retirement systems were definitely considered to have contributed to higher morale and greater professional unity among teachers.

While not exclusively concerned with the problem of the status of teachers as a profession nor with all of the criteria on which the present writer based his assessment of that status, Gupton's[10] study was of invaluable assistance because of techniques and procedures used, and as a source of state and nation-wide data for this study.

A detailed and comprehensive study called The Status of the American Public School Teacher was carried out by the Research Division of the National Education Association in 1957. The study was in some aspects parallel to this one but it was much more comprehensive and was conducted on a national scale.

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[10]Gupton, op. cit.

The problem of the study was stated in these words:

> Of the many problems that surround the teaching profession, no one special issue had a priority in planning the study reported in this bulletin. The purpose was to get a general picture of the professional, economic, and social status of the men and women who were serving the nation as public-school classroom teachers in the school year 1955-56. As the National Education Association, organized in 1857, goes into its second hundred years, the report may serve as a bench mark for further progress by the teaching profession.[11]

This study contained some thirty-six pages of finely printed findings complete with graphs, tables, charts, and pictographs, followed by twenty pages of concentrated data tabulations. No specific conclusions nor recommendations were stated as such. Page 41 of the publication consists of a "Summary" in which "The Man Teacher" and "The Woman Teacher" were described from the preceding writing in general composite and so-called typical form. While no attempt was made in the study to state in relative level the professional status of the American public-school teacher, the source material provided was copious in quantity and scientific in quality. References to this material were made by the writer from time to time throughout this volume.

Organization of the Study

The problem of this study was given in Chapter I. General introduction, statement of the problem and sub-problems, basic assumptions, value of the study, limitations of the study, general procedures and

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[11] "The Status of the American Public School Teacher," Research Bulletin, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, February, 1957 (Washington, D. C.: The Division of the National Education Association of the United States, 1957).

specific procedures employed in the collection and treatment of data, definitions of terms, review of related studies and organization of the study were the topics which comprised this chapter.

Chapter II deals with a review of literature related to the profession of education, the development of a teaching profession in the United States of America, a brief historical outline of the development of a teaching profession in the Southern Appalachian Region, and the development of criteria for a profession of education.

Chapter III contains a development and discussion of most of the data gathered in the course of the investigation, under the headings: numbers of teachers by age and sex; adequacy of teacher supply; educational level of teachers in the region; professional work-load; professionally-related extra-classroom activities; continuity of teaching service; experience and length of continuous service in teaching; salaries and incomes of teachers; continued professional growth of teachers through college courses, in-service education, professional reading and travel; extra-professional work activities; and teachers' attitudes to their profession.

Chapter IV deals with self-governing professional education organizations in the Region in terms of their aims and objectives, their programs, their membership, and the activities of teachers in these professional organizations.

Findings, conclusions, implications and recommendations comprise Chapter V, dealt with under the following headings; summary of significant findings; conclusions of the study; implications of the study for

teacher education; implications of the study for professional organizations; implications of the study for educational administration; and general recommendations growing out of the study.

CHAPTER II

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION

A Review of Selected Literature Related to the Profession of Education

One of the most complete and objective writings of recent origin concerning the profession of education was that of Lieberman.[1] Dealing largely with the situation as it was at the time of writing, Lieberman ranged the gamut from the nature of professions in general, through every conceivable facet of the educational profession, to a ringing challenge for greater professionalization in the future. He also explored the possibilities of what the profession of education should and could become, relating these ideas to similar progress in other professions, with well-documented commentaries on the historical backgrounds of current professional problems.

One of the things which seemed to set Lieberman's book apart from other pertinent literature was his deep and penetrating philosophical "analysis of the problem of function."[2] While many writers referred to the problems involved in a choice of the functions of education, few of them made a detailed and objective analysis of these problems.

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[1]Myron Lieberman, Education as a Profession (Englewood Cliffs: New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956).

[2]Ibid., pp. 32-43.

Lieberman did not, of course, offer a solution to the problems, nor even profess to be able to do so. He merely outlined in lucid detail the problems of function in education, and discussed their ramifications on an informed philosophical basis.

Lieberman's analysis of the nature and significance of professions[3] formed part of the background reading and authority which the writer used in his development of criteria for a profession of education later in this chapter.

A somewhat less philosophical treatment of the problems of professionalization in education was found in Professional Problems of Teachers,[4] by Huggett and Stinnett. This volume contained large quantities of factual and research data from such sources as the United States decennial census, and publications of the National Education Association and the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare. On the basis of these data problems and progress of professionalization were highlighted and assessed.

Chapter I, "The Teaching Profession"[5]; Chapter 10, "Ethics for the Teaching Profession"; Chapter 11, "Protecting and Disciplining Members of the Profession"[6]; Chapter 14, "Teachers' Professional

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[3]Ibid., pp. 2-7.

[4]Albert J. Huggett and T. M. Stinnett, Professional Problems of Teachers (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956).

[5]Ibid., pp. 3-31.

[6]Ibid., pp. 245-296.

Organizations"; and Chapter 15, "The Professional Standards Movement"[7] were found to be most directly related to this study.

One of the most recent works available in the field of teacher professionalization was A Teacher's Professional Guide,[8] by Kearney. Despite its somewhat prosaic title, this work was found to be well organized and richly documented. Writing from a background of many years experience both as a teacher and as an administrator in education, Kearney was able to bring to his work a ring of authenticity and practicality not always found in the professional literature.

As was to be expected in a work of such recent origin, Kearney was able to bring into A Teacher's Professional Guide an up-to-date analysis of many of the newer concepts of professionalization of education. In this connection, "Some Fundamentals of Professional Competence,"[9] "Sabbatical Leaves,"[10] and "Social Security, Health, Accident, Life Insurance and Credit Unions"[11] dealt with topics considered virtually unrelated to the field of education a quarter of a century ago.

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[7] Ibid., pp. 335-410.

[8] Nolan C. Kearney, A Teacher's Professional Guide (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958).

[9] Ibid., pp. 8-11.

[10] Ibid., pp. 206-207.

[11] Ibid., pp. 224-229.

While largely historical in nature, The American Teacher,[12] by Elsbree, provided an historical background for the understanding of the problems and progress of the move toward professionalization. This historical orientation was particularly useful in understanding and assessing those forces in society which tended to inhibit the development of a profession of teaching. In this connection Chapter XXII, "Professional Status of Teachers" (During the Early Years of the Republic)[13] was found to be especially significant.

In a more modern vein, Part III, "The Emergence of the Professional Teacher,"[14] (Chapters XXIII through XXXV) dealing with trends toward professionalization since the War Between the States, served as a background to many of the aspects of the problems as outlined in the literature previously reviewed. This volume also served as valuable source material in the preparation of those sections of this study which dealt with the development of a profession of teaching in the United States and in the Southern Appalachian Region.

A number of other outstanding works, both books and articles, could have been added to this review. A significant number and variety of them were placed in the bibliography to enable the reader to exercise a wide choice of selections from readily available literature. Those selections reviewed here were the most significant writings currently available in the field of investigation undertaken in this study.

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[12]Willard S. Elsbree, The American Teacher (New York: American Book Company, 1939).

[13]Ibid., pp. 293-305.

[14]Ibid., pp. 309-556.

The History of the Development of a Teaching Profession in the United States

The development of a teaching profession was roughly parallel, both in point of time and in order of unfolding, to the development of the entire field of public education. It was not possible to divorce a discussion of the profession from a discussion of the whole field. Perhaps the single most significant concrete step in the development of teaching as a profession was the opening of institutions for teacher-training. Even more significant but less easily identifiable were the changes in the philosophy of education which took place during the two centuries intervening between the colonial era and the mid-twentieth century.

In colonial times and in the era of expansion westward which followed the Revolution, "book-learning" was not too highly regarded by most people. In the frontier economy which prevailed at that time a sturdy body, a ready hand and a quick eye were prerequisites to survival. The labors involved in carving a new nation out of the wilderness left little time for the amenities of civilization to which the inhabitants of older cultures had long been accustomed. Under the primitive conditions which existed at the time, a technological education was not only unnecessary but completely unknown. To the small numbers of classically educated people to be found among the very early pioneers, the suggestion that schools and teachers might help to prepare pupils to earn a living would have been, with a few notable exceptions, little short of philosophical heresy. According to the intensely traditionalistic philosophy of the

time, schools could only exist to train the "faculties" of the mind, and to prepare the pupil for the life after death. These ends could best be met, according to the precepts of the time, by extreme dosages of such genteel fare as Latin, Greek, history, religion and mathematics. Added to the strengthening of the appropriate faculties was to be the by-product of all this, namely: the development and strengthening of the faculties of perseverance, self-denial and will-power. These latter perquisites were to be gained through making the lessons as difficult as possible and giving them under the least comfortable circumstances imaginable. Thus was one to gain merit after leaving a world in which little merit seemed to exist.

Many of the early settlers came to North America in search of a place where they would be free to pursue the religious observances of their choice. Those who fled persecution in Europe tended to form discrete colonial settlements dedicated to the practices of their own particular faiths. The fact that they almost universally proceeded forthwith to set up cultures in which freedom of religion was available to no one else was especially pertinent to the story of education in that era. They tended to proceed by similar means to similar ends in the glorification of many somewhat dissimilar religious denominations. To quote from The American Teacher:

> What led these "first planters" to undertake this hazardous experiment, to leave established homes in the Old World for an unknown future in the new? Every schoolboy knows that the first Virginia settlers expected to strike gold in the New World; that the "Pilgrim Fathers" of Plymouth and the Puritans of Massachusetts sought religious freedom in New England; that the first settlers in New Netherland were under the control of a fur-trading company in old Netherlands; that Maryland was a

> haven for Catholics, Rhode Island for Baptists, Pennsylvania for Quakers; that the Swedes made a brave start along the Delaware, but were forsaken by their Queen and left to care for themselves in the wilderness; and that various English noblemen were absentee proprietors of estates in the New World which later became North and South Carolina. College students dig deeper into American history and find the narrow intolerance, the persecutions, and the "blue laws" that caused so many upheavals and migrations from one town to another in early New England. Modern students sympathize with the religious liberals who migrated to Connecticut and they are proud of Roger Williams.
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> Down through the colonial period of American history, Massachusetts was perhaps the most important center of American life. Let us get acquainted with a typical stern New Englander of the early days. First and foremost, he was an Englishman, proud of his rights as an Englishman, and loyal to the laws of England (loyal to the good laws at least!), but his religion was his life and in the old country his church had not been the established church of the land. In New England, his church and his state were one. Here, then, was one of the main reasons for his removal to America. All the prestige and preferment that went with membership in the established church was available to the Puritan in New England. Only by appreciating this situation can one understand the early New England Puritan. He made with his God a stern covenant of works and dedicated his life to its fulfillment. In God's name he persecuted Quakers and others who did not believe as he believed. In God's name he slew the Indians. What seems to us intolerance, to him was righteousness and gave him comfort and pleasure. In such surroundings tolerance rated as a sin and those who professed it were ordered to move on.[15]

The early settlers, then, were a religious people; and therein lay the story of the formation of a new system of education and a new profession of teaching. The very earliest schools established in North America were strictly along the traditional European lines. They were classically academic in nature and were taught by teachers, both cleric and lay, of extremely high academic qualifications and attainments. For example, as early as 1648 Henry Butler, teacher at Dorchester, Massachusetts, was a graduate of Cambridge University, England, and held a

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[15] Ibid., pp. 10-11.

master's degree. Of forty-five colonial masters of the Dorchester school mentioned by William Mowry,[16] more than forty were graduates of Harvard College. Of some sixty-six schoolmasters who taught at Dedham, Massachusetts, between 1644 and 1757, thirty-three were college graduates and eighteen of those had earned their master's degrees. Francis Daniel Pastorius, the first schoolmaster in Germantown, Pennsylvania (1701), was a very learned man. "He had command of seven or eight different languages, ancient and modern, and was well versed in science and philosophy."[17]

Unfortunately, not all colonial schoolmasters were so highly endowed with ability, accomplishments, and professional preparation. During and immediately following the Revolution, when the supply of schoolmasters educated in the great universities of England was temporarily shut off or restricted, the level of pedagogy in the schools of the former colonies reached a very low ebb indeed. Writing in The Encyclopedia Americana, Leonard and Draper had this to say about the early teacher:

> During the early period in the United States very little respect was accorded teaching or teachers, particularly on the elementary level, most teachers being selected because they had spare time or were unable to succeed at other work. Education was largely a family responsibility.[18]

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[16]William A. Mowry, Dorchester Celebration; Two Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Establishment of the First Public School in Dorchester, June 22, 1889 (Boston: Rockwell and Churchill, 1890), pp. 36-41.

[17]Elsbree, op. cit., p. 35.

[18]J. Paul Leonard and Dale Draper, The Encyclopedia Americana (New York: Americana Corporation, 1957), Volume XXVI, p. 310.

Elsbree's analysis of the situation was somewhat kinder. While he did not attach any more status to teaching during this period than did Leonard and Draper, he suggested some good reasons for conditions being what they were:

> The economic and social status of teachers immediately after the Revolutionary War did not differ in any perceptible way from conditions prevailing during the latter part of the colonial period. Schoolmasters continued to be paid poorly for the few months during which they were engaged to teach and were forced to supplement their meagre wages by employment outside of their chosen fields. Education, in spite of the vocal support given it by statesmen of the early republic, was considered secondary in importance to the business of political reorganization, the expansion of American trade, and the improvement of agriculture. Immediate utility was the criterion by which citizens rated the value of one's occupation and, with so many imminent practical problems requiring solution, school-teaching fell rather low in the scale. Since public esteem has always been a vital factor in determining the attractiveness of a vocation, it could scarcely be expected that talented individuals would look toward education as their life career. Instead, the queer, the lazy, and the incompetent took to teaching for want of something better to do and, in spite of the numerous exceptions, the schoolmasters of the early eighteen-hundreds were not so greatly respected as their colonial predecessors--and hence were not generously treated.[19]

The rise of Protestantism in Europe and later in America had given a new purpose to education. Reading the scriptures had come to be regarded as a highly desirable pursuit among members of the fundamental Protestant faiths. Even in colonial days the people of North America had felt the desire to have their ministers trained and educated on this continent from among the members of their own congregations. These two desires largely motivated the formation of such schools as existed in America during the colonial days and the early days of the republic.

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[19]Elsbree, op. cit., p. 271.

It was considered highly desirable that everyone should have enough education to enable him to read the Bible, and that the few more apt students should proceed to the ministry.

These very commendable motives, however, provided a not-unmixed blessing in the results they achieved. From the point of view of one interested in the welfare of teaching as a profession in the modern sense, the subordination of education to the domination of religious denominations and the subordination of teachers to the control of the clergy has been a condition the deleterious effects of which we have not yet shaken from our educational systems nor from our profession. The duties and responsibilities with which some teachers find themselves currently saddled in some communities are not too different from the less-than-professional requirements of colonial and early post-revolutionary days:

> The New England schoolmaster was also required to perform various duties in connection with the church, which included conducting ceremonial services and leading the Sunday choir. Less-exalted religious duties, chiefly sweeping out the meeting-house, ringing the bell for public worship, and digging graves, were equally common. Thus, . . . the position of the schoolmaster was more likely than not to embrace that of reader, chorister, psalm setter, and sexton as well.[20]

In spite of the somewhat gloomy picture of education and educators painted in the foregoing brief resume, movements were afoot in many parts of the new nation that were destined to lead to vast and rapid improvement in the lot of teachers and their charges. Over half a century before the Revolution large colonial towns began to build what were

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[20]Ibid., p. 63.

called "prevocation" academies. Benjamin Franklin's Academy at Philadelphia, founded in 1751 and later to become the University of Pennsylvania, had led the New World in facing up to the necessity for practical education in a rapidly changing and developing culture. Taught there, among other things, were practical mathematics, bookkeeping, surveying and navigation.

Even during the Revolution, Thomas Jefferson was able to turn part of his attention to the drafting of a proposal designed to make universal education available in the new state of Virginia. As early as December of 1776 the state of North Carolina made constitutional provision for public education, followed by Georgia before 1800.[21] This did not mean, of course, that facilities immediately became available. In most states facilities for a reasonable attempt at universal public education followed by twenty-five to fifty years the actual constitutional provisions.

At the time, the spread of programs of universal public education, the provision for facilities for their enrichment, and the development of a competent body of professional teachers must have seemed almost excrutiatingly slow of attainment. In retrospect, however, one could not help being vastly impressed by the rapidity with which the idea of universal public education spread throughout the new nation. Perhaps the most striking single facet of this development was the reaction of the teachers. In 1823, less than forty-five years after the Revolution,

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[21]Edgar W. Knight, Collier's Encyclopedia (New York: P. F. Collier & Son Corporation, 1959), Volume 7, pp. 88-93.

Samuel R. Hall opened the first private normal school in Concord, Vermont.[22] Hall had been lecturing and writing about the need for a trained body of professional teachers for at least ten years prior to that date.

Hall's work had not passed unnoticed in the sparsely-peopled but comparatively close-knit society of the early republic. In 1839 the first state-supported normal school was opened in Lexington, Massachusetts, followed in 1852 by a compulsory school attendance law for Massachusetts. These early normal schools were insignificant in the numbers of teachers they were able to train (less than forty each year, with the principal acting as one-man administrator, teacher, provider of curricula and materials, demonstrator and teacher of the "model school," and janitor), but they were vastly significant in the movement which they spearheaded.

Following these early normal schools were numerous and diverse gropings after satisfactory methods whereby teachers might be educated. These experiments included: training elementary teachers in the existing academies; the Pestalozzian school of James N. Neef in New Harmony, Indiana, 1826; the private college training of teachers in Ohio; attempts to use a modified Lancastrian or "monitor" system in New York; training teachers in-service through institutes; and many other promising but not too productive attempts to provide a professionally educated teaching body. By 1850 a very small proportion of the teachers in the

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[22]Leonard and Draper, op. cit., Volume XXVI, pp. 310-314.

country had actually had professional training. By 1890, however, there were 204 state, city and private normal schools in the nation, in addition to courses for teachers in 114 colleges and universities.[23] This represented an extremely rapid revolution in the orientation of the people to the need for professionally educated teachers. Had the War Between the States and its ensuing period of chaos not intervened to set back the process, this remarkable growth might have been completed fifteen to twenty years earlier.

The period between the Civil War and World War I served largely as a time for expansion and consolidation of the desire to provide universal public elementary school education. State-supported normal schools became numerous and almost completely monopolized the field of training of elementary teachers. Their course-offerings grew from one to two, and finally to four years, and provided an academic level a little better than that of a good high school. In addition they provided for a review of the curricular courses to be taught by their graduates in the elementary schools, and such pedagogical techniques and tricks-of-the-trade as were then known to the prevaling mental states psychologists working within the framework of an intensely Platonic philosophy of education.

Following World War I the increasing demand for general public high school education caused normal schools to become almost exclusively four-year Teachers' Colleges, with greatly expanded academic and

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[23] Loc. cit.

professional programs. By 1935, while still devoted largely to the education of teachers, most of these state teachers' colleges began to call themselves simply "State Colleges," and to provide liberal arts and other professional college facilities, as well as graduate programs. In 1950 there were 1,093 institutions in the United States engaged in preparing people for careers in teaching. Of these institutions, 432 were public and 661 were private, and all but 166 of the 1,093 offered degree programs of four years or longer.[24]

Table I, page 40, shows that in the twenty-five years from 1930 to 1955 the percentage of graduates of teachers' colleges and normal schools who had completed four years of academic and professional education increased from 19 per cent to 68 per cent, while the number of graduates having only one year of training beyond the high school level decreased from 19 per cent to 6 per cent. The same table indicated that in 1955 at least three states had a teaching body almost 100 per cent of whom held bachelor's degrees, with 25 per cent holding master's degrees, while only thirteen states had over 50 per cent of their teachers without college graduation.

Closely interwoven with the development of education and of teacher education in the nation was the development of professional requirements for certification of teachers. In the colonial days certification seemed to have been regarded as of more importance than it was during the first 100 years of the republic. The type of certification

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[24] Loc. cit.

TABLE I

LENGTH OF TRAINING OF GRADUATES OF TEACHERS' COLLEGES AND NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR SELECTED YEARS[a]

Year	One Year of Training Per Cent	Two Years of Training Per Cent	Three Years of Training Per Cent	Four Years of Training Per Cent
1930	19	47	15	19
1949	17	34		49
1955	6	26		68

1955 - Arizona, Texas, Oklahoma: almost 100 per cent held bachelor's degrees; 25 per cent held master's degrees

- Nebraska, Iowa: 80 per cent were not college graduates
- Thirteen states in the United States with over 50 per cent who were not college graduates.

[a]Source: The Encyclopedia Americana (New York: Americana Corporation, 1957), Volume XXVI, p. 310.

or licensing practiced in colonial times was not, however, based upon professional qualifications nor was it directed toward improvement of professional standards as they are known today. It was, rather, designed to guard against the employment of religious dissenters and political non-conformists. At the time of the Revolution nine of the thirteen colonies had established churches which were entitled to support for themselves and their schools through public taxation. In those colonies in which the established church was the Church of England, all teachers coming out from England were required to be licensed by the Lord Bishop of London, and all teachers who were educated in the colonies had to be licensed by the Governor of the colony. In those colonies in which the Church of England was not the established church, the local selectmen and county courts or magistrates certificated teachers for local employment on the basis of their competence as demonstrated in oral examinations before the assembled courts or councils. The local ministers also certificated them on the basis of their willingness to conform to the particular religious views predominant in the communities in which they were to teach. The Quaker colonies of Pennsylvania required a third certificate which they described as a clearance of all entangling alliances.[25] This certificate was not clearly defined in the literature, nor was there anything to indicate by whom it was issued. The term seemed to indicate that it could have referred to locally unacceptable political alliances, or to amorous alliances of an extra-legal or

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[25]Elsbree, op. cit., p. 49.

extra-sacramental nature. There was reason to believe, however, that this certificate was most frequently used to assure the community that their teacher was free from debt.

At no time during the first three centuries of Caucasian habitation on the North American continent did the supply of teachers become so great that certification regulations could really be said to serve as devices for selection in the teaching profession. During the nineteenth century such certification as was required in the United States was carried out almost entirely on a local basis. Certificates were issued first on an individual school district basis, and later on a county-wide or city-wide scale, usually for one year at a time. This practice seemed to have occurred as a result of the profound faith of the people in the efficacy of local control of all things. In view of the extreme distances and scattered population, and the primitive nature of transportation and communication facilities in the New World at that time, little centralized control could have been exercised even if it had been desired. Despite its many unsavory aspects, the practice of local certification of teachers was probably the only practicable method at that time.

Local certification practices of the nineteenth century did not appear to have been directed toward the development of an academically, professionally, and socially competent teaching body as those terms later came to be understood. Practices extant at the time appeared to have had the effect, at least, of eliminating from the teaching staff of a community any teacher whose religious, political and social views did not conform precisely to the religious, political and social standards set by

the local authorities for the teachers of that community. The two-fold net effect of these practices was to drive away from the teaching profession many venturesome souls who dared to have ideas of their own and who wished to have the right to express them, and to drive from many communities their one best hope for spirited vitality and informed intellectual progress. Local politicians proved themselves to be all-too-frequently uninformed and bigoted at best, ignorant and malicious at worst; clerics, distinguished and competent as they may have been in matters pertaining to their own profession, were, like most people, completely fallible in their judgments with regard to other professions. This delegation of the selection and certification of teachers to people not directly and intimately concerned with the development of a teaching profession frequently resulted in the relegation of teachers to the status of second class citizens. At the time of writing this condition had not been completely nor universally remedied.

Although some steps were taken to provide for state certification of teachers in the nineteenth century (New York, prior to 1860; California, 1863), this was on a basis parallel to local certification practices rather than in place of them. The practice of state-wide certification was almost entirely a twentieth century innovation, most of it having taken place since 1930. This change had resulted in certification on the basis of graduation from a teacher education institution rather than by examination, in long-term certificates remaining valid for from five years to life rather than annual certification, and on specialized certificates issued for specific grades and school subjects

rather than the blanket licenses common in the days of local certification.

Scale and method of remuneration presented another interesting and illuminating facet of the development of teaching as a profession. It was almost impossible to gain any comprehensive idea of the financial status of the colonial teacher. There were as many different scales and types of pay as there were levels of ability and competence, the two not always in close correspondence.

Since financing was left largely to each individual district, means of raising money and methods of payment were extremely diverse. In New England, for example, during the seventeenth century a salary of twenty to twenty-five pounds per annum was very common, while Boston paid the grammar school master a salary of sixty pounds in 1693. At the same time, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts employed fifty-five schoolmasters in New York province, of whom some received as much as fifty pounds, with approximately half of them receiving as little as ten pounds each year. Between 1680 and 1775 salaries in Pennsylvania varied from a low of ten pounds to a high of 200 pounds in different districts.[26]

Comparisons with incomes of other trades and professions were also unreliable, largely because of the perquisites or fringe benefits accompanying various positions in the community. Records of the Board of Accounts in New Netherland, 1644, indicated that the West India Company

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[26] Ibid., p. 88.

paid its local factor or trading manager at approximately ten times the annual salary of its local schoolmaster. At the same time the company paid its local clergyman five times the salary of its schoolmster. Common laborers of the day were paid from three to twenty-five pounds per annum, but were encouraged to own land, to farm part-time, and to engage in trade as entrepreneurs between European producers and New World consumers. Hence many laborers became wealthy during the colonial period.

Different financing arrangements in different districts often led to varying and unpredictable remuneration for teachers. In almost all schools the master was permitted to charge pre-determined tuition fees, usually for students in excess of an arbitrary minimum number (frequently ten). He was also permitted to charge a "firing" (fuel) allowance from which he frequently lost rather than made money. Much of the payment was in what was called "country money," which consisted of corn, tobacco, pelts and other items of barter. School districts frequently owned houses provided for the schoolmaster, and sometimes farms from which he was permitted to collect the revenue as part of his annual stipend. In all too many instances the teacher's financial well-being was directly proportional to his ability as a business manager of school property and his persistence as a collector of tuition fees. The greatest single factor contributing to his financial hardship, however, was the fact that salaries were normally paid once each year, and that school districts were frequently two and three years in arrears in the payment of salaries.

From the time of the Revolution to about 1840 the economic position of teachers underwent no noticeable change. Immediately following the

Revolution there was an increased tendency to pay in "country money" or barter goods, but as the nation developed and money became the more commonly used medium of exchange, this practice gradually died out. Extreme differences in pay between rural and city teachers, and between male and female teachers were common at this time. In 1841 rural women teachers received approximately half the rate of pay of rural men, while city women received little more than one-third the rate of pay of city men teachers. City women received almost twice as much as rural women, while city men received about three times the salaries of their country confreres. From 1841 to 1865 salaries in all categories practically doubled, with but little increase in their real buying power.

In addition to low weekly or monthly salaries, the schoolmaster's financial status was made doubly precarious by the short duration of the school year. While schools operated pretty well the year around in early colonial times, by 1853 from five to seven months per year was considered a long session. Thus the city man-teacher who earned a weekly salary of $15.55 had an annual income of only $393 for a six month's school year. His female counterpart earned $136 in the same period, while a rural male teacher earned $124 and a rural female teacher earned $81 for the same period of work.

Elsbree sums up the situation in the following words:

> It is apparent from the reports of county and state school officers that taxpayers during the early history of public education in the United States were no more sensitive to the economic needs of teachers than they have been in recent years, and that women teachers, especially, were paid ridiculously

low wages for the responsibilities which they were asked to assume.[27]

The History of the Development of a Teaching Profession in the Southern Appalachian Region

In many respects the history of the development of a profession of teaching in the Southern Appalachian Mountains was found to be parallel, although not chronologically identical, to the story of the professional development of teachers in the nation as a whole. The inaccessible nature of some of the more remote mountain areas tended to leave the people more or less untouched by education until comparatively recent times. Although not too much recorded history was available on the subject, it appeared that the advent of modern means of transportation and communication, coupled with the demands of modern industry for skills which could only be acquired through academic and technical education, were the factors which finally opened up much of the mountain region to education.

The history of the Southern Appalachian Region was not the history of the states that comprised that region. That is to say, the coastal areas and plains of Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia and Alabama, and the Ohio-Mississippi Valley areas and plains of Kentucky and Tennessee constituted the areas most readily accessible and most economically developed by a frontier agricultural economy. Hence the heaviest

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[27] Ibid., p. 282.

influxes of population and the largest industrial and commercial centers tended to be located in parts of the states other than the mountainous regions. As a result, while progress in education and in the development of a teaching profession was as rapid in those states as it was in the rest of the nation prior to 1860, very little of the progress and development penetrated the more mountainous regions prior to the second quarter of the twentieth century.

In the plantation areas of these Southern states a system of private education developed, with consequent resistance to the concept of free and universal public education. This tradition of private education developed partly as the result of the physical fact of extremely large plantations far apart, and partly as the natural outgrowth of the rigid caste and class system characteristic of a slave economy. It was customary for the plantation owner to hire a teacher or tutor, board him at the plantation manor house, and employ him in the education of the owner's children and certain other carefully selected white children. When the sons outgrew the tutor, those who showed an inclination toward higher education were customarily sent to Oxford, Cambridge or Inns of Court, with a few of them attending William and Mary College in Williamsburg, Virginia. Following the Revolution a movement arose to increase the number and strengthen the position of colleges in the new Republic. In a burst of extreme nationalism Georgia went so far, in 1785, as to enact legislation designed to deprive of his citizenship any person under sixteen years of age who went abroad for his education.[28]

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[28]Knight, op. cit., volume 7, pp. 88-93.

Meanwhile, many of the classical high schools and academies, which were later to become some of the first colleges and universities of the Southern states, were beginning to operate both inside the Appalachian Region and on its fringes. In 1775 the first school in Kentucky was opened by Mrs. William Coombes at Harrodsburg, Mercer County, just outside the mountain region. In 1780 Transylvania Seminary, now Transylvania University, became the first college west of the Alleghenies. In 1794 the Kentucky Academy Act gave 6,000 acres of public lands to each county for the purpose of financing public schools.[29]

In 1780 the Reverend Samuel Doak opened the first school in Tennessee. This school was located within the Southern Appalachian Region at Jonesboro, in Washington County. In 1783 this school became Martin Academy and in 1795 it became Washington College.[30]

As early as 1748 George Washington referred in a letter to the "School house Olde Field." This was believed to have been at the present sight of Old Fields, Hardy County, West Virginia.[31] Although this location was in the Potomac River Basin area it was on the fringe of the Allegheny Highlands in the Southern Appalachian Mountains.

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[29]Thomas D. Clark, The World Book Encyclopedia (Chicago: Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, 1959), Volume 10, p. 4137.

[30]Mary U. Rothrock, The World Book Encyclopedia (Chicago: Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, 1959), Volume 16, p. 7960.

[31]Phillip Conley, The World Book Encyclopedia (Chicago: Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, 1959), Volume 18, p. 8718.

Early in the 1700's North Carolina was said to have "no schools, but many teachers."[32] The children were taught in their homes, by parents, private teachers, and ministers of the gospel. By 1760, however, several schools had been established by the churches. They were classical academies started chiefly by the Quakers and Moravians, and were in no way able to provide anything approaching universal education.

A leader in the nation as well as in the South, Virginia provided for publicly supported education in 1796. The Commonwealth Assembly voted funds to provide for three years of education for each child, with the proviso that parents pay for education beyond three years. The area of the Commonwealth of Virginia at that time included the present state of West Virginia.

Progress in education and in teacher professionalization in the remoter areas of the Region was slow indeed. Centers of population tended to be concentrated in the valleys of the Appalachians, and in these places progress was much more rapid. The best source of fairly recent data was a 1935 publication of the United States Department of Agriculture.[33] This publication, put together by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Bureau of Home Economics, Forest Service, Office of Education, and the United States Department of the Interior, was based

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[32]Christopher Crittendon, et al., The World Book Encyclopedia (Chicago: Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, 1959), Volume 12, p. 5730.

[33]United States Department of Agriculture, Economic and Social Problems and Conditions of the Southern Appalachians, Miscellaneous Publication No. 205 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935), pp. 95-119.

largely on the United States decennial census of 1930 supplemented by reports of the state departments of education. Hence it suffered from the usual shortcomings of census data. The further fact that all data were given in averages and percentages per county tended to obscure the extremes of conditions existing at that time. On the other hand it provided a rather valuable reference point regarding the condition of education and the professional status of teachers in the mountain counties during the 1929-30 school year.

A measure of the adequacy of an educational system and, indirectly, of the professional level of its teachers, could be gained from a perusal of such things as school enrollments, school attendance, illiteracy, length of school year, and many other considerations. All six states forming the Southern Appalachian Region as set up for that study (Alabama was not included) had compulsory school attendance laws in 1929-30. Despite this fact, fully one-fifth of all white children seven to fifteen years of age did not attend schools of any kind between September, 1929, and April, 1930, in seven counties of Kentucky, Georgia and Virginia. All six states showed counties with one-seventh of this age group not attending school, while only five counties in the entire region had less than 5 per cent of this age group not in school. In twenty-three counties in the Region over 75 per cent of persons sixteen to twenty years of age did not attend schools of any kind during the school year 1929-30. Illiteracy rates were not high in or near large cities. In eleven rural counties in the Region, however, fully 7 per cent of the population ten to twenty years of age in 1930 were reported

unable to read and write. Thirty-five counties had 5 per cent or more in this age group unable to read and write. In view of the reluctance of most people to admit illiteracy on the part of themselves and their children, and since many people who can do little more than read and write their own names tend to consider themselves literate, these figures on illiteracy were thought to be extremely conservative.

Length of school term and regularity-of-attendance figures threw some interesting light on the state of education in the Region in 1929-30. In three counties in the Region elementary schools were kept open an average of less than 125 days during the school year 1929-30, and in fourteen others less than 135 days. There were only fifteen counties in the entire Region where the average was 175 days or more. These average figures, of course, masked considerable variation in the length of the school year within the several schools of a given county. The length of the school session limited definitely the maximum number of days children could attend school during the year, but other factors such as remoteness of schools, the extent to which compulsory attendance laws were enforced, and popular attitude in the district tended to determine how regularly they actually attended. Forty counties in the Region showed average attendance of children enrolled in elementary schools in 1929-30 to be less than 100 days for the school year. These forty counties were all in the states of Kentucky, Tennessee, North Carolina and Georgia.

Thirteen counties in the Region in 1930 showed that 55 per cent or more of the children in elementary schools were older than they should have been for their school grades. Four counties in Virginia, two in

Kentucky, and three in Tennessee showed an average retardation for fourth grade pupils of 1.75 years or more. In the four states of Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and North Carolina a total of 118 counties showed average retardation of all fourth grade pupils to be in excess of one full year. No data were available for Georgia and most of West Virginia. In eighteen counties, of which sixteen were in Kentucky, less than 50 per cent of pupils in the third grade three years previously were in the sixth grade in 1929-30. In more than thirty counties enrollment in the ninth grade was less than 20 per cent of that in the third grade, and in more than one-third of all the counties in the Region enrollment in the twelfth grade was less than 10 per cent of enrollment in the third grade. These figures seemed to indicate that the schools of the Region in 1930 had low retention powers and extremely high retardation rates. It appeared that most youngsters in the mountain regions left school with something like a fifth grade education acquired through attendance of less than 500 days in a totally inadequate one-teacher school.

The effects of the prevailing conditions on the professional status of teachers could not possibly go unnoticed. One vital aspect of the foregoing statistics seemed to be that schools which operated less than half of each year paid their teachers less than half of a year's salary. The history of teachers' salaries down through the years seemed to indicate that a full year's salary had never been more than a subsistence wage for the vast majority of teachers. Half that subsistence wage, together with inaccessible inadequate one-teacher schools in which most of the pupils were from one to three years retarded in

grade level and attended irregularly if at all, did not present a combination of circumstances designed to promote recruitment, training and retention of a professional body of teachers. That the schools of the Region were as well staffed as they were was a miracle for which no logical explanation could be found.

During the 1929-30 school year a total of forty-three counties in the Region paid average annual salaries to teachers of less than $600. Every state except West Virginia was represented in this group, but only Georgia, Kentucky and Virginia had counties paying less than $500 average salaries. A total of twenty-three counties paid average annual teachers' salaries of $1,000 or more, twelve of these being in West Virginia. As would have been expected under these salary conditions, in six counties in the Region approximately one-third of all teachers were new to teaching in 1929-30, and in twenty others between 20 and 30 per cent were beginning teachers.

During the depression years of the 1930's the financial plight of schools in the Southern Appalachian Region became so great that the states tended to take over, in some cases, almost complete financial responsibility for the operation of the schools. In the case of North Carolina this move resulted in a considerably increased degree of centralized control. Similar results did not appear to follow increased state aid in the other states of the Region.

Despite the rather bleak picture presented by the history of the development of education and the professionalization of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Mountains, many notable accomplishments were

reflected in that same picture. Some of the nation's most outstanding educational developments originated in the Region, and were all the more striking in view of the background of conditions in which they occurred. For example, in 1794 Kentucky, after only two years of statehood herself, set a precedent for the other states of the new Republic by allocating specific areas of public lands to each county for the support of public schools. Again, in 1934 Kentucky revised all existing state school laws and placed them in their proper perspective in one clear concise code.

As early as 1796 Virginia made legal provision for three years of free public education for each white child. In 1810 Thomas Jefferson set up a "literary fund" (in what is now Virginia and West Virginia) to pay for further education for poor children, from the sale of land on which taxes were owed. This measure was unpopular and unsuccessful because it was viewed as a pauper fund. However, it represented an enlightened attempt to solve some of the many problems of educational finance.

In 1875 Alexander L. Wade, Superintendent of Schools in Monongalia County, West Virginia, introduced one of the first systems of graded schools. He was credited with the introduction of a technique which greatly improved the schools of his county and of other counties which followed his lead.

Since 1839 North Carolina has considered its school system to be one of the best in the South. They were able to keep their schools in operation and to initiate plans for a modern educational system during

the troubled times of the Civil War and the reconstruction period. In 1958 North Carolina was believed to have the most highly developed school transportation system known, and to be transporting the largest percentage of its pupils of any school system in the world.

The foregoing bits of somewhat unrelated information were presented here to show that, despite the obstacles to development, much had been accomplished in the field of education in the Southern Appalachian Region. More had actually been accomplished in education and in the development of a teaching profession during the second quarter of the twentieth century than in all the long history of the Region prior to 1920. Many aspects of this unique development were dealt with in the appropriate chapters in other parts of this report.

The Development of Criteria for a Profession of Education

The literature is extensive concerning professions in general and education in particular. Some of that considered the best available to the writer was reviewed in an earlier part of this chapter. Although not based on scientific research, the philosophical background for the criteria against which a profession may be measured was adequately expounded by Myron Lieberman in Education as a Profession, and by Albert J. Huggett and T. M. Stinnett in Professional Problems of Teachers. Huggett and Stinnett did not originate their criteria, but drew upon publications of the National Education Association, and other sources.

Without repeating the reasoned arguments and explanations accompanying them, following was a list of the characteristics of a

profession as enumerated by Lieberman:

1. A unique, definite and essential social service.
2. An emphasis upon intellectual techniques in performing its service.
3. A long period of specialized training.
4. A broad range of autonomy for both the individual practitioners and for the occupational group as a whole.
5. An acceptance by the practitioners of broad personal responsibility for judgments made and acts performed within the scope of professional autonomy.
6. An emphasis upon the service to be rendered, rather than the economic gain to the practitioners, as the basis for the organization and performance of the social service delegated to the occupational group.
7. A comprehensive self-governing organization of practitioners.
8. A code of ethics which has been clarified and interpreted at ambiguous and doubtful points by concrete cases.[34]

Huggett and Stinnett, quoting from the National Education Association, Division of Field Services, "The Yardstick of a Profession," published in the 1948 edition of Institute on Professional and Public Relations, gave a list only slightly different from the foregoing:

1. A profession involves activities essentially intellectual.
2. A profession commands a body of specialized knowledge.
3. A profession requires extended professional (as contrasted with solely general) preparation.
4. A profession demands continuous in-service growth.
5. A profession affords a life career and permanent membership.
6. A profession sets up its own standards.
7. A profession exalts service above personal gain.
8. A profession has a strong, closely knit professional organization.[35]

Huggett and Stinnett further quoted from Abraham Flexner, "What Are the Earmarks of a Profession?" giving a slightly different wording

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[34]Lieberman, op. cit., pp. 2-6.

[35]Huggett and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 9.

to many basically similar characteristics:

> 1. They (professions) involve essentially intellectual operations with large individual responsibility.
> 2. They derive their raw material from science and learning.
> 3. They work up this material to a practical and definite end.
> 4. They possess an educationally communicable technique.
> 5. They tend to self-organization.
> 6. They are becoming increasingly altruistic in motivation.[36]

Although many more such lists of the characteristics of a profession could have been quoted from the works of various authors, the foregoing examples were thought to be sufficient to give an idea of the thinking and writing in the field. Many of these characteristics, while universally acceptable to professional people, were so subjectively intellectual in their nature as to defy adequate investigation within the scope of this study. Examples of this type of criteria were: National Education Association, Number 1, "A profession involves activities essentially intellectual,"[37] and Lieberman, Number 4, "A broad range of autonomy for both the individual practitioners and for the occupational group as a whole."[38]

Others were outside the frame of reference and beyond the practical limits both of this study and of the education sub-project of the Southern Appalachian Studies. Examples were: National Education

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[36]Ibid., pp. 23-24.

[37]Huggett and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 9.

[38]Lieberman, op. cit., p. 3.

Association, Number 2, "A profession commands a body of specialized knowledge,"[39] and Flexner, Number 4, "They possess an educationally communicable technique."[40]

Borrowing somewhat from the literature in the field, from discussions with the chairman of the writer's doctoral committee and other authorities available for personal interviews, and drawing from the past experiences of the writer, certain measurable criteria were developed. These criteria fell within the frame of reference of this study as outlined in Chapter I. They were regarded as the most precise criteria against which the measure of the development of education as a profession could be assessed in the Southern Appalachian Region. The basic characteristics of a profession as developed for use in this study were:

1. A profession requires an extended professional (as contrasted with solely general) preparation.

2. A professional person regulates his schedule of activities to enable him to do what needs to be done when it needs to be done. He is neither a clock-watcher nor a shift-worker, nor does he expect to be paid over-time. (This characteristic was considered to be a practical corollary to Liberman's number five quoted on page 57 of this study.)

3. A profession offers its practitioners a life career and a permanent membership.

4. A professional person engages in continuous in-service professional growth.

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[39]Huggett and Stinnett, op. cit., p. 9.

[40]Ibid., p. 24.

5. A professional person is responsively aware of the importance of the social function of his profession and feels that he is working with others who are equally actively aware of this function. He is proud to belong to his profession; he feels right about it with regard to himself and with regard to recruitment of suitable candidates for its development and perpetuation. (This was a practical corollary to Liberman's number one, quoted on page 57 of this study.)

6. A profession maintains a comprehensive self-governing organization of practitioners. (Corollary to this characteristic was National Education Association, number six, quoted on page 57 of this study.)

7. A profession sets up, subscribes to, and enforces a code of ethics. This code of ethics is designed to protect society as well as the membership of the profession, in the profession's fulfillment of its social function.

Chapter Summary

Chapter II contained a review of selected literature related to the profession of education; a history of the development of teaching as a profession in the United States; a history of the development of teaching as a profession in the Southern Appalachian Region; and a development of the criteria against which the professional level of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region might be measured.

CHAPTER III

THE CURRENT STATUS OF TEACHING IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION

Introduction

Carter V. Good, in his Dictionary of Education, gave the following definition pertinent to this study:

> Professional status, teacher's: (1) the degree to which a teacher has attained the specialized competence, attitudes, and recognition that characterize the professions in general; (2) the extent of professional preparation, experience, and success in teaching; (3) the rank or recognition a teacher has achieved in the profession.[1]

In accordance with selected parts of the above definition, and in line with the first five criteria of a profession developed on pages 59-60 of this study, the following findings were presented. Chapter III of this study was designed to present all the actual findings of the study related to the profession of teaching in the Southern Appalachian Region except those findings concerned with teachers' professional organizations.

Numbers of Teachers by Age and Sex

Data concerning numbers of teachers by age and sex in various systems were not readily obtainable. In most of the systems visited the only data concerning teachers, other than gross instructional payroll,

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[1]Carter V. Good (ed.), Dictionary of Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945), p. 310.

were kept on individual personnel cards, making the task of extracting specific facts too laborious for the scope of the study. However, in a few instances some data had been extracted in local systems for specific purposes. In other instances the writer was able to spend sufficient time in the system to extract specific data himself. All that could be obtained in these various ways was carefully analyzed, and representative portions of it were reproduced in this study.

The following trends were most marked with respect to age and sex of teachers in the Region:

1. Teachers in the Region were becoming older. The average ages of both male and female teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region were increasing slowly but steadily.

2. The proportion of male to female teachers was increasing. With the exception of the years immediately following the Korean conflict, there was a gradual but steady increase in the percentage of males in the teaching body.

The most extensive data in terms of numbers of teachers involved, and the most comprehensive in years spanned, was available from the Chattanooga, Tennessee, city school system. Table II, page 63, shows the percentages of teachers in various age groups, the percentages of males and females in the system, and the average ages of males and females for the years 1930, 1940, 1950, and 1959. It was noted that the average ages of male teachers in the Chattanooga city schools increased 2.6 years between 1930 and 1940, and 2.8 years between 1940 and 1950. The year 1959 showed a leveling off, with a slight but not significant

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY AGE AND SEX IN THE CHATTANOOGA CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR SELECTED YEARS*

Age in Years	1930			1940			1950			1959		
	Male[a]	Female[b]	Total[c]	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
20 or less	0.0	1.8	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
21-30	52.4	42.1	42.8	27.6	17.1	18.3	21.8	11.0	12.4	23.4	19.9	20.6
31-40	19.0	30.1	29.4	47.1	39.6	40.5	32.2	21.0	22.4	36.8	17.9	20.7
41-50	19.0	17.6	17.7	12.6	25.5	24.0	29.9	39.1	37.9	21.9	23.9	23.5
51-60	7.1	6.3	6.3	9.2	13.7	13.1	9.2	20.2	18.8	15.4	30.2	27.2
61-65	0.0	0.9	0.8	1.1	2.6	2.4	3.4	6.3	6.0	2.0	5.8	5.0
Over 65	2.4	1.1	1.2	2.3	1.5	1.6	2.3	2.3	2.3	0.5	2.3	1.9
Total Number	42	544	586	87	651	738	87	599	686	201	778	979
Per Cent of Total Teachers	7.2	92.8	100	11.8	88.2	100	12.7	87.3	100	20.5	79.5	100
Average Age in Years	33.8	34.1	34.1	36.4	39.8	39.4	39.2	44.4	43.7	38.7	43.8	42.7

[a]Per cent of total males; [b]Per cent of total females; [c]Per cent of total sample

*Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study. Data extracted from the records of Chattanooga City School system, Chattanooga, Tennessee.

0.5 year decrease in the average ages of male teachers. Female teachers in the Chattanooga city schools showed the same trend, but with much larger increases in average ages, these increases being 5.7 years and 4.6 years respectively, with an insignificant 0.6 year decrease from 1950 to 1959.

The percentage of males on the teaching staffs of Chattanooga city schools increased steadily from 7.2 per cent in 1930, through 11.8 per cent in 1940, and 12.7 per cent in 1950, to 20.5 per cent in 1959.

Comparable data of the same type as that set forth for the Chattanooga city school system were available from Jackson County, Kentucky, for the years 1950, 1955, and 1959, and were included in Table III, page 65. These data suffered from being based on a small sample. However, they showed remarkably and consistently similar trends to those demonstrated in the Chattanooga city school system. The per cent of men teachers shown in Table III for 1959 was markedly higher (8.5 per cent) than for 1950. The 1955 figure showed a marked drop in the per cent of men teachers, which could have been accounted for by the interruption to the education of male potential teachers during the Korean conflict of 1950 to 1953, by the return of a number of these men to college on the "G. I. Bill," or by other factors.

The average ages of male teachers in Jackson County, Kentucky, follow the same pattern as those of male teachers in Chattanooga, Tennessee, during the years 1950 to 1959. That is, they decreased, but by insignificant amounts. The average ages of women teachers, on the other hand, increased by 1.7 years from 1950 to 1955, and by 2.2 years

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY AGE AND SEX IN THE JACKSON COUNTY, KENTUCKY, SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR SELECTED YEARS*

	1950			1955			1959		
Age in Years	Male[a]	Female[b]	Total[c]	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
20 or less	19.0	12.7	14.1	0.0	8.4	7.0	8.6	2.6	4.5
21-30	42.9	29.6	32.6	42.1	29.5	31.6	42.9	27.3	32.1
31-40	19.0	28.2	26.1	52.6	26.3	30.7	37.1	23.4	27.7
41-50	4.8	25.4	20.7	5.3	28.4	24.6	8.5	36.4	27.7
51-60	9.5	1.4	3.3	0.0	5.3	4.4	2.9	10.4	8.0
61-65	4.8	2.8	3.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Over 65	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total Number of Teachers	21	71	92	19	95	114	35	77	112
Per Cent of Total Teachers	22.8	77.2	100.0	16.7	83.3	100.0	31.3	68.7	100.0
Average Age in Years	31.6	33.7	33.3	31.3	35.4	34.7	30.9	37.6	35.5

[a]Per cent of total males; [b]Per cent of total females; [c]Per cent of total sample

*Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study. Data as extracted from the records of Jackson County, Kentucky, public school system.

from 1955 to 1959, for a total of 3.9 years increase over the nine-year period.

Data were much more readily available for the school year 1958-59, and consequently it was possible to develop a current status table based on 4150 teachers in one city school system, one metropolitan county-city system and eight rural county school systems from all seven states in the Southern Appalachian Region. Table IV, page 67, shows that in the year 1959 the average age of 957 male teachers in the Region was 40.5 years; the average age of 3193 female teachers was 44.1 years; and the average age of the entire 4150 teachers in the sample was 43.3 years. These ages do not differ significantly from the average ages of teachers in the Chattanooga city school system (Table II, page 63), but were markedly higher than the average ages of teachers in the Jackson County system (Table III, page 65).

Of the 4150 teachers shown in Table IV, page 67, 23.1 per cent of them were men. This figure was slightly higher than the corresponding per cent for the Chattanooga city school system, and lower than that for Jackson County.

Table V, page 68, shows a breakdown of ages by range and by mean average of the teachers in the questionnaire sample (see Appendix B of this study), according to whether they taught in rural counties or in metropolitan and city school systems. One of the values of this data was that they tended to confirm patterns shown in Table II, page 63, and in Table IV, page 67. That is, the teachers in metropolitan county and city school systems tended to be slightly older than the teachers in

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 4150 TEACHERS BY AGE AND SEX IN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1959 ONLY[a]

Age in Years	Male Per Cent of Total Males	Female Per Cent of Total Females	Total Per Cent of Total Sample
20 or less	0.4	0.1	0.2
21-30	24.2	16.5	18.3
31-40	25.2	16.2	18.3
41-50	23.5	31.8	29.9
51-60	22.9	29.4	27.9
61-65	3.4	4.9	4.5
Over 65	0.3	1.1	0.9
Total Number of Teachers	957	3193	4150
Per Cent of Total	23.1	76.9	100.0
Average Age in Years	40.5	44.1	43.3
National Median Age in Years*	35.4	45.5	42.9

*"The Status of the American Public School Teacher," Research Bulletin, Vol. XXXV, No. 1, February, 1957 (Washington, D. C.: The Division of the National Education Association of the United States, 1957), p. 43.

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study. Data as extracted from the records of Chattanooga, Tennessee; Kanawha County (Charleston), West Virginia; Jackson County, Kentucky; Bradley County, Tennessee; DeKalb County, Alabama; Giles County, Virginia; Owsley County, Kentucky; Pickens County, Georgia; Swain County, North Carolina; and Tucker County, West Virginia, public school systems.

TABLE V

RANGES AND MEAN AVERAGE AGES OF TEACHERS RESPONDING TO TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES[a]

Classifications of Teachers Responding	Number Responding	Range of Ages in Years	Mean Average Ages of Respondents in Years
Rural Male	71	24-64	42.2
Rural Female	121	19-68	43.9
Total Rural	192	19-68	43.3
Metropolitan Male	15	27-64	41.9
Metropolitan Female	44	24-60	45.5
Total Metropolitan	59	24-64	44.6
Total Male	86	24-64	42.1
Total Female	165	19-68	44.3
Total Sample	251	19-68	43.6

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

rural county systems; that the female teachers in all classes of systems tended to be significantly older than the male teachers; and that the mean average age of both male and female teachers in the Region appeared to be in excess of forty years.

Table VI, page 70, shows the number and per cent of responses to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) by sex and by location of current teaching position. With 36.4 per cent of rural teacher responses coming from male teachers, and 25.0 per cent of metropolitan county and city responses coming from male teachers, this table seemed to support the findings shown in Table II, page 63, and Table III, page 65, with regard to distribution according to sex; namely: that rural county school systems had a higher percentage of male teachers in 1959 than did metropolitan county and city school systems.

Adequacy of Teacher Supply

An overwhelming quantity of rather gross data has been available to the public for years stressing the problems involved in securing teachers to staff the nation's schools. These data have been quite general in nature, based usually upon projections of pupil-enrollment figures, considered in conjunction with estimates of enrollments in teacher education institutions, numbers of people leaving the teaching profession, and other pertinent measures of the extent of the emergency.

Some of the most adequate measures of the situation as it existed in the United States were to be found in National Education Association

TABLE VI

TOTAL NUMBER OF TEACHERS RESPONDING TO TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES BY SEX AND ACCORDING TO WHETHER THEY WERE CURRENTLY TEACHING IN A RURAL OR A METROPOLITAN SYSTEM[a]

Location of Current Teaching Position	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Rural Counties	72	36.4	126	63.6	198	100
Metropolitan Counties and City Systems	15	25.0	45	75.0	60	100
Total Sample	87	33.7	171	66.3	258	100

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

Research Bulletins. For example:

> Throughout the past decade enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools has been increasing at the rate of about 1,000,000 per year. The present estimated total, 33,508,814, is almost 40 per cent larger than 10 years ago. Each year, the typical school district is having to provide for about four additional pupils for every 100 who were in school the preceding year.[2]

To quote further from the same publication:

> The imbalance between teacher supply and demand continues. In the fall of 1957 the demand stood at an estimated 227,500 for normal turnover needs, cutting class size, meeting enrollment increases, adding services, and replacing the unprepared. To meet this demand, the colleges produced the preceding year slightly less than 100,000, 30 per cent of whom would probably not take teaching jobs.
>
> Slight, although inadequate, gains were recorded in teacher education enrollments. Forty-three states reported enrollments larger than before World War II, but only 25 gave this estimate in 1948-49.
>
> None of these states expects an over-supply of graduating teachers from colleges within the next three years though one state is anticipating a balanced supply of elementary-school teachers.
>
> The outlook for a balanced supply of secondary-school teachers is slightly more hopeful. This, six states expect to achieve despite the current trend of secondary-school enrollments increasing faster than elementary-school enrollments.
>
> Just as the outlook for teacher supply varies from state to state so does the teacher shortage vary within states and among states. Rural schools are harder pressed than urban schools. And the pinch tends to be more acute in the elementary school than in the secondary school.[3]

Quoting from a more recent publication on the problem of emergency teachers:

> Persons employed with less than full certification by the state--emergency teachers--are estimated at 95,721 for 1958-59.

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[2]Research Division of the National Education Association, Research Bulletin, Volume 36, No. 1 (Washington: The National Education Association, 1958), p. 9.

[3]Ibid., p. 10.

> Emergency teachers differ greatly from state to state with respect to the academic and other qualifications required for this type of certificate. Of the total number of emergency teachers, 57 per cent have less than 4 years of college.
>
> The emergency teachers are largely concentrated in the elementary schools and in rural school districts. No improvement in the ratio of emergency teachers to the total number of classroom teachers has been evident since 1950-51.
>
> In 1958-59, the total number of emergency teachers employed (95,721) slightly exceeded the number employed in 1949-50 (95,146).[4]

As a means of ascertaining the extent of the problem of adequacy of teacher supply in the Southern Appalachian Region certain specific approaches to the question were worked out. Gross figures concerning the numbers of teachers needed to staff classrooms in given states or regions were not considered as adequate measures of the problem. The writer was more concerned with the extent of shortages and surpluses of teachers in specific subject-area fields, or with other specific competencies such as specialized training in elementary education, guidance, and other fields. The writer was concerned also with the number of teachers currently teaching in the Region with lower-than-minimum academic and professional qualifications for certification in their respective states, usually referred to as emergency teachers or permit teachers; and with the numbers of teachers in the Region who were teaching classes outside their subject-matter fields.

Using the first page of the interview guide reproduced in Appendix A of this study, the writer was able to obtain sufficient information from superintendents and supervisors to point out the significant

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[4]Research Division of the National Education Association, op. cit., Volume 37, No. 1, February 1959, p. 5.

weaknesses in teacher supply in the Region. Table VII, page 74, and Table VIII, page 75, give tabulations of the voluntary responses from each school system concerning the subject-matter fields in which superintendents and personnel officers had the most trouble and the least trouble, respectively, in obtaining teachers to fill facancies.

Table VII was regarded as being indicative of the extent of the shortage of teachers with certain specific qualifications. For example, four out of the five metropolitan county and city systems indicated that they had difficulty recruiting qualified applicants for positions as teachers of mathematics and sciences. Three out of the five indicated that projected programs in foreign languages had suffered from lack of qualified teachers. Mathematics and sciences were also areas of most pronounced shortage in the rural counties, the numbers responding being eleven and eight respectively, out of a total of fourteen systems. Several rural county superintendents indicated in their conversations that they had solved the problem of obtaining competent science teachers by having biology taught by the Vocational Agriculture or health teacher, and eliminating physics and chemistry from their course offerings in most high schools. Other than evidencing some nostalgic desire to reinstate these courses, they no longer considered science teachers a problem.

It was not known whether or not the advent of the space age, with the attendant publicity concerning shortcomings in school programs of mathematics, sciences, and foreign languages, had any influence on the tendency of administrators to respond positively with regard to shortages

TABLE VII

RESPONSES OF PERSONNEL DIRECTORS OF NINETEEN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS TO THE QUESTION: "IN WHAT SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS DO YOU HAVE THE MOST TROUBLE GETTING TEACHERS TO FILL VACANCIES?"[a]

Subject-Matter Fields	Rural Counties	Metropolitan Counties and Cities	Total Number of Systems
Primary grades	2	2	4
One-teacher schools	1	--	1
Male elementary principals	1	--	1
English	4	--	4
Foreign languages	2	3	5
Mathematics	11	4	15
Sciences	8	4	12
Business	2	--	2
Home economics	2	--	2
Industrial arts	1	1	2
Coaches	1	--	1
Girls' physical education	3	--	3
Librarians	1	--	1
Music and band	8	1	9
"All kinds"	1	--	1
Total Number of Systems	14	5	19

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study.

TABLE VIII

RESPONSES OF PERSONNEL DIRECTORS OF NINETEEN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS TO THE QUESTION: "IN WHAT SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS DO YOU HAVE THE LEAST TROUBLE GETTING TEACHERS TO FILL VACANCIES?"[a]

Subject-Matter Fields	Rural Counties	Metropolitan Counties and Cities	Total Number of Systems
Upper elementary grades	3	--	3
English	6	5	11
Social studies	10	5	15
Spanish	--	1	1
Mathematics	--	1*	1
Home economics	1	--	1
Physical education	2	2	4
Colored schools	2	--	2
Total Number of Systems	14	5	19

*This system had two colored teachers with master's degrees in mathematics teaching in elementary schools. They had no mathematics openings in which they could use them in their Negro high schools.

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study.

of teachers in those fields. When questioned in this regard, they usually replied that they had had such shortages for years, and that current publicity had nothing to do with it. Under the circumstances, no estimates of the real effects of the current hysteria were attempted.

Table VIII, page 75, points up surpluses in certain subject-area fields. The fact that four rural counties indicated difficulty in recruiting qualified high school English teachers, while six rural counties indicated a surplus of applicants in the same field seemed to suggest that some of the problems of teacher supply might be partially solved by greater mobility of teachers.

Table IX, page 77, gives a measure of the prevalence of emergency teachers in the Region. Certification regulations differed so much between states that a teacher who was considered a permit teacher in one state might be eligible for full certification in another. Table IX shows only how many teachers did not measure up to minimum requirements in their own states, and gives no comparisons between states. It was noted that eleven of the fourteen rural counties had from two to thirty-eight permit teachers each, with a mean average of almost twelve per system. In the metropolitan and city systems four out of five systems had from two to fifty-six permit teachers each, with a mean average of almost eighteen per system.

Table X, page 78, gives data over a ten-year period, in an approach somewhat the opposite to that used in Table IX. It was noted that at no time in the preceding ten years had ten out of the fourteen rural counties been completely free of permit teachers. Four of the fourteen

TABLE IX

RESPONSES OF PERSONNEL DIRECTORS OF NINETEEN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS TO THE QUESTION: "HOW MANY TEACHERS HAVE YOU WITH LOWER THAN MINIMUM CERTIFICATION?"[a]

Type of System	Number of Systems Having No Emergency Teachers	Systems Having Emergency Teachers		
		Number of Systems	Range of Number of Emergency Teachers in System	Average Number of Emergency Teachers Per System
Rural county	3	11	2-38	11.6
Metropolitan county and city	1	4	2-56	17.8
Total	4	15	2-56	13.3

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' office--Appendix A of this study.

TABLE X

RESPONSES OF PERSONNEL DIRECTORS OF NINETEEN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS TO THE QUESTION: "IN HOW MANY YEARS OUT OF THE LAST TEN HAVE YOU HAD A FULL COMPLEMENT OF FULLY CERTIFICATED TEACHERS?"[a]

Type of System	Number Reporting No Years of Fully Certificated Faculties	Systems Reporting Some Years with Fully Certificated Faculties		
		Number Reporting Some Years of Fully Certificated Faculties	Range of Number Years in Past Ten of Fully Certificated Faculties	Average Number Years in Past Ten of Fully Certificated Faculties
Rural county	10	4	2-10	5.8
Metropolitan county and city	4	1	10	10
Total	14	5	2-10	6.6

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study.

rural systems had had a fully certificated complement of teachers an average of 5.8 years each out of the preceding ten. Of the metropolitan and city systems reporting, one had had no permit teachers for the entire ten-year period.

Table XI, page 80, illustrates the extent to which teachers in the Region were teaching in subject areas for which they had not been prepared. Only four of the fourteen rural counties and one of the city systems claimed to have no teachers teaching outside their subject fields. A total of twelve systems out of the nineteen had an average slightly above eight teachers teaching one class outside their subject fields; six systems had an average of ten teachers teaching two or three classes outside their subject fields; and five systems had an average of almost nine teachers each teaching four or more classes, more than half-time outside their subject fields.

Educational Level of Teachers in the Region

The factors which determined the educational level of teachers were so numerous and complex as to be impossible of full and complete tabulation and consideration. The usual method of determining educational level was to make a gross tabulation of total academic and professional training beyond the high school level, and to express it in years of college completed. This made a good general method of assessment, and was probably reasonably accurate where large numbers of teachers were involved. There were, however, certain other considerations which needed to be measured and assessed wherever possible. For

TABLE XI

RESPONSES OF PERSONNEL DIRECTORS OF NINETEEN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS TO THE QUESTION: "HOW MANY TEACHERS HAVE YOU TEACHING OUTSIDE THEIR SUBJECT FIELDS IN ONE CLASS? TWO OR THREE CLASSES? FOUR OR MORE CLASSES?"[a]

Type of System	None	In One Class			In Two or Three Classes			In Four or More Classes		
		Number of Systems Reporting	Range of Number of Teachers	Average Number of Teachers	Number of Systems Reporting	Range of Number of Teachers	Average Number of Teachers	Number of Systems Reporting	Range of Number of Teachers	Average Number of Teachers
Rural county	4	9	1-10	5.3	5	5-10	6.4	3	8-10	9.3
Metropolitan county and city	1	3	9-32	17.0	1	28	28.0	2	5-10	7.5
Total	5	12	1-32	8.2	6	5-28	10.0	5	5-10	8.6

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study.

example, colleges and universities had their strengths and weaknesses. In addition to a consideration of gross numbers of years completed, an attempt was made to determine the types of universities and colleges attended, and the fields of study in which graduate and undergraduate major and minor work was done.

Another important consideration in determining educational level was recency of graduation. As a field of professional content, the subject matter of education has been developing and expanding rapidly. The entire philosophical basis for professional education has undergone at least two rather distinct metamorphoses since the beginning of the twentieth century. In addition to these changes in frame of reference, colleges and universities tended in recent years, to increase the proportion of professional content in their requirements for graduation in education.

Still teaching in the Region in 1959 were a number of teachers who had met their requirements for certification prior to 1920, when the state normal schools and teachers' colleges were operated almost exclusively on the basis of traditional Platonic idealism accompanied by the mental states school of psychology. Concurrently with this movement many church-related colleges were turning out teachers schooled in the philosophy of the so-called Christian traditionalism, who attempted to apply to their teaching an admixture of the faculty and mental states schools of psychology. During the 1920's and early 1930's the realist philosophy and the behavioristic school of psychology had a brief but significant predominance, especially in the state normal schools and

teachers' colleges. Following the mid-1930's the pragmatic philosophy and gestalt psychology began to make a significant impact upon teacher education institutions, particularly those operated by the states. Incidentally, there were no clear-cut dividing lines in terms of chronological sequence of the predominance of these various philosophies and psychologies. At the time of this study, in late 1958 and throughout 1959, individual institutions and specific personnel in various institutions could be readily identified as representative in their methods, of all the philosophies and psychologies discussed here.

It may readily be realized, then, that even though one may not attempt to make any particular value judgment of the relative merits of the various schools of philosophy, the times and places at which teachers completed their educational requirements were of considerable significance in assessment of their educational levels.

As was true of most of the findings of this investigation, the varying methods of keeping records in the different school systems made it impossible to obtain comparable data about the educational level of teachers for all of the sample systems. The current 1958-59 educational levels of 3337 teachers in one city system, one metropolitan county system, and ten rural county systems were tabulated in Table XII, page 83, and entered in the study as representative of the current educational level of teachers in the Region.

Table XII shows that 81.1 per cent of this sample held a bachelor's degree or above. This level of qualification compared favorably with the national average of 78.8 per cent as reported in the National

TABLE XII

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LEVEL BY YEARS OF COLLEGE OF 3337 TEACHERS IN SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION[a]

	Years of College Completed												College Graduation and Above	
	0		1		2		3		4		5 or More			
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1958-59	38	1.1	42	1.3	348	10.4	203	6.1	2123	63.6	583	17.5	2076	81.1

[a]Source: Data gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study. Current information from these school systems: DeKalb County, Alabama; Pickens County, Georgia; Jackson County, Kentucky; Owsley County, Kentucky; Swain County, North Carolina; Bradley County, Tennessee; Chattanooga, Tennessee; Hamilton County, Tennessee; Sevier County, Tennessee; Giles County, Virginia; Barbour County, West Virginia; and Gilmer County, West Virginia.

Education Association Research Bulletin of February, 1957. The proportion of teachers in Table XII, however, who held master's degrees and above in 1959 was 17.5 per cent, which was significantly lower than the national average of 24.6 per cent for 1957.

Table XIII, page 85, gives a tabulation of the current educational level of 255 respondents to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B). The significant findings of this tabulation were that the number of years of college completed by teachers in the metropolitan counties and cities was higher than the number of years of college completed by teachers in rural counties, and that the number of years of college completed by male teachers was higher than the same measure of educational level of female teachers. In this sample rural female teachers were the only group who fell slightly below a mean average of four years of college education.

The most encouraging aspect of the investigation of the educational level of teachers in the Region was the significant upward trend in years of college completed during the preceding thirty years. As was previously pointed out, data for corresponding years were not available for all systems. However, those data which were available were collected and tabulated as Table XIV, page 86. It was necessary to tabulate individually for representative school systems because of the lack of uniformity of school years for which data were available. Table XIV shows, with one exception, very significant increases in years of college completed by teachers in all systems for all time spans covered by the data. For Sevier County, Tennessee, only, the level of educational achievement of teachers dropped drastically during the ten-year period between 1940

TABLE XIII

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LEVEL BY YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED BY 255 TEACHERS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION WHO RESPONDED TO THE TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE[a]

Classifications of Respondents	Years of College Completed												College and Above		Mean Number Years of College
	2 or Less		3		4		5		6		7				
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Rural males	2	2.8	0		27	37.5	34	47.2	8	11.1	1	1.4	70	97.2	4.68
Rural females	11	8.9	7	5.7	83	67.5	18	14.6	4	3.3	0		105	85.4	3.98
Metropolitan males	0		0		3	20.0	8	53.3	2	13.3	2	13.3	15	100	5.20
Metropolitan females	1	2.2	1	2.2	22	48.9	17	37.8	3	6.7	1	2.2	43	95.6	4.51
Total Sample	14	5.5	8	3.1	135	52.9	77	30.2	17	6.7	4	1.2	233	91.4	4.34

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

TABLE XIV

CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF TEACHERS BY YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED, FOR SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION, FOR SELECTED SCHOOL YEARS[a]

School Year	Years of College Completed												College Graduation and Above	
	0		1		2		3		4		5 or More			
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Chattanooga City Schools, Chattanooga, Tennessee														
1929-30	203	34.6	106	18.1	104	17.7	34	5.8	136	23.2	3	0.5	139	23.7
1939-40	151	20.5	109	14.8	127	17.2	33	4.5	283	38.3	35	4.7	318	43.1
1949-50	60	8.7	59	8.6	90	13.1	41	6.0	358	52.2	78	11.4	436	63.6
1958-59	26	2.7	22	2.2	58	5.9	21	2.1	668	68.2	184	18.8	852	87.0
Hamilton County Schools, Tennessee														
1937-38	8	2.9	21	7.6	107	38.5	53	19.1	84	30.2	5	1.7	89	32.0
1947-48	31	5.8	20	3.8	87	16.4	52	9.8	276	51.9	66	12.4	342	64.3
1957-58	1	0.1	2	0.2	70	8.1	53	6.1	561	64.7	180	20.8	741	85.5
Kanawha County, West Virginia														
1939-40	67	4.5	75	5.0	555			37.3	632	42.5	157	10.6	789	53.1
1949-50	65	3.8	18	1.1	212	12.4	79	4.6	905	53.0	428	25.1	1333	78.1
1954-55	18	0.9	9	0.5	153	8.0	73	3.8	1016	53.3	636	33.4	1652	86.7
1957-58	8	0.4	4	0.2	125	6.1	84	4.1	1191	57.9	645	31.4	1836	89.3
Jackson County, Kentucky														
1949-50	5	5.5	10	11.0	43	47.3	14	15.4	19	20.9	0		19	20.9
1954-55	8	7.0	6	5.3	29	25.4	25	21.9	46	40.4	0		46	40.4
1958-59	3	2.4	6	4.7	21	16.5	23	18.1	52	40.9	22	17.3	74	58.3

TABLE XIV (continued)

CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF TEACHERS BY YEARS OF COLLEGE COMPLETED, FOR SELECTED SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION, FOR SELECTED SCHOOL YEARS

	Years of College Completed												College Graduation and Above	
	0		1		2		3		4		5 or More			
School Year	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Pickens County, Georgia														
1949-50	2	2.9	5	7.4	21	30.9	11	16.2	27	39.7	2	2.9	29	42.6
1958-59					5	6.3	7	8.8	58	72.5	10	12.5	68	85.0
Sevier County, Tennessee														
1939-40	4	2.0	34	16.7	78	38.2	15	7.4	61	29.9	12	5.9	73	35.8
1949-50	40	19.0	26	12.3	70	33.2	16	7.6	50	23.7	9	4.3	59	28.0
1958-59	3	1.4	6	2.8	77	36.2	23	10.8	85	39.9	19	8.9	104	48.8
Swain County, North Carolina														
1942-43			19	24.4	6	7.7			53	67.9			53	67.9
1949-50			2	2.7	10	13.5			59	79.7	3	4.1	62	83.8
1954-55			1	1.3	3	3.8			55	70.5	19	24.4	74	94.9
1958-59					1	1.4	1	1.4	44	60.3	27	37.0	71	97.3
Hawkins County, Tennessee														
1944-45	73	39.9	22	12.0	67	36.6	9	4.9	11	6.0	1	0.5	12	6.6
1949-50	38	16.0	23	9.7	88	37.1	13	5.5	71	30.0	4	1.7	75	31.6
1954-55	35	14.3	15	6.1	92	37.6	13	5.3	73	29.8	17	6.9	90	36.7
1957-58	13	5.1	10	3.9	74	28.8	38	14.8	99	38.5	23	8.9	122	47.5

[a]Source: Data-gathering form used in visits to superintendents' offices--Appendix A of this study.

and 1950. From 1950 to 1959 this situation was more than remedied, with an over-all improvement for the nineteen year period of 13.0 per cent increase in the proportion of teachers in the system who had attained college graduation or higher. Sevier County, Tennessee, with 48.8 per cent of its teachers being college graduates; Hawkins County, Tennessee, with 47.5 per cent; and Jackson County, Kentucky, with 58.3 per cent were the only counties for whom data were available who fell below the 1957 national average of 77.8 per cent.

The other systems represented in Table XIV showed almost fantastic rises in the percentages of teachers who achieved college graduation or higher during the periods of time covered. For example: the percentage of teachers with college graduation or higher almost quadrupled in the Chattanooga city schools between 1930 and 1959, having risen from 23.7 per cent to 87.0 per cent in twenty-nine years. In Kanawha County, West Virginia, the percentage rose from 53.1 in 1940 to 89.3 in 1958. In Hawkins County, Tennessee, the percentage rose from 6.6 in 1945 to 47.5 in 1958, a rise of 40.9 per cent in thirteen years. These phenomenal rises in educational level of teachers were evident in every system studied, and seemed to be entirely characteristic of the Region.

In accordance with the assumption stated earlier in this chapter, namely, that the institutions where the teachers received their academic and professional education were of some significances in assessing the educational level of teachers in the Region, the data available through the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) were tabulated and entered in the study as Table XV, page 89, and Table XVI, page 90. Table XV gives

TABLE XV

TYPES AND LOCATIONS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHERE 250 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE DID THEIR UNDERGRADUATE WORK[a]

Locations of Colleges or Universities	Types of Colleges and Universities: Junior Colleges Number	Junior Colleges Per Cent*	Private or Church-Related Colleges and Universities Number	Private or Church-Related Colleges and Universities Per Cent	State Colleges and Universities Number	State Colleges and Universities Per Cent
Rural Counties						
Present state	22	11.5	78	40.8	169	88.5
Another state in The Southern Appalachian Region	2	1.0	15	7.9	8	4.2
A state outside The Southern Appalachian Region	2	1.0	5	2.6	11	5.8
Total Rural	26	13.6	98	51.3	188	98.4
Metropolitan Counties and Cities						
Present state	1	1.7	32	54.2	33	55.9
Another state in The Southern Appalachian Region	3	5.1	5	8.5	9	15.3
A state outside The Southern Appalachian Region	1	1.7	5	8.5	9	15.3
Total Metropolitan	5	8.5	42	71.2	51	86.4
Total Sample	31	12.4	140	56.0	239	95.6

*112 respondents attended more than one college. Some attended as many as five institutions. Per cents therefore add up to more than 100.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

TABLE XVI

TYPES AND LOCATIONS OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WHERE 152 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE DID THEIR GRADUATE WORK[a]

Locations of Colleges or Universities	Types of Colleges and Universities			
	Graduate Private or Church-Related Universities		Graduate State Universities	
	Number	Per Cent*	Number	Per Cent
Rural Counties				
Present state	2	1.8	100	91.7
Another state in The Southern Appalachian Region	3	2.8	10	9.2
A state outside The Southern Appalachian Region	12	11.0	7	6.4
Total Rural	17	15.6	117	100.0*
Metropolitan Counties and Cities				
Present state	19	44.2	24	55.8
Another state in The Southern Appalachian Region			2	4.7
A state outside The Southern Appalachian Region	10	23.3	1	2.3
Total Metropolitan	29	67.4	27	62.8
Total Sample	46	30.3	144	94.7

*Thirty-one respondents attended two or three universities each. Therefore per cents add up to more than 100 per cent.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

types and locations of colleges and universities where teachers did their undergraduate work. Since 112 of the 250 respondents had taken work in more than one institution, some individual teachers appeared in the numbers from two to five different places in the table. Hence per cents add up to more than 100 per cent.

Table XV is significant in that it points out that almost twice as many teachers did undergraduate work in state colleges and universities as did work in private and church-related colleges. For teachers in rural counties the proportion was 98.4 per cent in state institutions to 51.3 per cent in private and church-related institutions. For teachers in metropolitan county and city systems the difference was not nearly so pronounced, being 86.4 per cent state to 71.2 per cent private and church-related. This difference was accounted for by the fact that most of the returns from metropolitan centers were from areas where there were private and church-related colleges, but no state colleges were located there. This seemed to indicate that when the respondents began their teacher-training, if there were colleges close to their homes they tended to attend them whether they were state or private institutions. If students had to leave home to attend college, they tended to go in larger numbers to state colleges.

Table XVI, page 90, gave types and locations of universities at which 152 respondents reported they had done graduate work. With regard to graduate work, 100 per cent of rural teachers had done at least a part of it in state institutions, while the proportion of metropolitan and city teachers who had done some graduate work at state universities was

only 62.8 per cent. Of the total group, over three times as many (94.7 per cent to 30.3 per cent) had done graduate work in state universities as the number who had done some graduate work in private and church-related universities.

The relatively small numbers of teachers in both Tables XV and XVI who had done undergraduate and graduate work outside their present states were accountable by normal migration and by attendance at the nearest institution. Those who lived near state boundaries frequently crossed them to attend college. Two figures in Table XVI, however, were sufficiently unduly large to require special explanation. The fact that 44.2 per cent of metropolitan teachers attended private universities in their own states was due almost entirely to enrollment in the University of Chattanooga and George Peabody College for Teachers. The 23.3 per cent of metropolitan teachers who attended private universities outside the Southern Appalachian Region was composed largely of enrollees in Teachers' College, Columbia University.

Data concerning the recency of graduation of the respondents to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) were tabulated and inserted in the study as Table XVII, page 93. A total of 227 of the 258 teachers in the sample responded with sufficient information to enable a calculation to be made of the mean number of years since they received their last college degrees. Table XVII showed that most recent degrees were received from 1959 as far back as 1924, with the average lapsed time being 10.9 years. Rural male teachers received their last degrees most recently, with a mean lapsed time of 8.86 years. Metropolitan male teachers were

TABLE XVII

RECENCY OF GRADUATION OF 227 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE (NUMBER OF YEARS SINCE LAST DEGREE RECEIVED)[a]

Classification of Respondents	Number Responding	Range in Years Since Last Degree Received	Mean Average Number of Years Since Last College Degree Received
Rural male	68	0*- 30	8.86
Rural female	103	0 - 33	11.3
Total Rural	171	0 - 33	10.3
Metropolitan male	15	1 - 33	10.6
Metropolitan female	41	1 - 35	13.7
Total Metropolitan	56	1 - 35	12.8
Total male	83	0 - 33	9.2
Total female	144	0 - 35	11.95
Total sample	227	0 - 35	10.9

*Some degrees were received in 1959.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

second most recent (10.6 years), rural females were third (11.3 years), and metropolitan female teachers had had their degrees the longest (13.7 years).

An examination of all data contained in the teacher questionnaires seemed to suggest a number of possible reasons for the differences in recency of graduation of the four groups mentioned in the preceding paragraph. A possible reason why male teachers in both rural and metropolitan teaching positions had acquired degrees more recently than female teachers was that males in the sample were an average of 2.1 years younger than females in the sample (see Table V, page 68). The reasons why metropolitan teachers had generally held their degrees longer than rural teachers were probably related to accessibility to colleges and universities, as well as to higher average family incomes and lower incidence of summer jobs. This situation may also have been a by-product of personnel policies in metropolitan school systems.

The educational level of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region compared favorably with the educational levels of the population in general and of members of other professions for the nation as a whole. The National Education Association Research Bulletin points up this fact rather precisely in the following quotation:

> As compared with the general population and with other professional workers, teachers stand high in years of college work. Of the teachers reporting, 78.8 percent had completed four years or more of college. According to the 1950 census, only 6.0 percent of the population 25 years of age or more

and only 49.3 percent of professional, technical, and kindred workers had completed four years of college.[5]

Professional Work-Load and Professionally Related Extra-Classroom Activities

The professional work-load of teachers in actual hours required in the classroom was fairly uniform throughout the Region. This requirement was precisely set down in the school laws and administrative regulations of the state departments of education, with very little discretion left to local school authorities.

Rules, Regulations and Minimum Standards, 1957-59, Tennessee State Board of Education, set down the most demanding work-load, the most precise with respect to minima and the most flexible in terms of maxima found in the Region:

> Requirement C. Teaching Load and Teacher-Pupil Ratio
> 1. Teaching Load
> a. Teachers of all grades shall be on duty at least 7 clock hours per day and such additional time as the administrative organization requires.[6]

Another representative statement of requirements in the Region was found in the Virginia Regulations of the State Board of Education:

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[5]Research Division of the National Education Association, Research Bulletin, Volume XXXV, No. 1 (Washington: The National Education Association, 1957), pp. 13-14.

[6]Tennessee State Board of Education, 1957-1959 Rules, Regulations and Minimum Standards (Nashville: State Board of Education, July 1957), p. 32.

> . . . no school shall schedule less than five nor more than six and one-half hours each school day for all pupils exclusive of the midday intermission, but including the necessary time for appropriate opening exercises, and provided, further, that, in the discretion of the local school authorities, with the approval of the State Superintendent, the length of the school day may be modified for justifiable reasons. (Minutes, Vol. 25, p. 5, January 21, 1954).[7]

Another example of a limitation on the minimum but not on the maximum number of hours teachers may be required for classroom duty was found in the Secondary Schools Standards for Classification of the West Virginia State Department of Education:

> Standard XIII--Length of School Day
> A. Requirement:
> The school is in session and teachers are on duty for a minimum of six hours, exclusive of noon period.[8]

And further on the subject, from Public School Laws of North Carolina: ". . . the minimum time for which teachers shall be employed in the classroom or on the grounds supervising the activities of children shall be not less than six hours."[9]

Kentucky was the only state in the Region which fixed by statute a maximum length for the teaching day. In Kentucky Common School Laws

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[7]State Board of Education, Regulations of the State Board of Education (Richmond, Virginia: The Michie Company, 1959), Bulletin Volume 41, Number 7, Section 12, p. 7.

[8]West Virginia Department of Education, Secondary Schools Standards for Classification (Charleston: Rose City Press, 1957), p. 13.

[9]State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Public School Laws of North Carolina (Raleigh: State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1955), Section 19.1, p. 19.

1958, the length of the school day was defined as follows: "Six hours of actual school work shall constitute a school day. The daily session, including recesses and intermissions shall not exceed nine hours."[10]

According to the foregoing quotations, one state in the Region authorized a minimum school day of five hours, one a minimum of seven hours, and the remainder somewhere between five and seven but most commonly six hours. These requirements were for minimum number of hours to be spent in classroom and playground teaching. It has been the experience of the writer that an absolute minimum of one hour per day would have to be added to classroom teaching time for such purposes as getting pupils into the building in the morning and out in the afternoon, supervising their lunch periods, and other academically non-productive activities. Added to the legal minima for the various states in the Region, this placed the teacher on duty at the school working with children from six to eight (with a probable regional mean of seven) hours each day.

In the systems visited by the research teams the teachers were literally and absolutely responsible for the welfare and safety of the pupils under their supervision for the entire period of the legally-constituted working day. At no point in the Region were any provisions observed whereby teachers might be relieved from that responsibility for a sufficient time to enable them to obtain food or to have a rest or coffee break. The results of this practice in terms of teacher fatigue,

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[10]Robert R. Martin, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Commonwealth of Kentucky Educational Bulletin Kentucky Common School Laws 1958 (Louisville: Dunne Press, 1958), Volume XXVI, No. 7, Section 158.060, p. 514.

lowered efficiency toward the end of the teaching day, and generally low teacher morale, while not measurable within the scope of this study, were apparent to the members of the research teams.

The actual hours teachers spent working with pupils in class and on the playground did not by any means represent the total professional responsibilities of teachers in service. In addition to actual teaching, teachers had to plan for and prepare lessons, check and grade the work of pupils, help supervise the loading and unloading of school buses, counsel with pupils and parents, take part in in-service training sessions, and a myriad of other activities which no teacher, however uninterested or lax, could possibly avoid doing. These time-and-energy-consuming activities were regarded, for purposes of this study, as a normal part of the teacher's professional work-load.

It had long been known to people in education, but not too readily recognized by many others, that teachers had certain further obligations which were equally as time and energy consuming as their actual professional work-loads. These types of activities have been aimed at the promotion of pupil welfare, community development, the promotion of teachers' professional organizations, and the general professional development of teachers themselves. Participation in these activities was compulsory to varying degrees in some communities, entirely voluntary in others. Compulsion, when it was present, was not in the form of legal statute, but rather occurred as pressure from school boards, community organizations, church groups, professional organizations, individuals, and, in some cases, as a matter of precedent.

Because the compulsion to carry out such activities was informal or extra-legal, and because it often originated within the teacher himself in his desire to be of added service, these activities have been referred to in this study as professionally-related extra-classroom activities. Included in this category were such obligations as professional reading, attendance at professional meetings, attendance at and supervision of school-sponsored pupil activities outside of school hours, counselling with pupils and parents outside of school hours, refereeing and officiating at school athletic events outside of school hours, supervising and judging at school artistic and exhibitory functions outside of school hours, and many other activities in which teachers were daily engaged.

Professionally-related extra-classroom activities, especially in rural areas where professional people were scarce, could be performed only by teachers. This fact distinguished them from those activities in which public-spirited people in all walks of life normally engaged, such as Boy Scout, church, service club and local government activities.

Since it was impossible in most communities to distinguish where a teacher's professional work-load ended and his professionally-related extra-classroom activities began, teachers receiving the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B of this study) were polled as to the extent of the time they spent outside of school hours on all activities directly related to their positions and their profession. A total of 229 out of the 258 questionnaires returned contained some sorts of gross estimates in numbers of hours per month that teachers spent meeting these various

obligations. Results were tabulated and entered in this study as Table XVIII, page 101. Totals of mean hours per month in the table were computed from the totals on the questionnaires, and represented the sums of all the hours per month allocated to the various categories of activities.

Certain things showed up rather prominently in Table XVIII. One of the most significant findings of this part of the investigation was that rural teachers spent much more time, with 60.4 hours per month, in professionally-related activities than did city teachers, with 50.6 hours per month. Since one of the major differences in the table was evident in the item dealing with school-sponsored pupil-activities, one might conclude that smaller rural schools sponsored more functions per teacher than did the larger metropolitan and city schools, or that they had less outside assistance in doing so. As was mentioned previously, the more populous metropolitan and city centers generally had more non-teachers willing and able to take over sponsorship and direction of youth activities than had rural communities. This assumption seemed to be borne out both by the results of the questions which concerned school-sponsored pupil-activities and those concerned with refereeing and officiating.

The amount of time spent by teachers in counselling with pupils and parents, as shown in Table XVIII, presented a rather shocking picture. Slightly more than half the teachers in the sample said that they spent a mean average of 6.2 hours per month in this important function. In effect this amounted to slightly more than one hour per year per

TABLE XVIII

TIME DEVOTED BY 229 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE TO PROFESSIONAL WORK AND PROFESSIONALLY-RELATED EXTRA-CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES ACCORDING TO THE TYPES OF ACTIVITIES AND THE MEAN NUMBERS OF HOURS PER MONTH SPENT ON THESE ACTIVITIES*

Classifications of Teachers		Preparation and Grading	Professional Reading	Professional Meetings	School Sponsored Pupil-Activities	In-Service Education	Counselling Pupils and Parents	Refereeing-Officiating	College and Extension Courses	Miscellaneous[a]	Total Mean Hours Per Month[b]
Rural male	Number reporting	53	56	56	51	31	38	9	7	8	65
	Mean hours per month	29.3	13.3	4.9	14.4	5.5	6.8	13.3	7.4	29.1	63.4
Rural female	Number reporting	106	92	103	60	33	49	6	17	10	107
	Mean hours per month	33.0	9.6	4.2	9.6	5.8	6.8	13.8	18.0	16.6	58.5
Total Rural	Number reporting	159	148	159	111	64	87	15	24	18	172
	Mean hours per month	31.8	11.0	4.5	11.8	5.6	6.8	13.5	14.9	22.2	60.4
Metropolitan male											
	Number reporting	12	13	15	10	9	10	3	3	1	15
	Mean hours per month	24.8	12.7	4.6	3.8	2.4	4.2	5.7	13.3	15.0	45.7
Metropolitan female											
	Number reporting	40	39	41	23	28	27	2	6	2	42
	Mean hours per month	25.6	10.3	5.2	7.3	4.5	4.9	3.0	8.3	5.0	52.4
Total Metropolitan											
	Number reporting	52	52	56	33	37	37	5	9	3	57
	Mean hours per month	25.4	10.9	5.0	6.2	4.0	4.7	4.6	10.0	8.3	50.6

TABLE XVIII (continued)

TIME DEVOTED BY 229 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE TO PROFESSIONAL WORK AND PROFESSIONALLY-RELATED EXTRA-CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES ACCORDING TO THE TYPES OF ACTIVITIES AND THE MEAN NUMBERS OF HOURS PER MONTH SPENT ON THESE ACTIVITIES

Classifications of Teachers		Preparation and Grading	Professional Reading	Professional Meetings	School Sponsored Pupil-Activities	In-Service Education	Counselling Pupils and Parents	Refereeing-Officiating	College and Extension Courses	Miscellaneous	Total Mean Hours Per Month
Total male	Number reporting	65	69	71	61	40	48	12	10	9	80
	Mean hours per month	28.4	13.2	4.8	12.6	4.8	6.3	11.4	9.2	27.6	60.1
Total female	Number reporting	146	131	144	83	61	76	8	23	12	149
	Mean hours per month	31.0	9.8	4.5	8.9	5.2	6.1	11.1	15.5	14.7	56.8
Total sample	Number reporting	211	200	215	144	101	124	20	33	21	229
	Mean hours per month	30.2	11.0	4.6	10.5	5.0	6.2	11.3	13.6	20.2	57.9

[a]Miscellaneous included: "Coaching Ball"; "Club Sponsor"; "Cataloguing Library"; "Rehearsals"; "Lunch Room Supervision"; "Class Sponsor"; "Bus Duty"; "Repairing Shop Equipment"; "Sorority Sponsor"; "Homebound Child"; etc.

[b]Totals from total on questionnaire (not from above table).

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

family unit of student and parents combined. If an adequate program of parent visits during school hours were provided, supplemented by professional counselling when needed, then even this small amount of teacher counselling outside of school hours would not be necessary. There was no evidence that such organized parent visits and professional counselling were general practice in the Region. Hence even this insignificant amount of teacher effort outside of school hours represented a rather striking tribute to the professional endeavors of the teachers in the Region.

In terms of the extent of the teachers' work week in the Region, Table XVIII added a considerable amount of pertinent data. Professional work-load and professionally-related extra-classroom activities as set out in Table XVIII accounted for an average of from twelve to fifteen hours per week of a teacher's time outside the classroom. Added to the data presented earlier in this chapter, which indicated that teachers worked a minimum of thirty hours and a maximum in excess of forty hours per week in actual classroom teaching and playground supervision, the findings reported in Table XVIII seemed to indicate that teachers in the Region had a total work-load extending from a minimum of forty-two hours per week to a maximum in excess of fifty-five hours each week. In other words, teachers in the Region worked about fifty hours each week at the job of being teachers.

Experience and Length of Continuous Service of Teachers in the Sample

One of the criteria against which the professional status of teachers might be measured was: "A profession offers its practitioners a life career and a permanent membership." The extent to which teachers currently went into teaching as a life work, as compared to the former use of teaching as a stepping-stone to some other profession, was regarded as one vital measure of their professional status.

According to current concepts in personnel administration, if a teacher remained a number of years in the same school or in the same system, this fact not only promoted a certain degree of stability in the system; it also indicated a degree of stability on the part of the teacher concerned. Obviously some teachers evidenced more professional growth after five years of teaching experience than others did after twenty years. However, gross as it may be, a measure of the tenure of teachers in a system together with total years taught was one indispensible consideration in determining the professional level of teachers in the Region.

Table XIX, page 105, gives a measure of the tenure of teachers who completed the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B of this study). Years of teaching in their present schools, in their present school systems, and in total teaching experience were tabulated for the sample according to sex and according to whether teachers were currently employed in rural or metropolitan systems. Ranges of extremes of tenure and mean average numbers of years for each classification were computed. Totals

TABLE XIX

RANGE AND MEAN AVERAGE YEARS OF TENURE OF 258 TEACHERS IN THEIR PRESENT SCHOOLS, IN THEIR PRESENT SCHOOL SYSTEMS, AND IN TOTAL YEARS TAUGHT[a]

Classifications of Teachers	Tenure in Present School			Tenure in Present School System			Total Number of Years Taught		
	Number Reporting	Range in Years	Mean Years	Number Reporting	Range in Years	Mean Years	Number Reporting	Range in Years	Mean Years
Rural males	69	1-31	6.5	67	1-41	12.8	72	1-42	15.5
Rural females	121	1-32	9.4	119	1-35	15.9	126	1-40	19.4
Total Rural	190	1-32	8.3	186	1-41	14.8	198	1-42	18.0
Metropolitan males	13	1-42	10.2	13	2-43	17.2	15	2-43	17.0
Metropolitan females	45	1-37	10.5	45	1-37	14.9	45	3-41	19.6
Total Metropolitan	58	1-42	10.4	58	1-43	15.5	60	2-43	18.9
Total males	82	1-42	7.1	80	1-43	13.5	87	1-43	15.8
Total females	166	1-37	9.7	164	1-37	15.6	171	1-41	19.5
Total sample	248	1-42	8.8	244	1-43	14.9	258	1-43	18.2

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

were in all respects considerably higher than the median national figures for 1956-57 as given in the National Education Association Research Bulletin, The Status of the American Public-School Teacher, Volume XXXV, Number 1, February 1957, Table 12, page 16. Methods of processing and presenting data were not the same, and very few comparable categories were available for comparison. However, conclusions reached in that investigation were identical with those of this study, namely:

1. That women, with one exception, had significantly longer periods of tenure in all classifications. The exception was that Table XIX, page 105, showed that metropolitan male teachers had been in their present systems an average of 17.2 years each, compared to 14.9 years for metropolitan female teachers.

2. That metropolitan teachers had significantly longer periods of tenure in all classifications than had rural teachers.

In terms of total teaching experience, metropolitan female teachers led all other classifications, with a mean average of 19.6 years of experience. They were closely followed by rural female teachers with 19.4 years. Metropolitan male teachers, with a mean average of 17.0 years total teaching experience, were 1.5 years ahead of rural males. The fact that female teachers averaged longer total teaching experience than males could be partially accounted for by the finding, developed earlier in this chapter, that female teachers were older than male teachers.

Continuity of Teaching Service

Personnel administrators in education have long been concerned about the obviously common practice among teachers of "dropping out" and "dropping back in" to teaching. In an effort to staff schools which were expanding in personnel requirements much more rapidly than colleges were training teachers, it became common practice among administrators to fill their vacancies with former teachers. In some systems valiant efforts were made to attract back into teaching those teachers who had gone into other work, and particularly female teachers who had taken up full-time homemaking. In the course of the investigation many superintendents told the research teams quite frankly that, were it not for the pool of local housewives who had formerly been teachers and on whom they were able to draw in order to meet their personnel requirements, they would have been completely unable to staff their schools with certificated teachers. This practice, employed during and after World War II as a stop-gap measure presumably to "tide us over until things got back to normal," had become so common and of such long standing as to be almost accepted as the normal method of staffing in many systems.

Although the widespread practice of moving in and out of teaching has long been regarded by most administrators and by all professional organizations as a professionally undesirable by-product of the times, no authoritative study of its effects on education has been made. Unfortunately, such a study was beyond the scope and range of this investigation. This study was, however, able to investigate the prevalence of the practice, and to make some assessments of its total extent.

Table XX, page 109, gives the results of the reports of 140 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B). The other 118 respondents either had not been out of teaching since they started, or they failed to report the fact. In all, 54.3 per cent of the teachers in the sample had been away from teaching one or more times for periods of from one-half year to a total of twenty-eight years, with a mean average total time out of the field of 6.1 years. Metropolitan female teachers again led all classifications with an average of 7.9 years out of the profession for 53.3 per cent of their total numbers. Rural females, on the other hand, showed a larger proportion of their numbers involved (61.9 per cent) for a shorter average number (6.3) of years. Metropolitan male teachers had the lowest incidence of broken tenure, with only 26.7 per cent of their numbers out of teaching for an average of 1.9 years each, none of these periods away from the profession exceeding three years in total length of time.

Reasons offered by respondents for being away from teaching for extended periods of time were too few to be statistically valid and reliable, and so diverse as to defy tabulation. A careful study of each questionnaire, however, showed two recurring conditions sufficiently frequently to indicate that they were highly significant. With regard to married female teachers with offspring, the years that they indicated that they were away from teaching frequently corresponded with the years of birth and early infancy of their offspring. The years which male teachers indicated as those when they were not teaching corresponded with the years in which the nation was involved in World War II and the Korean

TABLE XX

BROKEN TENURE[a] OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE[b]

Classifications of Teachers	Numbers Responding		Range of Absences in Years	Mean Average Total Length of All Tenure Breaks in Years
	Number	Per Cent[c]		
Rural males	34	47.2	1-19	4.9
Rural females	78	61.9	1-21	6.3
Total Rural	112	56.6	1-21	5.8
Metropolitan males	4	26.7	½- 3	1.9
Metropolitan females	24	53.3	½-28	7.9
Total Metropolitan	28	46.7	½-28	7.0
Total males	38	43.7	½-19	4.6
Total females	102	59.6	½-28	6.7
Total sample	140	54.3	½-28	6.1

[a]Broken tenure was defined as one or more extended periods of time out of the teaching profession, after which the respondent returned and is now re-engaged in full-time teaching.

[c]Per cents were based on the total response from 258 teachers, calculated by total responses in each classification (See Table VI, page 70).

[b]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

conflict. Those who were not in the armed forces indicated in another part of the questionnaire that those were the years when they were most commonly engaged in other full-time work activities.

The National Education Association Research Bulletin for February, 1957, presented a number of reasons for breaks in teaching service on a national scale. These reasons appeared to be equally valid for teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region.

> Seven out of 10 of the men and of the single women teachers reported uninterrupted teaching careers--no breaks in service of as much as one year. But only a third of the married women reported unbroken service; a fourth of them reported two or more extended absences.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> The relationship of maternity to the careers of married women teachers is shown in the fact that 56.3 percent of the childless married women reported continuous service, as compared with only 19.2 percent for teachers having one child.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> For men teachers, military service and employment in non-teaching positions accounted for 37.9 and 36.6 percent, respectively, of their most recent breaks in service.
>
> Marriage, maternity, and mobility of husbands accounted for 83.3 percent of the breaks in service of married women teachers.
>
> Further study was mentioned by 44.7 percent of the single women as a cause of absences of a year or more.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> Both rural and urban men had spent about a tenth as much time away from teaching as in active service; this was also true of urban women. But rural women had spent a third as much time away from teaching as on the job.[11]

Mobility of Teachers

The extent of mobility of teachers from state to state within the Region, and into the Region from outside states, was not difficult to

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[11]Research Division of the National Education Association, op. cit. Volume XXV, No. 1, February 1957, pp. 17-19.

measure. A study of the effects of this mobility, like that of moving from system to system within a state, were highly individual in nature, and hence not within the scope of this investigation. It was the writer's assumption that a certain amount of mobility was desirable in that it tended to expose a system to fresh new ideas, and to reduce the effects of professional inbreeding. An assumption corollary to this was that extreme mobility on the part of a teacher tended to indicate the possibility of instability in that particular individual.

All available information concerning location of teaching positions, numbers of positions held, and length of time in each position, was extracted from the teacher questionnaires, processed and tabulated, and entered in the study as Table XXI, page 112. Locations of positions were classified as being in the states in which the teachers were teaching at the time of completing the questionnaire, called present state; states in the Southern Appalachian Region, called S.S.A.R.; and states outside the Region. The two latter classifications were also combined and called other states. Due to the inadequate manner in which many of the questionnaires were completed by respondents, some of the data had to be procured through processing the answers to several related questions on the questionnaires. For example: the rows headed "minimum mean number of positions held" were the results of inspection of three or four questions which were frequently answered in an inconsistent manner. It was not always possible, from the way in which the answers were given, to be able to say with assurance that the respondent had held a certain number of teaching positions during his lifetime. It was

TABLE XXI

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING SERVICE OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE, LOCATIONS OF TEACHING POSITIONS, AND NUMBERS OF POSITIONS HELD[a]

	Rural Males	Rural Females	Total Rural	Metro. Males	Metro. Females	Total Metro.	Total Males	Total Females	Total Sample
In Elementary Schools									
Number reporting service in their present states	43	106	149	8	38	46	51	144	195
Mean number years in their present states	12.7	17.4	16.0	9.4	14.6	13.7	12.2	16.6	15.5
Minimum mean number positions held, present states	3.2	2.6	2.8	2.4	2.1	2.2	3.0	2.5	2.6
Maximum mean number years per position	4.0	6.7	5.7	3.9	6.9	6.2	4.0	6.7	5.9
Number reporting service in other states	4	15	19	1	11	12	5	26	31
Mean number years in other states	8.0	2.5	3.7	2.0	3.1	3.0	6.8	2.8	3.4
Minimum mean number positions held, other states	2.0	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.8	1.3	1.4
Number reporting experience in S.S.A.R.	2	6	8		4	4	2	10	12
Number reporting experience outside the Region	2	7	9	1	6	7	3	13	16

TABLE XXI (continued)

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING SERVICE OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE, LOCATIONS OF TEACHING POSITIONS, AND NUMBERS OF POSITIONS HELD

	Rural Males	Rural Females	Total Rural	Metro. Males	Metro. Females	Total Metro.	Total Males	Total Females	Total Sample
In Junior High Schools									
Number reporting service in their present states	16	4	20	7	14	21	23	18	41
Mean number years in their present states	3.2	4.3	3.4	8.9	6.9	7.6	4.9	6.3	5.5
Minimum mean number positions held, present states	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.4	1.3
Maximum mean number years per position	3.2	4.3	3.4	5.6	4.6	5.1	4.1	4.5	4.2
Number reporting service in other states	3		3		6	6	3	6	9
Mean number years in other states	2.3		2.3		2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2
Minimum mean number positions held, other states	1.0		1.0		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Number reporting experience in S.S.A.R.	1		1		4	4	1	4	5
Number reporting experience outside the Region	2		2		2	2	2	2	4

TABLE XXI (continued)

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING SERVICE OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE, LOCATIONS OF TEACHING POSITIONS, AND NUMBERS OF POSITIONS HELD

	Rural Males	Rural Females	Total Rural	Metro. Males	Metro. Females	Total Metro.	Total Males	Total Females	Total Sample
In Senior High Schools									
Number reporting service in their present states	49	37	86	4	10	14	53	47	100
Mean number years in their present states	8.4	12.2	10.0	25.0	13.7	16.9	9.7	12.5	11.0
Minimum mean number positions held, present states	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.6
Maximum mean number years per position	4.9	7.6	5.9	19.2	10.5	13.0	5.7	7.8	6.9
Number reporting service in other states	9	7	16	1	5	6	10	12	22
Mean number years in other states	4.3	5.3	4.8	1.0	1.6	1.5	4.0	3.8	3.9
Minimum mean number positions held, other states	1.4	1.9	1.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.5
Number reporting experience in S.S.A.R.	4	5	9	1	2	3	5	7	12
Number reporting experience outside the Region	5	2	7		3	3	5	5	10

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

Footnote to Table XXI

Number reporting college teaching		15
Mean number years reported		3.2
Location:	present states	8
	S.S.A.R.	6
	outside the Region	2

1 Military Academy	4 years
1 Parochial School	5 years
1 Business College	14 years
1 Superintendent of Schools	12 years
1 Ag. Extension	2 years
1 Ag. Extension	1 year
1 Supervisor	9 years

possible, however, by comparing a number of answers, to conclude with certainty that he must have held at least a certain minimum number of positions. Hence the true mean number of positions held could have been slightly larger than the figures given in the rows headed "minimum mean number of positions held." This, in turn could cause the true mean number of years per position to be somewhat less than the stated maximum mean number of years in each position. The totals in Table XXI added up to more than the 258 teachers in the sample because many teachers in the Region had taught in different places at different grade levels, and hence appeared in several different places in the table.

The results of Table XXI showed that 195 teachers out of the 258 in the sample had an average of 15.5 years each in at least 2.6 teaching positions in the elementary schools of the states in which they were teaching at the time of the investigation. Thirty-one of the 258 had taught an average of 3.4 years each in the elementary schools of other states. Of these thirty-one a total of sixteen had taught outside the Southern Appalachian Region.

Forty-one of the 258 respondents had taught an average of 5.5 years each in at least 1.3 positions in the junior high schools of their present states. A total of nine had taught an average of 2.2 years each in at least one position in the junior high schools of other states, four of these teachers having at some time worked outside the Southern Appalachian Region.

A total of one hundred teachers of the 258 responding had taught an average of 11.0 years each in at least 1.6 positions in the senior

high schools of their present states. Twenty-two had taught an average of 3.9 years each in at least 1.5 positions in the senior high schools of other states, ten teachers having taught high school outside the Southern Appalachian Region.

Apparently the relationship between different classifications of teachers in the Region with respect to mobility followed closely the national pattern. Teachers in the sample, however, tended to remain longer in their positions than did those in the nation as a whole. Evidence of this fact was found by comparison with the findings reported in the National Education Association Research Bulletin, The Status of the American Public School Teacher:

> Teachers share the national custom of moving around . . . . The median teacher had taught in 2.6 systems. In view of the women's longer experience, . . . the figures show a higher rate of mobility for men teachers than for women. Women had averaged about five and a half years in each of 2.8 systems; men had averaged less than four years in each of 2.2 systems. Rural teachers showed greater mobility than urban.
>
> Teachers in the larger cities had made the fewest moves. Of those in urban districts 500,000 or more in population, 64.3 percent had taught in only one system.[12]

Salaries and Incomes of Teachers

The level of financial support to which teachers were entitled had always been a matter of controversy in the field of education. The difficulties inherent in resolving this controversy were heightened somewhat

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[12] Ibid., p. 17.

by the nature of the teachers' work and the sources from which they received their remuneration.

Two factors have tended to reinforce one another in generating the emotionally-heated subjective approaches which have been taken to this question. Probably the factor of first importance in that regard was one growing out of the fact that the teacher was an employee of the local community. As such, he received his pay from local sources exclusively, until the third decade of the twentieth century, and through the local boards of education in most places since that time. His salary was provided from local taxation or other local sources of revenue, and he was employed by local people. This arrangement placed the teacher in the curious position of being a local public servant whose constitutional responsibility lay mainly in the discharge of a state function.

Throughout the later colonial period, the days of the new Republic and the time of the expansion westward, conditions of life were such that an individual had to depend largely on his own resourcefulness for survival and for success. From this rugged frontier type of existence evolved a culture unique in the importance it placed on the rights and freedom of the individual. This characteristic individuality became the basis for democracy as it was practiced in the United States. Along with this virile new concept of individuality there developed a not-unmixed blessing in the form of a sort of distrust and suspicion of government per se. One school of political philosophy epitomized this individualistic ideal in a cliche to the effect that that government which governs least governs best. This attitude toward government, particularly

federal, was not softened in the South by the War Between The States and the reconstruction period which followed it.

The gross result of this particular social phenomenon was a sort of non-specific and diffuse emotional hostility directed toward authority in the form of all things governmental, accompanied by an attitude of skepticism concerning the motives and worth of employees of government. Since the federal government particularly, and state governments generally were so far physically removed from the people in most local communities, the brunt of any popular disaffection with governmental activity at any level tended to be borne by the representatives and employees of local government in the community. In the days of the isolated community and the one-teacher school, almost the only public servant with whom large numbers of the people were in daily contact was the school teacher. Hence, it was not uncommon for general dissatisfaction with government at any level to be followed by an unconscious transfer of responsibility in the minds of the people, accompanied by renewed unrest in the community with respect to the costs of education. Since the major costs of education have always been instructional salaries, and since teachers as a group have tended to be the least well-organized and the least politically powerful of all public servants, the net result of political disaffection and economic unrest throughout the nation has almost invariably been an attack on teachers' salaries.

Partly as a causal factor of the foregoing, and partly as a result of it, the traditional social status of teachers in America played an important role in the determination of their economic status. As a

sort of tolerated-but-not-favored step-son of the clergy in the times when education was controlled by the churches, both the social and the economic status of teachers were somewhat less than professional. From this inauspicious background sprang the widespread notion that teachers were some kind of missionaries, and that teaching was a "calling" for which its followers renounced such mundane worldly considerations as the economic and financial realities of life. Although rapidly giving way to a more realistic outlook, this conception of the role of the teacher in society was by no means dead at the time of writing.

For over one hundred years, with accelerated impetus during the second quarter of the twentieth century, the National Education Association and its affiliated state and local teachers' professional organizations had been attempting to up-grade the professional, economic, and social status of all teachers. It had chosen as its methods the development of professional attributes in the teaching body, and the education of the public to new concepts of the role of education and of teachers in society. These methods had shown themselves to be sound in principle, democratic in approach, and exceedingly slow in realizing results. On the other hand, especially in a number of industrial areas, teachers tended to form themselves into unions, to affiliate with international labor organizations, and to press for improvements in social and economic status by the methods of organized labor. The greatest virtue of this move appeared to lie in the speed with which results were obtained in the field of economic betterment of teachers. So far as was known to the writer, no comprehensive, scientifically objective study had been

made to determine the relative merits, nor even the actual results achieved by these two dissimilar approaches to the betterment of the role of teachers in society.

This study was concerned with criteria which defined a profession as an essential social service, and which stated that professions emphasized the service to be rendered rather than the economic gain accruing to the practitioners. It should be noted, of course, that these criteria applied to a profession as a group of practitioners rather than as individuals. There was no sound reason for assuming that an individual member of a profession would be any more nor any less concerned with economic considerations than would a member of any other vocational group.

Aside from the basic personal physical and psychological needs common to all people, which could be met in a modern society only through the procurement of an adequate and equitable portion of society's medium of exchange, there were at least two apparently valid reasons for extreme concern with the economic status of teachers. One was the status which, in the minds of the people, had come to be associated with economic rewards. With the elimination of a titled aristocracy, and in keeping with the rising importance of the individual in the social philosophy of the New World, the bestowal of status tended to fall naturally as a reward for individual achievement. As money became the common medium of exchange, the money received for achievement began to replace the actual achievement as the basis on which status was bestowed. Finally, the goods and services which money would buy, and the evidence that money was

present, completely replaced achievement as the symbol of status. Of late years, aside from the publicity attendent upon success in the world of entertainment and certain other extremely limited fields, there remained but two ways in which recognition, and hence status, could be bestowed by society. These were: by title, through position, which obviously could not be bestowed upon all members of a given occupational or professional group; and through money and the goods and services which money would procure. In the fiercely competitive society which developed as a result of the way in which the New World was opened up, and as a result of the political and economic philosophies which helped to open it, people tended to give general respect to only two classifications of their fellows: those few whom they could know intimately enough to respect them for their personal qualities; and those groups of people for whom society in general had shown respect through the monetary rewards it had bestowed upon them. Repugnant as these conditions obviously were to certain types of intellects, they represented de facto realities in society. Therefore they had to be faced objectively. It seemed to follow logically that if one were to assign to education and to teachers the place that they must occupy in a modern society, then one of the first steps in so-doing would be to radically raise their status in the minds of the people, through adequate financial and economic rewards for achievement.

The second reason for concern with the financial status of teachers was justified in terms of enabling teachers to devote their time and energies to doing the best possible job of professional work.

Provision of financial security for the teacher and his family was regarded as being the only way in which the individual teacher might be freed from the necessity for engaging in distracting time and energy consuming activities completely unrelated to his professional function. It was the contention of the writer that, if education were to fulfill its ever broadening and deepening role in the modern world, teachers must be freed from other considerations and enabled to devote their full energies to the practice of their professional role and to the improvement of their professional abilities. These activities required the time and money necessary to permit regular study, reading, travel, and the examination of new and stimulating ideas. Obviously the teacher who was a part-time teacher was not a teacher at all, in the true sense of the word. In the same vein, a social order which spent large portions of its substance on the education of a teacher capable of performing a truly professional function, and then forced him, through inadequate remuneration, to provide for his financial needs by becoming a part-time teacher, was not a society which could be commended for its husbandry, nor was it a society which could be expected to grow to greater heights.

On the basis of the preceding concepts, a study was made of the salaries and incomes of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region. Table XXII, page 124, gives ranges of salaries and mean average salaries of teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B). These were current 1958-59 salaries, and did not indicate trends. Although the average salaries of the teachers in this sample were somewhat higher than the average teachers' salaries for any of the states in the

TABLE XXII

1958-59 ANNUAL TEACHING SALARIES, TOTAL FAMILY INCOMES, AND OUTSIDE INCOMES OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE[a]

Classifications of Teachers	Present Annual Salary			Total Family Income			Outside Income**		
	Number*	Range of Salaries in Dollars	Mean Annual Salary	Number	Range of Salaries in Dollars	Mean Annual Income	Number	Range of Salaries in Dollars	Mean Annual Income
Rural males	70	1927-7200	$3832	69	2734-20500	$5729	33	200-12000	$1453
Rural females	115	1600-5472	3393	95	2655-12000	6297	6	60- 600	399
Total Rural	185	1600-7200	3559	164	2655-20500	6058	39	60-12000	1291
Metropolitan males	14	4000-6280	4644	14	4800- 9200	7195	9	50- 2500	1022
Metropolitan females	41	2663-5000	4222	39	3700-44000	10268	7	150- 1200	464
Total Metropolitan	55	2663-6280	4330	53	3700-44000	9457	16	50- 2500	778
Total male	84	1927-7200	3967	83	2734-20500	5977	42	50-12000	1361
Total female	156	1600-5472	3610	134	2655-44000	7453	13	60- 1200	434
Total sample	240	1600-7200	3730	217	2655-44000	6888	55	50-12000	1142

*Number reporting.

**Outside income was defined as income other than from primary salary of respondent (second job, investment, inheritance, etc).

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

Region, the average salary for the total sample was only $3730 per year, compared to the national average of $4650 the preceding year. It was worthy of note that the average salaries paid in metropolitan county and city systems were approximately $800 per year higher for both males and females than were the salaries paid to corresponding classifications in rural counties. A part of this difference lay in the fact that metropolitan county and city teachers had slightly higher academic and professional qualifications and slightly longer periods of experience than rural teachers. A perusal of salary schedules, however, revealed that metropolitan and city systems also had higher beginning salaries, larger annual increments, and higher maximum salaries than rural systems.

That section of Table XXII which deals with family income indicates that the families of metropolitan teachers enjoyed decidedly higher incomes than did the families of rural teachers, the difference between the two being an average of $3400 per year. Since the difference in average teaching salaries was about $800 per year, it seemed to follow that the spouses of metropolitan teachers earned about $2600 per year more than did the spouses of rural teachers. It was also worthy of note that although female teachers earned significantly lower teaching salaries than males and less than one-third as much outside income as males, their total family incomes averaged almost $1500 per year higher than the total family incomes of male teachers. This seemed to indicate that when the primary bread-winner in the family was not a teacher, total family income was decidedly higher than when the major source of income depended upon a teaching salary.

The third section of Table XXII reveals the extent to which teachers earned income other than their teaching salaries. Although this section involved only slightly more than 20 per cent of the total sample, it showed that male teachers earned much more outside income than females did, and that rural males earned more than teachers in any other category. This finding may have resulted from the fact that rural teachers were paid lower teaching salaries than city teachers, and that the males, as bread-winners for their families, felt compelled to take outside employment. On the other hand it may have appeared as a function of the relatively high incidence of part-time farming on the part of rural male teachers. Probably the reason involved a number of these factors rather than a single all-inclusive explanation.

The most significant single fact revealed in Table XXII was that for 217 of the 258 respondents who provided salary and income data, the average family income was almost double the average teaching salary. A careful inspection of the completed questionnaires revealed that the only situations in which the teaching salary was invariably a major portion of the total family income was in the case of single, widowed and divorced teachers. Of the 185 respondents who were parts of family units of which the teachers were either husband or wife, seventy-three had total family incomes well in excess of double the teaching salary in each case. The largest family income reported, $44,000 per year, was 611 per cent of the highest teaching salary reported, namely $7,200 per year. This $44,000 per year family income was also 1100 per cent of the $4,000 teaching salary of the respondent who reported it. For these

seventy-three people, who represented 39.4 per cent of the respondents with families and 28.2 per cent of the total sample, their teaching salaries were definitely secondary incomes. If not insignificant, their teaching salaries were at least inferior to their other sources of income.

The preceding paragraph was not intended to suggest that there was anything wrong with teachers having incomes other than their teaching salaries. It did suggest, however, that in far too many cases teaching salaries were not sufficiently high to provide a major source of income for the teachers' families. It also appeared to suggest that in far too many instances the luxury of being a teacher could be indulged in largely by those who had sources of sufficient outside income to make such a life possible.

Table XXIII, page 128, gives average annual salaries for teachers in the sample counties and for the states in the Region for selected years, when figures were available. In some instances averages for classroom teachers were not available. In these cases averages including principals were used, and in a few cases averages for all instructional personnel. An examination of the sources revealed that since 1950 average salaries for all instructional personnel were approximately $125 per year higher than average salaries of classroom teachers only, and there was slightly less than $125 difference prior to 1950.

Table XXIII indicates that 1957-58 average salaries were from 284 per cent to 458 per cent of 1929-30 salaries. This gave the appearance

TABLE XXIII

AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS BY SAMPLE COUNTIES AND BY STATES IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION FOR SELECTED YEARS*

School Systems	1929-1930	1939-1940	1949-1950	1954-1955	1957-1958	Per Cent Increase[a]
West Virginia						
Barbour County	948	941	1942	2261	2649	280
Gilmer County	979	960	2037	2367	2777	284
Grant County	915	951	1835	2285	2667	291
Tucker County	919	970	1967	2707	2962	312
Kanawha County	1252	1185	2402	2886	3509	280
Average of Sample	1155	1123	2302	2791	3377	292
State of West Virginia	1165[b]	1172[b]	2414[b]	3057[c]	3525[c]	e
Tennessee						
Bradley County	743		2049	2477	2848	383
Hamilton County	1020		2764	3542	3998	392
Hawkins County	587		1737	2083	2666	454
Sevier County	578		1701	1977	2503	433
Chattanooga	1029		2723	3763	4144	402
State of Tennessee	888		1937	2825	3427	386
Kentucky						
Jackson County	426	558	1568	1854[c]	2524[c]	e
Leslie County	418	495	1273	1708[c]	2289[c]	
Owsley County	455	527	1172	1872[c]	2540[c]	e
State of Kentucky	845	820	1774	2612	3084	365
North Carolina						
Swain County	769	861	2329			e
Buncombe County	943	886	2430			e
Asheville	1516	927	2762			e
Average of Sample	1130	897	2522			e
State of North Carolina	850	885	2561		3750	441
Virginia						
Giles County		1252[d]	2162	3031	3489	e
State of Virginia		1352[d]	2731	3123	3699	e
Alabama						
DeKalb County	714	373	1881	2478	3178	445
State of Alabama	736	716	2061	2599	3372	458
United States[f] National Average	1420[c]	1441[c]	3010[c]	3950[c]	4650[c]	327

Footnotes to Table XXIII

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[a]"Per Cent Increase" is the per cent that the 1957-58 figure is of the 1929-30 figure.

[b]Includes principals.

[c]Includes all instructional personnel.

[d]1944-45 figures (earlier data not available).

[e]Figures not comparable.

[f]From Research Division of the National Education Association, Rankings of the States (Washington: National Education Association, December 1957), Table 30, p. 17. (Multilithed)

*Source: Statistical tables from the annual and biennial reports of the State Departments of Education for the various states involved. No data available for North Carolina following 1950. No data available for Georgia for any year.

of teachers' salaries having risen fantastically during the intervening twenty-eight years. However, no investigation of salaries, incomes and other considerations involving money could possibly be complete without some reference to the changing value of the dollar. Hence all data in Table XXIII were converted to actual purchasing value using the purchasing index from The Economic Almanac 1958, and re-entered in the study as Table XXIV, page 131.

Table XXIV gives a much more realistic picture of what has actually happened to teachers' salaries from 1929-30 to 1957-58 than does Table XXIII. The actual purchasing value of average salaries for the Region in 1957-58 was from 170 per cent to 278 per cent of the actual purchasing value of the corresponding average salaries in 1929-30. Part of this salary increase could be accounted for by more enlightened scheduling policies. For example, in 1929-30 male teachers were paid more than female teachers in the same system with the same training and experience; high school teachers were paid more than elementary school teachers; city teachers were paid more than rural teachers; and white teachers were paid much more than colored teachers. Inequalities between urban and rural salaries continued to exist in 1957-58, as shown in the figures in Table XXIV. For example, Kanawha County, Charleston, West Virginia, paid an average annual salary with a purchasing power of $3358, while Grant County, West Virginia, paid an average annual salary with a purchasing value of only $2552. Similarly, Chattanooga, Tennessee, paid $3966 while Bradley County, Tennessee, a few miles away, was able to staff its schools at an average of $2736, and Sevier County, Tennessee, paid only $2395 the same year.

TABLE XXIV

AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF TEACHERS BY SAMPLE COUNTIES AND BY STATES IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION, FOR SELECTED YEARS, CORRECTED TO ACTUAL PURCHASING VALUES*

School Systems	1929-1930	1939-1940	1949-1950	1954-1955	1957-1958	Per Cent Increase[a]
West Virginia						
Barbour County	1495	1699	2158	2254	2535	170
Gilmer County	1544	1733	2263	2360	2658	172
Grant County	1443	1717	2039	2278	2552	177
Tucker County	1449	1751	2185	2699	2835	196
Kanawha County	1974	2139	2669	2877	3358	170
Average of Sample	1821	2027	2557	2783	3232	177
State of West Virginia	1837[b]	2115[b]	2682[b]	3048[c]	3373[c]	e
Tennessee						
Bradley County	1172		2276	2470	2726	233
Hamilton County	1609		3071	3531	3826	238
Hawkins County	926		1930	2077	2551	275
Sevier County	912		1890	1971	2395	263
Chattanooga	1623		3025	3752	3966	244
State of Tennessee	1400		2152	2817	3280	234
Kentucky						
Jackson County	672	1007	1742	1848[c]	2415[c]	e
Leslie County	659	893	1414	1703[c]	2191[c]	e
Owsley County	718	951	1302	1866[c]	2431[c]	e
State of Kentucky	1333	1480	1971	2604	2951	221
North Carolina						
Swain County	1213	1554	2588			e
Buncombe County	1487	1599	2700			e
Asheville	2391	1673	3069			e
Average of Sample	1782	1619	2802			e
State of North Carolina	1340	1597	2845		3589	268
Virginia						
Giles County		1784[d]	2402	3022	3339	e
State of Virginia		1927	3034	3114	3540	e
Alabama						
DeKalb County	1126	673	2090	2471	3041	270
State of Alabama	1161	1292	2290	2591	3227	278
United States National Average	2239[c]	2601[c]	3344[c]	3938[c]	4450[c]	199
Index of Purchasing Value[f]	157.7	180.5	111.1	99.7	95.7	

Footnotes to Table XXIV

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[a]"Per Cent Increase" is the per cent that the 1957-58 figure is of the 1929-30 figure.

[b]Includes principals.

[c]Includes all instructional personnel.

[d]1944-45 figures (earlier data not available).

[e]Figures not comparable.

[f]From National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., The Economic Almanac 1958 (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1958), p. 62. Purchasing value of the dollar, 1953 = 100.

*Source: Figures from Table XXIII, page 128 of this study, converted to actual purchasing value using the index of purchasing value.

However, salary inequities other than those existing between systems had largely disappeared from the Region by 1957-58. All systems studied were on a single salary schedule based only on years of training and years of teaching experience. The teacher was paid according to his position on the schedule regardless of grade level taught, sex, and color.

A further portion of the salary increase might be accounted for by the fact that enlightened scheduling of salaries permitted additional payment for added years of college education and for added years of teaching service in the system. These provisions tended to encourage teachers to acquire better qualifications, and to remain somewhat more stable within their systems. For example, during 1929 the Appalachian counties of Kentucky and Georgia had over 60 per cent of their classrooms staffed with teachers who had four years or less of high school education (no college), with only a few counties in the Appalachian Regions of North Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia having less than 10 per cent of their teachers with high school graduation or less. In 1959 a study of 3337 teachers in the Region, reported in Table XII, page 83 of this study, revealed that 81.1 per cent of the 3337 teachers had college graduation and above. Similar data with respect to length of teaching service and length of tenure in the system were reported previously in this study.

Tables XXIII and XXIV show that really remarkable salary increases had taken place in the Region between 1930 and 1958. These figures showed that great strides had been taken toward the development

of professional salaries in the Region. The fact that gigantic percentage increases had been reported, however, should not be interpreted other than in the light of the bases on which these percentages were calculated. For example, the purchasing value of the national mean instructional salary in the United States had just about doubled between 1930 and 1958. In the sample counties recorded in Table XXIV, ten of the seventeen geographical units for which comparable figures were available showed higher percentage increases than did the national mean. In spite of this, however, only one system, Chattanooga, Tennessee, was within $500 of the national mean. Others ranged downward to Leslie County, Kentucky, which with $2191, was only 49.2 per cent of the national mean using comparable figures.

In summary one might say that school systems in the Region have made remarkable progress during the preceding twenty-eight years in the development of professional salaries for their teachers. These salaries, however, were still far below the national average, and even farther below a sound professional level of remuneration. If further development of teaching as a profession were to be desired by the people of the Region, they would have to plan for even faster and larger increases in the salaries of their teaching personnel.

Continued Professional Growth of Teachers

The research group working on the education sub-project of the Southern Appalachian Studies, including the writer of this study, considered a number of different ways in which the extent of continued

professional growth of teachers in the Region might be measured. It was decided that those means which would best operate within the framework of the Southern Appalachian Studies and at the same time would best meet the needs of this study included a consideration of the extent to which teachers took summer and extension courses, the extent of their participation in in-service training, the extent to which they attempted to keep abreast of professional developments through professional reading, the frequency and range of their travels, and the extent of their activities in professional organizations. Since Chapter IV of this study was designed to deal with a wide range of considerations regarding professional organizations, the extent of membership and activity of teachers in the Region was left for consideration in that chapter. The other aspects of continued professional growth of teachers were dealt with in this section.

The first measure of continued professional growth made in this study was a summary of the quarter-hours of college and university credits earned by teachers in the sample during the preceding year and during the preceding five years. This summary was placed in the study as Table XXV, page 136. Table XXV includes all people who indicated that they had taken such courses, except those who had applied their credits to a degree received during the period covered. During the preceding year 27.5 per cent of the teachers in the sample had completed from two to forty-five quarter-hours of credit, with an average of 8.8 quarter-hours each. During the preceding five years, 47.8 per cent of the teachers in the sample had completed from one to 108 quarter-hours,

TABLE XXV

QUARTER-HOURS COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY CREDIT EARNED BY TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE DURING THE PAST YEAR AND DURING THE PAST FIVE YEARS[a]

Classifications of Teachers	During Past Year*				During Past Five Years*			
	Number of Teachers		Range of Quarter-Hours Credit Earned	Average Number Quarter-Hours Credit Earned	Number of Teachers		Range of Quarter-Hours Credit Earned	Average Number Quarter Hours Credit Earned
	Number	Per Cent			Number	Per Cent		
Rural males	18	25.0	3-21	10.2	36	50.0	3-108	27.5
Rural females	35	27.8	3-45	8.1	61	48.4	1- 39	15.1
Total Rural	53	26.8	3-45	8.8	97	49.0	1-108	19.7
Metropolitan males	5	33.3	3- 9	5.4	6	40.0	6- 15	9.3
Metropolitan females	13	28.9	2-36	9.8	20	44.4	2- 30	11.7
Total Metropolitan	18	30.0	2-36	8.6	26	43.3	2- 30	11.1
Total males	23	26.4	3-21	9.2	42	48.3	3-108	24.9
Total females	48	28.1	2-45	8.5	81	47.4	1- 39	14.3
Total sample	71	27.5	2-45	8.8	123	47.8	1-108	17.9

*Figures for past five years include figures for past year.
Exclusive of credits applied to a degree conferred during this period.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

for an average of 17.9 quarter-hours each. One inexplicable finding of this investigation was that during the preceding year 30.0 per cent of metropolitan teachers had completed college work while only 26.8 per cent of rural teachers had. During the preceding five years, however, 49.0 per cent of all rural teachers had completed work, while only 43.3 per cent of the metropolitan teachers had done so.

Reports on the amount of time that teachers devoted to in-service training were disappointingly incomplete. Tennessee was the only state in the Region where a specified period of in-service training was required each year as a part of the teachers' contractual obligations. In other parts of the Region in-service training appeared to be a rather sporadic sort of thing. Even in Tennessee, where it was required by law, some teachers reported as little as two hours per month while others spent as much as twenty hours per month in in-service training or in working and preparing for it.

Table XVIII, page 101, shows the numbers who indicated that they regularly took part in in-service training sessions, and the mean number of hours per month that they spent in this activity. Only 101 teachers, 39.1 per cent of the sample, indicated that they regularly took part in in-service training activities, averaging 5.0 hours per month each. Apparently metropolitan systems provided opportunities for more teachers to take part in in-service training than did rural systems, but where it was provided in rural systems it was provided in greater quantity. That is, 61.7 per cent of all metropolitan teachers in the sample indicated that they averaged 4.0 hours per month each in in-service activities,

while only 33.5 per cent of all rural teachers in the sample said that they averaged 5.6 hours per month each.

One of the most common ways of keeping abreast of developments in one's professional field, other than by means of college courses and in-service education sessions, was by means of professional reading. In order to assess the extent of this activity as an indicator of the professional interest and enthusiasm of teachers in the Region, it was necessary first to determine to what extent teachers had access to up-to-date professional literature; and second, the extent to which they used it. Table XVIII, page 101, indicated that 200 of the 258 teachers who had responded to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) had professed to spend a mean average of 11.0 hours per month in professional reading.

Table XXVI, page 139, and Table XXVII, page 140, give a measure of the availability of professional literature to the teachers in the sample. Table XXVI gives a tabulation of answers to the question, "To about how many current professional education periodicals do you have easy access in your home, school library, county library, public library, etc.?" As was expected, metropolitan county and city teachers reported access to many more periodicals than did rural teachers. Of the metropolitan and city teachers, 30.0 per cent indicated that they had access to ten or more current professional periodicals, while only 16.7 per cent of rural teachers had access to so many. Metropolitan and city teachers indicated that 25.0 per cent of their numbers had access to five or less current periodicals, while 38.9 per cent of all rural teachers fell into this group.

TABLE XXVI

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "TO ABOUT HOW MANY CURRENT PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION PERIODICALS DO YOU HAVE EASY ACCESS IN YOUR HOME, SCHOOL LIBRARY, COUNTY LIBRARY, PUBLIC LIBRARY, ETC.?"[a]

	5 or Less		6 to 10		More Than 10		"No Idea"		Total Response		No Response	
	Number*	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Rural Teachers	77	38.9	50	25.3	33	16.7	19	9.6	179	90.4	19	9.6
Metropolitan and City Teachers	15	25.0	19	31.7	18	30.0	5	8.3	57	95.0	3	5.0
Total Sample	92	35.7	69	26.7	51	19.8	24	9.3	236	91.5	22	8.5

*Number reporting.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

TABLE XXVII

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "TO ABOUT HOW MANY PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION BOOKS DO YOU HAVE EASY ACCESS IN YOUR HOME, SCHOOL LIBRARY, COUNTY LIBRARY, PUBLIC LIBRARY, ETC.?"[a]

	25 or Less		26 to 100		101 to 150		More Than 150		"No Idea		Total Response		No Response	
	Number*	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Rural Teachers	61	30.8	43	21.7	5	2.5	24	12.1	32	16.2	165	83.3	33	16.7
Metropolitan and City Teachers	11	18.3	8	13.4	4	6.7	20	33.3	8	13.3	51	85.0	9	15.0
Total Sample	72	27.9	51	19.8	9	3.5	44	17.1	40	15.5	216	83.7	42	16.3

*Number reporting.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

Table XXVII answers the question, "To about how many professional education books do you have easy access in your home, school library, county library, public library, etc.?" The results of this question were almost identical in form to the answers with respect to periodicals. More than 150 professional books were readily available to 33.3 per cent of all metropolitan teachers in the sample, while only 12.1 per cent of rural teachers indicated access to so many. Only 18.3 per cent of metropolitan and city teachers indicated access to twenty-five or less professional books, while 30.8 per cent of rural teachers were in this category.

The "No Idea" answers were included for checking in the questionnaire in an effort to determine something about the numbers of teachers who were not sufficiently interested in professional reading to find out what was available. The questions were deliberately worded to request approximate answers so that those who did some professional reading but did not know the exact numbers of publications available would not be tempted to check the "No Idea" answers. With respect to current periodicals, 9.3 per cent of the sample indicated no idea of the numbers available to them, and 8.5 per cent failed to respond to the question. With respect to professional education books, 15.5 per cent of the sample indicated no idea of the numbers available, and 16.3 per cent did not respond to the question. These non-responses check quite satisfactorily with Table XVIII, page 101, in which slightly over 20 per cent of the sample failed to indicate any hours per month devoted to professional reading.

Answers to the question, "About how many professional periodicals have you read in the last month?" were tabulated and entered as Table XXVIII, page 143. This table shows that 79.1 per cent of the teachers in the sample read from one to fifteen professional periodicals in a month, with a mean average number of 3.9 each. Table XXVIII also shows that metropolitan teachers read more periodicals than rural teachers, and that male teachers read more professional periodicals than female teachers.

Table XXIX, page 144, records the extent of reading of books, professional, academic, and non-related, done by teachers in the sample. If estimates given by the respondents were accurate, some of them must have read tremendous numbers of books. A total of 81.0 per cent of all teachers in the sample read from one to forty professional books, an average of 5.0 each, the preceding year. Fifty-five per cent of the respondents stated that they had read from one to thirty books related to their academic fields, an average of 5.6 each.

Although there was no way of assessing the value of reading books unrelated to the teachers' academic and professional fields, it was assumed that the teacher who read a large number of these would tend to be generally better informed about many things than would the one who read less. Hence reports of unrelated readings were also included in Table XXIX. These reports indicated that 67.1 per cent of the respondents read from one to 125 books during the preceding year, an average of 11.9 unrelated books each.

TABLE XXVIII

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "ABOUT HOW MANY PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS HAVE YOU READ IN THE LAST MONTH?"[a]

Classifications of Teachers	Number Reporting	Range of Number Read	Average Number Read	Number Reporting Zero and Number Not Reporting Anything	Per Cent of Sample
Rural males	57	1-15	3.9	15	20.8
Rural females	96	1-15	3.7	30	23.8
Total Rural	153	1-15	3.8	45	22.7
Metropolitan males	13	1-10	4.9	2	13.3
Metropolitan females	38	2-10	4.4	7	15.6
Total Metropolitan	51	1-10	4.5	9	15.0
Total males	70	1-15	4.1	17	19.5
Total females	134	1-15	3.9	37	21.6
Total sample	204	1-15	3.9	54	20.9

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

TABLE XXIX

PROFESSIONAL, ACADEMIC AND NON-RELATED READING DONE BY TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE DURING THE PRECEDING YEAR*

Classification of Teachers	Number Professional Books Read Last Year					Number Academic[a] Books Read Last Year					Number Unrelated[b] Books Read Last Year				
				"Zero" and No Answer					"Zero" and No Answer					"Zero and No Answer	
	Number[c]	Books[d]	Mean	Number	Per Cent	Number	Books	Mean	Number	Per Cent	Number	Books	Mean	Number	Per Cent
Rural males	56	1-25	4.9	16	22.2	43	1-20	4.2	29	40.3	46	1-100	11.4	26	36.1
Rural females	101	1-40	4.5	25	19.8	66	1-30	5.7	60	47.6	86	1- 80	10.7	40	31.7
Total Rural	157	1-40	4.7	41	20.7	109	1-30	5.1	89	44.9	132	1-100	10.9	66	33.3
Metropolitan males	13	1-20	5.7	2	13.3	9	1-20	5.6	6	40.0	10	3- 30	7.4	5	33.3
Metropolitan females	39	1-20	6.2	6	13.3	24	1-25	7.7	21	46.7	31	2-125	17.6	14	31.1
Total Metropolitan	52	1-20	6.1	8	13.3	33	1-25	7.1	27	45.0	41	2-125	15.1	19	31.7
Total males	69	1-25	5.1	18	20.7	52	1-20	4.5	35	40.2	56	1-100	10.7	31	35.6
Total females	140	1-40	5.0	31	18.1	90	1-30	6.2	81	47.4	117	1-125	12.5	54	31.6
Total sample	209	1-40	5.0	49	19.0	142	1-30	5.6	116	45.0	173	1-125	11.9	85	32.9

[a]Academic books--those books related to the teacher's academic field.

[b]Unrelated books--those books not related either to the professional or the academic fields of the respondent.

[c]Number reporting. [d]Range of numbers of books.

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

Metropolitan teachers reported professional reading in larger numbers than rural teachers, and they also reported slightly larger average numbers of books read in all categories. Women appeared to have read slightly larger numbers of books than men in all categories except two. Rural males reported more reading of professional books and unrelated books than did rural female teachers.

Judging by the numbers of teachers reporting professional reading and the numbers of books and periodicals read, teachers in the Region were extremely prolific readers. Assessing the quantities read in the light of time devoted to professional reading (Table XVIII, page 101) teachers in the Region must also have been fast readers. No facilities existed, however, for assessing the quality of the reading done, nor its effects upon the people who reported it.

The significance of travel in an assessment of professional level of teachers was not readily definable. It was generally assumed that teachers who had a desire to travel must have had a more than casual interest in their fellow beings and in the world around them. It was further assumed that the teacher who had come in contact with the people of other regions and other nations had broadened his knowledge, his outlook, and his sympathies. By so doing, he was capable of being a better teacher. The precise effects of a given journey on a specific teacher would definitely defy measurement. It was assumed simply, therefore, that as one of many gross media of assessment, the extent to which teachers travelled could be used as a basis for judging how interesting and enlightened they were potentially able to be.

On the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) teachers were asked whether or not they had travelled widely in their own states; then they were asked whether or not they had travelled extensively in other states. These questions were to be answered by checking a Yes or No answer. These questions were open to considerable variability of interpretation. Then respondents were asked to give the number of states they had visited in the preceding five years, and how many times they had been one hundred and three hundred miles, respectively, from home in the preceding two years.

Partly as a check on the consistency with which they interpreted the first two questions, the number of times they indicated that they had been one hundred miles or more from home in the preceding two years was tabulated in terms of the answers they gave to whether or not they travelled widely in their own states. This tabulation is shown in Table XXX, page 147. Although both the people who answered Yes and those who answered No to the question of whether they travelled widely in their own states did show considerable range in their numbers of trips one hundred miles from home, the average numbers of trips taken differentiated markedly between those who gave the positive answers and those who gave the negative answers to the companion questions. The 209 people who said they did travel widely in their own states averaged 13.6 trips each of one hundred miles or more in the preceding two years. The forty-seven who said they did not travel widely in their own states averaged only 7.3 trips each. In all categories of replies the differences were definitely significant.

TABLE XXX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "HAVE YOU TRAVELLED WIDELY IN YOUR OWN STATE?" AND MEAN NUMBERS OF TIMES RESPONDENTS INDICATED THAT THEY HAD BEEN ONE HUNDRED MILES FROM HOME DURING THE PRECEDING TWO YEARS[a]

Answers to the question, "Have you travelled widely in your own state?"	Male		Female		Total	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Rural Teachers						
Number responding	61	11	93	31	154	42
Mean average number of times that respondents indicated that they had been one hundred miles from home in the preceding two years	15.9	10.4	11.4	6.6	13.2	7.6
Metropolitan Teachers						
Number responding	15		40	5	55	5
Mean average number of times that respondents indicated that they had been one hundred miles from home in the preceding two years	23.0		11.9	4.6	14.9	4.6
Total Sample						
Number responding	76	11	133	36	209	47
Mean average number of times that respondents indicated that they had been one hundred miles from home in the preceding two years	17.2	10.4	11.5	6.4	13.6	7.3

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

Based on the same reasoning as that applied in the construction of Table XXX, numbers of states respondents indicated they had visited in the preceding five years and numbers of times they had been three hundred or more miles from home in the preceding two years were tabulated in terms of whether or not they said that they travelled extensively in other states. These tabulations were entered in the study as Table XXXI, page 149. The answers to these questions were in all respects parallel to those tabulated in Table XXX, with the exception of one category, namely: metropolitan and city male teachers who said that they did not travel extensively in other states then indicated that they had visited an average of 15.0 states each in the preceding five years. Since only two people were involved in this category, this part of the sample was considered to be too small to have any validity.

The 146 teachers who said that they travelled extensively in other states had visited a mean average of 12.4 states each in the preceding five years, and had been three hundred or more miles from home an average of 4.8 times each in the preceding two years. The ninety-seven respondents who said that they did not travel widely in other states had been in only 6.0 states each in the preceding five years, and had been three hundred or more miles from home an average of 2.4 times each during the preceding two years.

Extent of foreign travel, including the new states of Alaska and Hawaii, is shown in Table XXXII, page 150. Although twenty-five of the trips recorded in Table XXXII had been taken under the auspices of the armed services, it was interesting to note that the trips undertaken

TABLE XXXI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "HAVE YOU TRAVELLED EXTENSIVELY IN OTHER STATES?" AND MEAN NUMBERS OF STATES RESPONDENTS INDICATED THEY HAD VISITED IN PRECEDING FIVE YEARS AND MEAN NUMBERS OF TIMES RESPONDENTS INDICATED THEY HAD BEEN THREE HUNDRED MILES OR MORE FROM HOME DURING THE PRECEDING TWO YEARS*

Answers to the question, "Have you travelled extensively in other states?	Male		Female		Total	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Rural Teachers						
Number responding	46	23	56	60	102	83
Average number states respondents said they had visited in preceding five years	10.7	6.0	11.8	5.7	11.3	5.8
Average number times respondents said they had been three hundred or more miles from home in preceding two years	5.1	2.7	3.9	2.3	4.4	2.4
Metropolitan and City Teachers						
Number responding	13	2[a]	31	12	44	14
Average number states respondents said they had visited in preceding five years	12.3	15.0[a]	16.0	5.9	14.9	7.2
Average number times respondents said they had been three hundred or more miles from home in preceding two years	9.2	7.5[a]	4.2	1.4	5.7	2.3
Total Sample						
Number responding	59	25	87	72	146	97
Average number states respondents said they had visited in preceding five years	11.1	6.7	13.3	5.7	12.4	6.0
Average number times respondents said they had been three hundred or more miles from home in preceding two years	6.0	3.1	4.0	2.1	4.8	2.4

[a]Sample too small to be valid and reliable.

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

TABLE XXXII

EXTENT OF FOREIGN TRAVEL OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE BY DESTINATIONS*

	Alaska	Bermuda-Bahamas	Canada	Cuba	Europe	Hawaii	Mexico	North Africa	South America	West Indies
Rural males	3		20	2	10	11	16	4	1	5
Rural females		1	38	2			12		1	1
Total Rural	3	1	58	4	10	11	28	4	2	6
Metropolitan Males	1		8		5	2	6	1	1	2
Females			16	1	3		11			1
Total Metropolitan	1		24	1	8	2	17	1	1	3
Total males	4		28	2	15	13	22	5	2	7
Total females		1	54	3	3		23		1	2
Total sample	4	1	82	5	18	13	45	5	3	9
Less number on war service	1			1	13	5		4		1
Total of Voluntary Travel[a]	3	1	82	4	5	8	45	1	3	8

[a]Voluntary travel was defined as travel undertaken voluntarily by the individual teacher and was considered to be exclusive of travelling done while serving in the armed forces.

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

voluntarily by the respondents on their own initiative added up to 160. Table XXXII records 185 trips outside the limits of the forty-eight states, but only 127 respondents, 49.2 per cent of the total sample, were involved. Several of these 127 had taken more than one such trip, a few of them having been abroad as many as seven or eight times.

The preceding information seemed to indicate that teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region were a rather well-travelled group of people. Judging on this basis, at least, one would say that they must have been exposed to a great many enlightening contacts with other groups of people and with many unusual and interesting places.

Extra-Professional Work Activities of Teachers

Some reference was made in a preceding part of this chapter, under a discussion of salaries and incomes of teachers, to the fact that over 20.0 per cent of teachers in the sample earned income over and above their teaching salaries. Table XXXIII, page 152, gives details of these extra jobs in terms of the time of year work was done, the number of people involved, the mean numbers of hours worked each week, and the mean average annual income as a result of this extra work.

As shown in Table XXXIII, seven people reported part-time work during the school year only, averaging 5.7 hours per week each, for an average annual income of $131l; fifteen people worked during summer holidays only, averaging 29.3 hours per week each, for an average annual income of $577; and twenty-four people worked an average of 11.8 hours per week each during the school year and 30.3 hours per week during the

TABLE XXXIII

NUMBERS OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE REPORTING PART-TIME JOBS, AVERAGE NUMBERS OF HOURS PER WEEK WORKED AT THESE PART-TIME JOBS, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOMES FROM THESE PART-TIME JOBS ACCORDING TO THE TIME OF YEAR WORKED*

Location of Teachers and Time of Year Worked	Numbers of Teachers Reporting			Mean Number Hours Worked Each Week			Mean Average Annual Income		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Rural Teachers									
Those working part-time during school year only	4	1	5	14	2	11.6	1825	60	1472
Those working part-time summer holidays only	8		8	27		27	700		700
Those working part-time the year around	18	3	21	14[a] 38	6[a] 8	12.8 33.7	1187	520	1092
Metropolitan and City Teachers									
Those working part-time during school year only	2		2	4		4	900		900
Those working part-time summer holidays only	3	4	7	28	35	32	384	475	436
Those working part-time the year around	2	1	3	7 20	6 6	6.7 15.3	1750	150	1217

TABLE XXXIII (continued)

NUMBERS OF TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE REPORTING PART-TIME JOBS, AVERAGE NUMBERS OF HOURS PER WEEK WORKED AT THESE PART-TIME JOBS, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL INCOMES FROM THESE PART-TIME JOBS ACCORDING TO THE TIME OF YEAR WORKED

Location of Teachers and Time of Year Worked	Numbers Teachers Reporting			Mean Number Hours Worked Each Week			Mean Average Annual Income		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total Sample									
Those working part-time during school year only	6	1	7	6.3	2	5.7	1516	60	1314
Those working part-time summer holidays only	11	4	15	27.2	35	29.3	614	475	577
Those working part-time the year around	20	4	24	13 35	6 7	11.8 30.3	1253	428	1116
Totals of all responses regarding part-time jobs	37	9	46[b]	16.1 28.0	18.4 18.9	16.6 26.0	1106	408	969

[a]Where two numbers occur in one column the upper number represents the average number of hours worked per teacher (at part-time jobs) while school is in session; the lower number represents the average number of hours worked per teacher during school holidays.

[b]A total of fifty-four people indicated part-time employment but eight of them did not give enough information about this employment to be included in this table.

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

summer holidays for an average annual income of $1116 per teacher.

It would have been impossible to estimate the advantages that might have accrued to the students they taught and the communities they served had these teachers devoted this time and energy to personal development and professional growth. On the other hand, it was comparatively easy to guess the financial plight in which many of these families would have been placed had they foregone these added sources of income under the current teachers' salary structure in the Region.

Teachers' Attitudes to the Teaching Profession

In an effort to determine what teachers really thought about teaching, they were asked to answer two questions and to make comments concerning their answers, on the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B). It was hoped that these responses would help to determine what attitudes, conscious or unconscious, they normally conveyed to other people about their work. What teachers felt about themselves in relation to their profession was considered pertinent to the problem of selection and recruitment, as well as to the problem of upgrading the professional status of teachers.

In one question they were asked to indicate whether or not they would advise any of their children to become teachers. This answer was to be indicated by a simple Yes or No, followed by a comment if they wished to make one. Many respondents who were not parents answered this question very definitely, some with comments, which seemed to indicate generalized feelings as well as specific guidance which they had

been giving to their students. For that reason, the calculations shown in Table XXXIV, page 156, are based on the entire sample, whether or not respondents had children of their own.

One of the significant findings in Table XXXIV was that rural teachers, both male and female, gave the same percentage of affirmative responses, but a much larger percentage of males than females gave definite negative responses. Of those rural female teachers who were not affirmative in their answers, many more of them tended to qualify their replies than did the males.

Metropolitan teachers, both male and female, tended to recommend teaching to their children as a career in much larger numbers than did rural teachers. Here the situation with respect to negative answers was the reverse of what it was with rural teachers. Only 13.3 per cent of the metropolitan males gave an unqualified No to the question, while 22.2 per cent of the metropolitan females said No. For the total sample, the number who answered in the affirmative, 47.7 per cent, was more than double the number who gave an unqualified negative answer, 22.5 per cent. No response to the question, and qualified answers came from 29.8 per cent of the sample.

To the question of whether or not any of their children were teachers or planning to become teachers, the answers were tabulated for only the 151 respondents who were parents. Table XXXV, page 157, shows that metropolitan teachers answered Yes to this question in 51.4 per cent of the cases, while rural teachers responded affirmatively in only 30.2 per cent of the cases.

TABLE XXXIV

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "WOULD YOU ADVISE ANY OF YOUR CHILDREN TO BECOME TEACHERS?"[a]

Locations of Teachers	Males				Females				Totals				"Not Applicable" "Yes and No" and No Response	
	"Yes"		"No"		"Yes"		"No"		"Yes"		"No"			
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Rural	33	45.8	23	31.9	57	45.2	23	18.3	90	45.5	46	23.2	62	31.3
Metropolitan	9	60.0	2	13.3	24	53.3	10	22.2	33	55.0	12	20.0	15	25.0
Total Sample	42	48.3	25	28.7	81	47.4	33	19.3	123	47.7	58	22.5	77	29.8

Note: Many respondents who were not parents replied to this question either on the basis of their general feelings or in terms of advice they gave their students. Therefore all percentages in this table were calculated on the basis of the total number of respondents in each category.

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

TABLE XXXV

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "ARE ANY OF YOUR CHILDREN TEACHERS OR PLANNING TO BECOME TEACHERS?"*

Locations of Teachers	Males				Females				Totals			
	"Yes"		"No"		"Yes"		"No"		"Yes"		"No"	
	Number	Per Cent[a]	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Rural	12	23.1	40	76.9	23	35.7	41	64.1	35	30.2	81	69.8
Metropolitan	4	40.0	6	60.0	14	56.0	11	44.0	18	51.4	17	48.6
Total Sample	16	25.8	46	74.2	37	41.6	52	58.4	53	35.1	98	64.9

[a]Per cent was of total number of respondents in each category who indicated that they were parents as follows:

	Male	Female	Total
Rural	52	64	116
Metropolitan	10	25	35
Total	62	89	151

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

Of the definite Yes and No responses from which Table XXXIV was constructed, only 132 people chose to comment on the reasons why they would or would not recommend teaching as a potential career for their children. These comments were as many and as varied as the people who made them. Many of the comments showed a depth of perception, an organization of thought, and a serious concern for the welfare of their charges which augured well for the future of their profession; many others, it must be conceded, demonstrated a repetition of cliches and a careless haste in answering which seemed to indicate that the respondents were unconcerned with the serious intent of the investigation, too busy to do it justice, or completely inexperienced in the process of examining their own motives.

Table XXXVI, page 159, represents an attempt to categorize the comments of respondents as to why they would or would not advise their children to become teachers. It was impossible to put these comments in to precise categories. However, using expressions contained in the comments, statements which appeared to be most nearly related to a few central concepts about the role of teaching in a modern society were brought together under each heading.

Table XXXVI contains 202 distinct comments, submitted by 132 respondents, many of whom made more than one observation each. These were comments made only by those who gave definite affirmative or negative answers to the question of whether or not they would advise their children to become teachers. Many who said "Yes and No" and who otherwise qualified their answers also commented on their reasons. No attempt

TABLE XXXVI

CATEGORIZED COMMENTS SUBMITTED BY 132 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE WHO GAVE DEFINITE AFFIRMATIVE AND NEGATIVE ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "WOULD YOU ADVISE ANY OF YOUR CHILDREN TO BECOME TEACHERS?"[a]

Comments of those who answered "Yes"	Rural M	Rural F	Metro-politan M	Metro-politan F	Total M	Total F	Total Rural	Total Metro-politan	Total Sample
Rewarding, satisfying, interesting, inspiring, challenging, "I like it"	12	35	3	13	15	48	47	16	63
Chance for personal and professional growth; contact with desirable associates	2	3	1	2	3	5	5	3	8
Becoming recognized as important profession; will be better	3	2	2		5	2	5	2	7
Good working conditions; short hours; long holidays; sure of a job		3		1		4	3	1	4
Chance to serve others; necessary for national welfare; help the world, etc.	8	13	2	4	10	17	21	6	27
Teachers are scarce; a supply of teachers badly needed	4	3			4	3	7		7
Miscellaneous: good hours for working mother; insurance against unemployment		2		1		3	2	1	3
"If they wish to"	1	3		3	1	6	4	3	7
Comments of those who answered "No"									
Salaries too low; no financial security; rewards too low for work required; better opportunities elsewhere; etc.	12	14	1	8	13	22	26	9	35

TABLE XXXVI (continued)

CATEGORIZED COMMENTS SUBMITTED BY 132 TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE WHO GAVE DEFINITE AFFIRMATIVE AND NEGATIVE ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION, "WOULD YOU ADVISE ANY OF YOUR CHILDREN TO BECOME TEACHERS?"

	Rural M	Rural F	Metro-politan M	Metro-politan F	Total M	Total F	Total Rural	Total Metro-politan	Total Sample
Lack of status; low public esteem; too many community restrictions; too much politics in local systems; pawn of local politics; etc.	4	6		6	4	12	10	6	16
Tied to pupils all day; too hard; requirements too high; schools taking on too many responsibilities; etc.	1	4		5	1	9	5	5	10
Poor tenure; no chance for advancement	1	2			1	2	3		3
School plant and working environment bad; shortages of instructional supplies	1	1			1	1	2		2
They should decide for themselves	5	4		1	5	5	9	1	10
Numbers of teachers commenting	37	63	4	28	41	91	100	32	132
Total number favorable comments	30	64	8	24	38	88	94	32	126
Total number unfavorable comments	24	31	1	20	25	51	55	21	76
Nearest whole-number ratio of favorable:unfavorable comments	5:4	2:1	8:1	6:5	8:5	5:3	9:5	5:3	5:3

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

was made to categorize or tabulate the observations submitted with the qualified answers. They almost invariably indicated that the respondents felt that no one should advise a child to enter any field of work, but should leave him free to make his own decision. A few indicated rather succinctly that if the child became sufficiently interested in that type of work to be willing to forego adequate remuneration in order to indulge in it, or if he had independent financial resources, or if salary conditions improved, then the child could be advised to become a teacher.

Table XXXVI indicates that the most common reasons teachers give for counselling children to become teachers were concerned with the personal satisfactions inherent in the life of a teacher (sixty-three in number), and with the opportunities to render valauable and needed service (twenty-seven responses). Some said that this was service to others, some said that it was service to the nation, and some said that it was service to the world.

The reasons that respondents most frequently gave for counselling children against becoming teachers were concerned with low pay and with financial insecurity (thirty-five responses), and with the lack of status and the low level of public esteem in which they felt teachers were held (sixteen in number).

Ratios of favorable to unfavorable comments on teaching were of the order of five to three for the total sample, and approximately the same for all total categories. Metropolitan males were happiest in their profession, with a favorable-unfavorable ratio of eight to one; metropolitan females were least happy, with a favorable-unfavorable ratio

of six to five, followed closely by rural males at five to four. Generally speaking, Table XXXVI seemed to indicate that morale of teachers in the sample was fairly good, but left much room for improvement, mostly in the areas of salaries, status, and public esteem.

Chapter Summary

Chapter III contained the research data concerning the professional status of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region, except that which dealt with teachers' professional organizations. Findings of the study as presented in this chapter were preceded by explanatory background observations, and followed by partial interpretations, covering these topics: numbers of teachers in the Region by age and sex; adequacy of teacher supply; educational level of teachers in the Region; professional work-load; professionally-related extra-classroom activities; continuity of teaching service; experience and length of continuous service in teaching; mobility of teachers; salaries and incomes of teachers; continued professional growth of teachers; extra-professional work activities; and teachers' attitudes to their profession.

CHAPTER IV

SELF-GOVERNING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS IN THE REGION

Introduction

> Groups as large as the professions must have some kind of orderly procedure to set the standards for entry into and exclusion from the profession, to promote high standards of practice, and to raise the social and economic status of the group. Professional organizations provide the machinery necessary to carry out these related functions.[1]

The purpose of this chapter was to set forth the findings of the study with regard to self-governing teachers' professional organizations in the Southern Appalachian Region. Criterion number six on page 60 of this study stated that a profession maintains a comprehensive self-governing organization of practitioners. The above quotation from Lieberman helped to clarify the reasons for maintaining such an organization. A study of the regional teachers' professional organizations would include their purposes stated in terms of their aims and objectives; the extent of their programs currently in operation; the relative size and extent of their membership as one measure of their effectiveness; and the extent to which teachers took part in the activities of their local, state and national professional organizations.

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[1]Myron Lieberman, Education As A Profession (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958), p. 5.

The Aims and Objectives of Teachers' Professional Organizations in the Southern Appalachian Region

As stated in their constitutions, the aims and objectives of teachers' professional organizations in the Region were similar. Some were written in vague generalities almost amounting to platitudes; others were spelled out more precisely and in point form. The methods of achieving these purposes, and the extent to which they were achieved, seemed to be a function of the legislative and administrative machinery set up to implement them. Undoubtedly the extent to which these objectives were achieved was to some extent both cause and effect of the general professional level of teachers in the various states.

Practically all statements of purpose mentioned at least two chief objectives, namely: the advancement of education in the state; and the support and protection of their members. An illustration of this type of statement was found in the constitution of the Alabama Education Association, as follows:

> Article II. Objects
> Section 1. The objects of this association shall be the advancement of education in Alabama and the promotion and protection of the welfare of its members.[2]

An almost identical statement of purpose was given by the Georgia Education Association, in these words:

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[2]Alabama Education Association, Handbook for Local and District Officers 1958 (Montgomery, Alabama: Alabama Education Association, 1958), p. 25.

Constitution and By-Laws
Preamble

To promote the cause of education in Georgia and to advance the interests of the teachers of the profession, the Georgia Education Association adopts the following constitution. . . .[3]

The charter of the Virginia Education Association as authorized by Chapter 151 of the Code of Virginia, 1919, listed four purposes for the formation of the Association. Only the first of these was concerned with education and the profession of teaching. The other three set up the legal structure whereby the Association could own property and publish a journal. The first purpose, as stated in the charter of the Virginia Education Association, Incorporated, was as follows:

1. To create a deep and abiding interest in the cause of education in the State of Virginia; to promote efficiency in classroom teaching and in the administration of schools; to urge upon the electorate the importance of adequate support to all institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge in order that our government may have the sanctions of an enlightened public opinion.[4]

The objectives of both the Tennessee Education Association and the Kentucky Education Association, as stated in their respective constitutions, mentioned the desire to promote a closer unity and a spirit of fellowship and fraternity among their members. With the exception of the West Virginia Education Association, these were the only education associations in the Region which specifically stressed the promotion

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[3]The Georgia Education Association, Constitution and By-Laws (Atlanta, Georgia: Georgia Education Association, 1959), p. 1. Pamphlet of Constitution and By-Laws, Code of Ethics, and Teachers' Bill of Rights, Amended and Adopted at Atlanta, Georgia, March 20, 1959.

[4]Charter of the Virginia Education Association, Incorporated (Richmond, Virginia: Handbook containing Charter, Constitution and By-Laws of Virginia Education Association, Inc., adopted October 1952), p. 3.

of fellowship and fraternity as one of the objectives of a professional organization.

Possibly the most inclusive and yet concise and precisely stated objectives of any education association in the Region were found in the Constitution of the West Virginia Education Association:

> Article II. Purpose
> The purpose of this association shall be: (1) to coordinate the efforts of all associations of educators within the State of West Virginia; (2) to elevate the standards of instruction; (3) to advance the educational interests of the State; (4) to improve teacher welfare; and (5) to promote professional fellowship among the members of this association.[5]

Little information was available about the American Federation of Teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region. Although the writer attempted to do so, he was unable to determine whether any locals were currently active in the Region. A number of respondents to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) indicated that they had at one time been members of the AFL-CIO American Federation of Teachers, but that they no longer belonged to it. Several of them indicated as their reason for no longer belonging, that the local in which they held membership had fulfilled its function and had gone out of existence. The writer was unofficially informed by word-of-mouth that the real reason that some AFT locals had disbanded was the national union's insistence on non-segregation in all locals. This report was not confirmed.

Regardless of whether a few locals existed in the Region, the American Federation of Teachers did not appear to be a significant force

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[5]Phares E. Reeder, West Virginia Education Association Report of The Secretary 1957-58 (Charleston, West Virginia: West Virginia Education, 1958), p. 136.

in the professional life of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region. From the national headquarters the writer was able to obtain a copy of the report of the president to the convention of the American Federation of Teachers, 1958, and a few pamphlets aimed largely at expansion of membership. Part 9 of the report (called "Local Accomplishments") identifies only one local in the seven states with which this investigation was concerned. It was located at Louisville, Kentucky, well outside the geographical limits of the Southern Appalachian Region.

Although the AFL-CIO American Federation of Teachers appeared to be a professional movement of considerable significance in other parts of the nation, it did not seem to exert any influence whatsoever on any aspect of the professional status of teachers in the Region. It was, therefore, not investigated further in this study.

Programs of Professional Organizations in The Southern Appalachian Region

If one of the criteria against which professional status were to be measured was the existence of a self-governing organization of practitioners, then one place to look for the really professional effectiveness of that organization would have to be in the program of activities which it made available to its membership. The programs provided would create a basis for recruitment and a foundation upon which to build esprit-de-corps in the profession. They would also reflect, to a degree at least, the morale, enthusiasm, and general professional effectiveness

of the practitioners whom they purported to represent. On the basis of this reasoning, an attempt was made to assess the relative merits of the programs provided by and for the teachers by their local associations.

A questionnaire, a copy of which was included in Appendix E of this study, was sent out to 205 long-service teachers and administrators throughout the entire Southern Appalachian Region. Of the eighty-six returned, eighty-five contained answers to some or all of the questions. On the basis of these eighty-five returns an over-all picture was derived of the local activities of teachers' professional organizations in the Region.

Table XXXVII, page 169, shows the extent of teacher-participation in the programs at local professional meetings. A large proportion of the meetings (92.9 per cent of responses) involved participation by local member teachers. It was significant, however, that only 54.1 per cent of respondents indicated that meetings sometimes included reports of research activities being carried on by members of the local associations, and 52.9 per cent indicated that reports were sometimes presented concerning research projects carried on elsewhere. Apparently local groups were most active with respect to attempting to influence legislation affecting teachers, with moderate activity with respect to promotion of professional growth, promotion of ethical standards, and improvement of teachers' salaries.

Oddly enough, that condition closest to the community and hence the one to which local action might best contribute results, namely, working conditions detrimental to good teaching, seemed to have been

TABLE XXXVII

ACTIVITIES AT MEETINGS OF LOCAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS REPORTED IN PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL RESPONSE[a]

Activity and Participation in Programs at Local Meetings	Alabama Georgia		Kentucky		North Carolina		Tennessee		Virginia		West Virginia		Total Sample	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Participation by Member Teachers	100		63.7	9.0	100		95.0		94.7	5.2	100		92.7	2.3
Participation by College or University Personnel	87.5		63.7		100		85.0	5.0	89.4	10.5	82.3	17.6	84.7	7.0
State or National Parent-Organization Personnel	37.5	37.5	36.3	9.0	70.0	20.0	70.0	15.0	47.3	47.3	70.5	17.6	57.6	24.7
Other Professional or Lay Personnel	87.5		63.7		80.0	10.0	80.0		94.7	5.2	88.2	11.7	83.5	4.7
Reports of Research Done by Members	50.0	37.5	36.3	18.1	50.0	40.0	50.0	30.0	63.1	31.5	64.7	23.5	54.1	29.4
Reports of Research Done Elsewhere	50.0	25.0	36.3	18.1	50.0	40.0	30.0	45.0	68.4	21.0	76.4	17.6	52.9	28.2
Committee or Group Study --Teachers' Salaries	87.5		54.5	18.1	70.0	30.0	80.0	20.0	78.9	15.7	70.5	17.6	74.1	17.6
Committee or Group Study --Working Conditions	87.5		54.5	18.1	40.0	60.0	50.0	40.0	63.1	31.5	52.9	29.4	56.4	31.7

TABLE XXXVII (continued

ACTIVITIES AT MEETINGS OF LOCAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS
REPORTED IN PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL RESPONSE

Activity and Participation in Programs at Local Meetings	Alabama		Georgia		Kentucky		North Carolina		Tennessee		Virginia		West Virginia		Total Sample	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Committee or Group Study --Promotion of Professional Growth	87.5				72.7		100		75.0	15.0	94.7	5.2	76.4	11.7	83.5	7.0
Committee or Group Study --Promotion of Ethical Standards	75.0	12.5			72.7		80.0	20.0	60.0	30.0	100		76.4	17.6	77.6	14.1
Committee or Group Study --Legislation Affecting Teachers	87.5				72.7		100		85.0	10.0	100		88.2		89.4	2.3

Additional answers written--each a single response
- Retirement program
- Planning with school officials
- Problems of curriculum
- Insurance, health benefits and credit union
- Use of new techniques and materials

[a]Source: Questionnaire to long-service teachers and administrators--Appendix E of this study.

discussed in the meetings by only 56.4 per cent of local organizations from whom reports were received. Obviously, if local professional organizations are meeting the needs of their members, it must follow that in almost 44 per cent of systems reported, either working conditions are entirely satisfactory or teachers do not recognize them as being detrimental to good teaching.

According to Table XXXVII, only 57.6 per cent of local organizations reported the use of personnel from state and national parent organizations. Most state education associations in the Region reported two or more full-time field services employees, in addition to numerous other personnel concerned with problems related to research, superannuation, ethics, teacher welfare, and other things. It would appear that these people conducted their activities pretty well outside of and apart from the activities of the local associations. One could but wonder if a closer liaison and more practical cooperation between local and parent organizations might not result in numerous advantages to both.

An assessment was also made of the extent and effectiveness of the activities of teachers' organizations in the daily professional lives of teachers. This investigation was concerned with activities other than those directly connected with meetings. On the questionnaire shown in Appendix E of this study were listed several situations or incidents commonly considered appropriate fields for concern and action by professional organizations. Some of these situations revolved around common professional malpractices evident in the behavior of teachers. Other incidents were concerned with breaches of professional integrity

on the part of superintendents and/or school boards. Respondents were asked to indicate whether each situation had arisen in their school systems, then what action, if any, was taken by the local and state professional organizations to which they belonged. Many returns were so incompletely answered as to defy meaningful interpretation. Those which could be analyzed form the basis for Table XXXVIII, page 173. The most meaningful tabulation appeared to involve separating those who had experienced the situation from those who had not, then defining their courses of action in each case.

It was not clear from the responses received, why so many locals apparently spent time and energy discussing and acting upon situations which had not arisen in their school systems. Perhaps a certain amount of this sort of activity could be justified as a preventive measure against the occurrence of undesirable incidents in the teachers' relationships with their administrators and their school boards. It was significant, however, that the four situations which caused most concern and discussion, and in three fields positive action on the part of the largest number of systems where these situations had not arisen, were all concerned with hypothetical cases of professional malpractice on the part of superintendents and school boards. Fourteen responses indicated that discussions had centered around the hiring of permit teachers when qualified teachers were available, and eight responses indicated that positive action had been taken in this regard. Another facet of the same problem, the hiring of poorly qualified teachers when ones with better qualifications were available, was given as a situation causing

TABLE XXXVIII

FREQUENCY OF INCIDENCE OF PROFESSIONAL MALPRACTICE IN EIGHTY-FIVE SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND ACTION TAKEN BY LOCAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS[a]

Incident or Situation	This Situation has Arisen	When This Situation Has Arisen, Our Organization				Though This Situation Has Not Arisen, Our Organization			
		Shows Concern Through Discussions		Takes Positive Action About This		Shows Concern Through Discussions		Takes Positive Action About This	
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Board and/or superintendent hiring permit teachers when qualified teachers are available	10	5	3	3	5	14	11	8	14
Board and/or superintendent hiring poorly qualified teachers when ones with better qualifications are available	10	3	4	1	7	7	13	4	14
Board and/or superintendent hiring or firing teachers on the basis of family or political affiliation	10	2	4	1	5	7	14	4	14
Board and/or superintendent firing teachers without reasonable notice	4	3		1	2	3	16	3	15
Board and/or superintendent firing teachers without defensible reasons	7	4	3	1	5	4	14	3	13
Teachers resigning or leaving without reasonable notice	43	20	9	9	14	2	6		7
Teachers leaving positions during school term for personal reasons	49	17	13	5	18	3	7	2	8

TABLE XXXVIII (continued)

FREQUENCY OF INCIDENCE OF PROFESSIONAL MALPRACTICE IN EIGHTY-FIVE SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND ACTION TAKEN BY LOCAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Incident or Situation	This Situation has Arisen	When This Situation Has Arisen, Our Organization				Though This Situation Has Not Arisen, Our Organization			
		Shows Concern Through Discussions		Takes Positive Action About This		Shows Concern Through Discussions		Takes Positive Action About This	
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Individual teachers bargaining for salaries above schedule	12	4	2	4	2	6	13	2	15
Teachers transferred within the system against their wishes	30	9	9	4	12	3	14	2	14
Teachers attempting to secure positions already filled by others	19	6	10	1	13	3	16	3	14
Teachers accepted in positions failing to fill those positions	26	13	9	6	10	2	11	1	11
Teachers consistently unprofessional in dress, speech, action, social relationships, etc.	28	15	10	8	13	3	8	1	8
Question of tenure and reputations of teachers unjustly accused of unprofessional conduct	16	6	4	5	3	4	12	2	14

[a]Source: Questionnaire to long-service teachers and administrators --Appendix E of this study.

concern to seven respondents and eliciting positive action from four organizations where this situation had not arisen. The problem of the influence of family and political affiliations on the hiring and firing of teachers aroused concern in seven and positive action in four organizations. The problem of individual teachers bargaining for salaries in excess of scheduled rates of pay concerned six organizations but drew positive action from only two of them where the situation had not arisen.

It was not made clear how a professional organization could take positive action concerning a problem which had not arisen. The writer assumed that any action taken was preventive rather than therapeutic. On the other hand, those five situations listed which involved definite professional malpractice on the part of teachers, and which were indicated as five of the six most frequently occurring sources of trouble, received the most infrequent show of concern on the part of associations in systems where these problems had not arisen. In other words, in those systems where problems had not arisen between teachers and administration, professional associations appeared to devote their time and energy to discussion of and action upon those hypothetical trouble-spots which actually occurred in practice least frequently. They tended to discuss and act upon malpractices on the part of administration and school boards in far larger numbers than they dealt with the apparently more common malpractices of their own colleagues.

Of the thirteen malpractice situations listed in Table XXXVIII, only five were reported as having occurred in their present systems in the experience of over 25 per cent of the respondents. They were, from

most frequent, respectively: teachers leaving their positions during the school term for personal reasons; teachers resigning or leaving without reasonable notice; administration transferring teachers from school to school within the system, against their wishes; teachers consistently unprofessional in dress, action, speech and social relationships; and teachers applying for (and accepted in) positions failing to report for service.

With regard to the action taken concerning these and other incidents representing professional malpractice in the Region, the record of teachers' professional organizations was startlingly inadequate. What Table XXXVIII revealed, precisely, was this: that although forty-nine of eighty-five respondents reported the incidence of teachers leaving their positions during the school term for personal reasons, only seventeen reported that their professional associations were sufficiently concerned about the problem to discuss it, and only five reported any positive action taken beyond mere discussion. According to at least thirteen respondents the situation was not even discussed. Twenty-eight out of the eighty-five respondents reported instances where teachers were consistently unprofessional in dress, action, speech and social relationships. Fifteen respondents reported this problem as a subject for discussion in their professional meetings, with only eight reporting any positive action following discussion. At least ten respondents reported that, although this situation had arisen in their systems, it was not considered by their professional associations. Ten respondents reported instances where teachers were hired and fired on the basis of family and

political affiliation. Only two reported this condition as a subject for discussion in professional meetings, and only one reported any positive action taken to deal with the problem. Four reported it as a situation which did not even arouse discussion in their professional meetings.

When a respondent indicated that positive action had been taken on a problem involving professional malpractice, there was some question in the writer's mind as to the extent and effectiveness of the action taken. A space had been provided on the questionnaire (Appendix E) in which respondents were asked to give a brief description of the action taken. The first and fourth columns of Table XXXVIII reveal that respondents reported a total of 264 incidents or situations involving professional malpractice, but that only forty-nine reported positive action taken when these situations arose. A careful perusal of completed questionnaires revealed the following types of action taken:

1. Legal action was reported in two cases, one recently and one about twenty years ago.

2. Joint committees of teachers and administration attempted to handle the problem in three cases; results not reported.

3. "We passed a resolution condemning the practice," was reported by two correspondents.

4. Several reports of dubious success were received, such as: "What could you do about it?"; "There wasn't much we could do"; "We complained to the administration"; "We asked the superintendent to deal with it."

5. In over half of the forty-nine instances under discussion, although respondents said positive action had been taken, the nature and effectiveness of this action were not reported.

A similar story could have been told for each of the situations set out in Table XXXVIII. The foregoing examples were sufficient to illustrate the point. There was good reason to question whether effective action was being taken by anybody in any significant number of the malpractice situations cited. It was worthy of note that every professional organization and association in the Region had and subscribed to either its own code of ethics or that of its parent organization.

Table XXXVII indicates that 77.6 per cent of the respondents reported that their professional organizations conducted some meetings in which the programs were aimed at the promotion of ethical standards. Table XXXVIII indicates that the largest numbers of professional organizations directed their discussions toward those malpractice situations which occurred least frequently, and that an extremely small number of organizations ever concerned themselves with those malpractice incidents which occurred most frequently. A thorough assessment of all data available relative to the programs and activities of the teachers' local professional associations in the Region led the writer to conclude that the situation was the result of one or more of three alternative explanations, all highly regrettable. They appeared to be: either the majority of teachers' professional organizations in the Region were spending a disproportionate amount of their time on infrequent (and hence largely hypothetical) situations with which most of them were seldom confronted,

and avoiding the tangible problems with which they were faced; or, the majority of associations in the Region were not fulfilling their functions as self-governing professional organizations; or the organizations and the teachers who comprised them did not recognize as problems the situations with which they were faced and in which they were embroiled.

Membership in Teachers' Professional Organizations

The problem of achieving and maintaining a high level of membership of practicing teachers in the local, state and national education associations has always been a trying one. Teachers tended to wander in and out of their organizations in much the same way but perhaps more frequently than they wandered in and out of teaching. An improvement in conditions, some favorable publicity, a burst of enthusiasm, and membership soared; a rise in dues, an imagined slight, a petty grievance, and membership dropped. In the early days of the development of a profession this self-determination with respect to membership was perhaps good. It might even have been credited with adding zest to the struggle, with making the organization justify its existence as a profession, with providing an environment conducive to a sort of survival of the fittest and the consequent elimination of those unable or unwilling to become fit. With the evolution of a vocational group into a profession, or with the development of society to the stage where a vocation can fulfill its social function only when carried on by people who exhibit those unique qualities characteristic of a profession, the question of mandatory versus voluntary membership becomes an anachronism.

To expect a person in a professional position to be able to remain outside his professional organization and make the contribution society requires of his position while receiving the perquisites relevant to his position is about like expecting a hermit, while remaining outside the society of his fellow-man, to make significant contributions to, and to derive benefits from that society. Through their professional organizations the true practitioners define and develop their profession and perpetuate its membership. In a democratic society they rule their own organization and, through it, they rule themselves. Membership in the professional organization and practice of the profession then become the two sides of the same coin, neither side legitimately negotiable without the other.

Membership of teachers in local and state professional education associations in the Southern Appalachian Region was quite high. Table XXXIX, page 181, gives the membership statistics for the 258 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B). These membership figures were broken down according to the current teaching location and sex of the respondents, as well as details of memberships in local, state and national organizations.

Throughout this investigation it was repeatedly obvious that the greatest proportion of teachers were members of their state organizations, followed by the local professional organizations, with the lowest proportion claiming membership in the national organization. Table XXXIX bore out this finding, with 86.4 per cent of the respondents claiming membership in local organizations, 96.1 per cent in state organizations,

TABLE XXXIX

MEMBERSHIP AND ACTIVITY OF 258 TEACHERS IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION*

	Total Number of Executive[a] Positions Reported	Teachers Holding Executive[a] Positions		Teachers Reporting Membership Only[b]		Teachers Involved in Professional Organizations		Teachers Not Reporting Any Memberships	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Local Level									
Rural male	47	29	40.3	31	43.1	60	83.3	12	16.7
Rural female	99	62	49.2	44	34.9	106	84.1	20	15.9
Total Rural	146	91	45.9	75	37.9	166	83.8	32	16.2
Metropolitan									
male	7	5	33.3	10	66.7	15	100.		
female	26	23	51.1	19	42.2	42	93.3	3	6.7
Total Metropolitan	33	28	46.7	29	48.3	57	95.0	3	5.0
Total male	54	34	39.1	41	47.1	75	86.2	12	13.8
Total female	125	85	49.7	63	36.8	148	86.5	23	13.5
Total sample	179	119	46.1	104	40.3	223	86.4	35	13.6
State Level									
Rural male	5	5	6.9	64	88.9	69	95.8	3	4.2
Rural female	5	5	4.0	116	92.1	121	96.1	5	3.9
Total Rural	10	10	5.1	180	90.9	190	95.9	8	4.1
Metropolitan									
male	2	2	13.3	13	86.7	15	100		
female				43	95.6	43	95.6	2	4.4
Total Metropolitan	2	2	3.3	56	93.3	58	96.7	2	3.3
Total male	7	7	8.0	77	88.5	84	96.6	3	3.4
Total female	5	5	2.9	159	93.0	164	95.9	7	4.1
Total sample	12	12	4.7	236	91.5	248	96.1	10	3.9

TABLE XXXIX (continued)

MEMBERSHIP AND ACTIVITY OF 258 TEACHERS IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION

	Total Number of Executive Positions Reported	Teachers Holding Executive Positions		Teachers Reporting Membership Only		Teachers Involved in Professional Organizations		Teachers Not Reporting Any Memberships	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
National Level									
Rural male				44	61.1	44	61.1	28	38.9
Rural female				90	71.4	90	71.4	36	28.6
Total Rural				134	67.7	134	67.7	64	32.3
Metropolitan									
male				13	86.7	13	86.7	2	13.3
female	1	1	2.2	38	84.4	39	86.7	6	13.3
Total Metropolitan	1	1	1.7	51	85.0	52	86.7	8	13.3
Total male				57	65.5	57	65.5	30	34.5
Total female	1	1	0.6	128	74.9	129	75.4	42	24.6
Total sample	1	1	0.4	185	71.7	186	72.1	72	27.9

[a]Current and past presidents, vice-presidents, secretaries, treasurers, secretary-treasurers, members of executive and other committees.

[b]Exclusive of those listed under "Teachers Holding Executive Positions."

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

and 72.1 per cent in the national association. It could have happened that some teachers did not name their local associations on the questionnaires, feeling that by naming the state association with which it was affiliated they had included both. This was not necessarily true, however, as some stated definitely that they were not members of their local associations.

Some significant sex differences in percentages of membership in professional organizations were particularly interesting. Rural teachers showed no significant sex differences in level of membership in local and state organizations. In the national association rural female teachers exceeded rural male teachers by over 10 per cent (71.4 to 61.1 per cent respectively). With metropolitan teachers this situation was reversed. The small metropolitan sample tended to render these figures almost insignificant. They barely affected the totals. However, in local and state organizations, metropolitan males had 100 per cent membership in each, as compared to 93.3 and 95.6 per cent respectively, for metropolitan females. Both sexes of metropolitan teachers had identical numerical representation, 86.7 per cent, in the national organization. In the total sample membership differences according to sex were insignificant for local and state organizations but highly significant for the national organization, of which 75.4 per cent of females were members while only 65.5 per cent of males claimed membership.

Table XL, page 184, gave membership figures for the state and national associations, classified according to the totals for those counties in each state which were in the Southern Appalachian Region,

TABLE XL

MEMBERSHIP OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PERSONNEL IN STATE AND NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, MAY 1959*

Geographic Identification of Sample	Number Eligible for Member-ship	Number in State Education Associa-tion	Per Cent in State Education Associa-tion	Number in N.E.A.	Per Cent in N.E.A.
Alabama Counties in the S.A.R.[a]	1,629	1,560	95.8	b	
State of Alabama	26,179	18,728	71.5	b	
Kentucky Counties in the S.A.R.	6,797	6,601	97.1	b	
State of Kentucky	24,375	23,355	95.8	b	
Tennessee Counties in the S.A.R.	12,295	10,949	89.1	b	
State of Tennessee	28,251	23,152	82.0	b	
Virginia Counties in the S.A.R.	8,218	7,744	94.2	4,729	57.5
State of Virginia	25,273	22,372	88.5	12,621	49.9
West Virginia Counties	14,389	12,343	85.8	11,187	77.7
State of West Virginia	17,331	14,827	85.6	13,551	78.2
Total for five states in S.A.R.[c]	43,328	39,197	90.5	15,916[d]	70.4[d]
Total for full five states[c]	121,409	102,434	84.4	26,172[d]	61.4[d]

[a]Southern Appalachian Region.
[b]Figures not available.
[c]No figures available for Georgia and North Carolina
[d]Figures available for only Virginia and West Virginia

*Source: Letters from individual state education associations.

and by states for all states in the Region except Georgia and North Carolina. The statistics from which Table XL was prepared were obtained from the appropriate state education associations individually. They included only teachers and administrators in public school systems, and hence differed slightly from the total membership picture as promulgated by the National Education Association.

Two significant observations were made concerning membership as shown in Table XL. First, membership in the state organization was significantly higher for those counties in the Southern Appalachian Region than it was for the state as a whole in every case except that of West Virginia, where the two memberships were approximately equal. In the second instance, National Education Association membership in the two states for which figures were available was significantly higher than it had been in the nation as a whole for the two previous years. National Education Association membership figures for 1959 were not available at the time of writing. In 1957 national membership in the National Education Association was 54 per cent of the total eligible educators, and in 1958 it was 45 per cent. According to Table XL, in 1959, 49.9 per cent of eligible public school educators in Virginia were members of the National Education Association, and 78.2 per cent of the same group in West Virginia were members.

Table XLI, page 186, gave state and national membership figures for the seven states in the Southern Appalachian Region, with comparable national figures, for 1958. It was pertinent to this investigation to note that the West Virginia Education Association had 89.7 per cent of

TABLE XLI

STATE AND NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIPS MAY 31, 1958*

Geographic Identification of Sample	Estimated Total Number Eligible[a] for Membership	Total Membership[a] in State Education Association	Percentage Membership in State Education Association	Total Membership[a] in National Education Association	Percentage Membership in National Education Association
Alabama	26,500	26,456	99.8	15,787	59.6
Georgia	33,500	31,992	95.5	16,510	49.3
Kentucky	23,266	23,011	98.9	11,988	51.5
North Carolina	37,500	36,779	98.1	22,395	59.7
Tennessee	27,318	27,251	99.8	18,818	68.9
Virginia	30,300	28,902	95.4	16,779	55.4
West Virginia	17,066	15,310	89.7	13,935	81.7
National Membership	1,366,473	1,231,378	90.1	616,707	45.1

[a]Includes all eligible persons.

*Source: Above data extracted from NEA Handbook for Local, State and National Associations 1958-59 (Washington: The National Education Association, 1958), p. 297.

its eligible teachers on its rolls, and that all other states in the Region had even higher percentages of membership. Two states, Tennessee and Alabama, were very near 100 per cent, with 99.8 per cent each. Membership in the national organization was much lower, but all states in the Region maintained higher percentages than the nation as a whole. The national average was 45.1 per cent, while the state averages in the Region varied from Georgia's 49.3 per cent to West Virginia's 81.7 per cent.

Membership in local teachers' professional organizations and attendance at their meetings are shown in Table XLII, page 188. These were Regionwide reports submitted by the long-service teachers and administrators who responded to the questionnaire in Appendix E. It was noted that fifty-three respondents indicated 100 per cent membership of eligible persons in the local organizations of which they were members. Only three out of eighty-five reported 74 per cent or less. Twenty-two respondents reported 100 per cent attendance at meetings and thirty-four reported 75 to 99 per cent attendance. Only nine reported less than 50 per cent attendance, with four of the nine claiming less than 25 per cent attendance at meetings.

It was the writer's belief that the figures given for attendance in Table XLII were optimistic, or at least that they represented maximum rather than regular attendance. However, there was no basis on which to challenge the authenticity of the reports of respondents. Both the membership in and attendance at meetings of local professional organizations in the Southern Appalachian Region appeared to be very high.

TABLE XLII

NUMBERS OF RESPONDENTS REPORTING DIFFERENT PERCENTAGES OF MEMBERSHIP AND ATTENDANCE AT MEETINGS OF LOCAL PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS, 1959[a]

Geographic Identification of Sample	Number Reporting	Membership As A Per Cent of Total Eligible			Attendance As A Per Cent of Total Members				
		50 to 74	75 to 99	100	Less Than 25	25 to 49	50 to 74	75 to 99	100
		Per Cent			Per Cent				
Alabama	2		1	1				2	
Georgia	6		1	5			1	3	2
Kentucky	11		1	6	1	1	1	2	2
North Carolina	10		2	8			2	6	2
Tennessee	20		3	15	2	2	2	5	7
Virginia	19		4	14			1	12	5
West Virginia	17	3	9	4	1	2	5	4	4
Total*	85	3	21	53	4	5	12	34	22

*Totals did not always add up to eighty-five systems, due to incomplete answers on many of the questionnaires.

[a]Source: Questionnaire to long-service teachers and administrators--Appendix E of this study.

One of the problems of maintaining a constantly high membership in professional education associations was concerned with the matter of teachers dropping out after they had been members. Table XLIII, page 190, shows the number of respondents to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) who reported that they had previously belonged to professional organizations in which they no longer held memberships. The number reporting was surprisingly small, being thirty-nine out of 258 respondents, or 15.1 per cent. They had withdrawn from a total of forty-eight different professional education associations. The reasons given for these withdrawals were illuminating. Actually only those reasons related to a change of work (six in number) and movement of the respondent to an area where the organization was no longer accessible (eight in number) could be said to be really beyond the power of the organization to rectify. All others, such as loss of interest, too busy, too expensive, and replies indicating dissatisfaction reflected in some measure upon the adequacy of the organizations from which the members withdrew.

These reasons, although the respondents did not always say so, indicated dissatisfaction with the association on the part of its membership. This dissatisfaction might have been generated by passive failure on the part of the organization. For example: it might have failed to fulfill the professional needs of some of its members, or it might have failed in its efforts to help its members see that it was fulfilling some of their professional needs, or it might have failed to provide the leadership necessary to stimulate the members to work at fulfilling

TABLE XLIII

NUMBERS OF PROFESSIONAL AND ACADEMIC-PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS FROM WHICH TEACHERS IN THE SAMPLE HAD WITHDRAWN THEIR MEMBERSHIPS AND THE REASONS FOR WITHDRAWAL[a]

Type of Organization	Number Reporting		Total Number of Memberships Withdrawn	Average Number of Memberships Withdrawn
	Number	Per Cent		
Professional Education	39	15.1	48	1.2
Academic Professional	12	4.7	17	1.4

Reasons stated for discontinuance of membership:

Lost interest	2
Organization "folded up," purpose fulfilled	3
Changed work	6
Moved away (no local branch accessible)	8
Disgruntled	8
Too busy to remain active in organization	9
Dues raised--organization too expensive for its value	9
No reason given for 20 withdrawals of membership	

[a]Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaire--Appendix B of this study.

their own needs. On the other hand, the failure could have been active rather than passive. That is, the members might have permitted control of their organization to fall into the hands of people who for personal reasons antagonized some of the members. All this was speculation. However, the fact remained that regardless of what it was called, the simplest name for this loss of membership was "failure."

This failure, of course, could have been largely failure on the part of the teachers who withdrew from their associations. Unfortunately some teachers simply did not wish to be members of a professional organization, nor did they wish to assume the responsibilities for professional growth and self-improvement inherent in being members of a profession. Even in this situation the professional organization exhibited failure. It failed either to stimulate its members to the desired professional reorientation; or, if this were impossible, it failed in the function which all teachers' professional organizations must eventually learn to assume; namely, that of the elimination of such practitioners from the teaching profession.

Activities of Teachers in Professional Organizations

Table XXXIX on page 181 gave a tabulation of the extent of activity in professional organizations of the 258 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B). Most of the activity, as measured by the holding of executive positions, took place in local organizations, with only 4.7 per cent having held executive positions in state organizations. Of the 86.4 per cent reporting membership in local associations,

a total of 46.1 per cent of the sample held, or had at sometime held, executive positions of some sort. Naturally most of this activity represented some sorts of committee memberships or committee chairmanships. Relatively few people could be presidents and vice-presidents. One unexpected result of this sort of tabulation was that it showed that approximately 10 per cent more female than male teachers had held executive positions in their local organizations. The ratio of female to male for rural, metropolitan, and total sample were, respectively: 49.2 per cent to 40.3 per cent; 51.1 per cent to 33.3 per cent; and 49.7 per cent to 39.1 per cent. A thorough examination of completed questionnaires revealed that the preponderance of female executive activity was mostly in the committees and in secretarial offices, while males predominated as presidents, vice-presidents and treasurers.

Membership and activities of teachers in academic and academically-oriented professional organizations were given in Table XLIV, page 193. As was the case with purely professional education associations, membership was higher in state-wide associations than it was in local organizations. Membership in academic-professional organizations, however, was very low in the teachers sampled. It was reasonable to assume that it was at least as low in the Region as a whole.

Only 12.0 per cent of the 258 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) held membership in local academic-professional organizations. The figure for widespread organizations, 15.1 per cent, was only very slightly higher. Here again, female teachers held a higher percentage of memberships in the locals (females,

TABLE XLIV

MEMBERSHIP AND ACTIVITY OF 258 TEACHERS IN ACADEMIC AND ACADEMIC-PROFESSIONAL[a] EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN REGION*

	Total Number of Executive[b] Positions Reported	Teachers Holding Executive[b] Positions		Teachers Reporting Membership Only[c]		Teachers Involved in Professional Organizations		Teachers Not Reporting Any Memberships	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Local[d] Level									
Rural male	3	3	4.2	2	2.8	5	6.9	67	93.1
Rural female	9	7	5.6	6	4.8	13	10.3	113	89.7
Total rural	12	10	5.1	8	4.0	18	9.1	180	90.0
Metropolitan male				3	20.0	3	20.0	12	80.0
female	8	5	11.1	5	11.1	10	22.2	35	77.8
Total Metropolitan	8	5	8.3	8	13.3	13	21.7	47	78.3
Total male	3	3	3.4	5	5.7	8	9.2	79	90.8
Total female	17	12	7.0	11	6.4	23	13.5	148	86.5
Total sample	20	15	5.8	16	6.2	31	12.0	227	88.0
Wide-Spread[e]									
Rural male	2	2	2.8	13	18.1	15	20.8	57	79.2
Rural female	4	2	1.6	11	8.7	13	10.3	113	89.7
Total rural	6	4	2.0	24	12.1	28	14.1	170	85.9
Metropolitan male	1	1	6.7	2	13.3	3	20.0	12	80.0
female	1	1	2.2	7	15.6	8	17.8	37	82.2
Total Metropolitan	2	2	3.3	9	15.0	11	18.3	49	81.7
Total male	3	3	3.4	15	17.2	18	20.7	69	79.3
Total female	5	3	1.8	18	10.5	21	12.3	150	87.7
Total sample	8	6	2.3	33	12.8	39	15.1	219	84.9

Footnotes to Table XLIV

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[a]Academic and academically-oriented professional organizations. For example: The Tennessee Historical Society, The National Science Teachers' Association, etc.

[b]Current and past Presidents, Vice-Presidents, Secretaries, Treasurers, Secretary-Treasurers, Members and Chairmen of Executive and other committees.

[c]Exclusive of those listed under "Teachers holding executive positions."

[d]City, county and area-wide.

[e]State, regional and national in scope.

*Source: Responses received to teacher questionnaires--Appendix B of this study.

13.5 per cent; males, 9.2 per cent), but males held the edge in memberships in the farther-ranging associations (males, 20.7 per cent; females, 12.3 per cent).

Activity as measured by the percentage of sample who had held executive positions was correspondingly low. Here again female teachers were in the lead, with 7.0 per cent of respondents having held executive positions at the local level, compared to 3.4 per cent of sample for males. At the state and national level, the males predominated in executive activity with 3.4 per cent of their number having held executive positions, compared to 1.8 per cent of females. Membership and activity in academic and academically-oriented professional education associations by teachers in the Region was extremely limited.

Chapter Summary

Chapter IV presented the findings of this investigation as they pertained to teachers' self-governing professional organizations. Following an introduction to the topic, the aims and objectives of teachers' professional associations in the Southern Appalachian Region were examined in their settings as parts of the constitutions of the state education associations. Programs of professional organizations were presented as reported by two different samples of teachers in the Region. Membership data for teachers' professional organizations--local, state, and national--gave some idea of the extent to which teachers in the Region were organized. Activities of teachers in their professional

organizations were further revealed by a study of the extent to which teachers in the region held or had held executive positions in their local, state, and national associations.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As an integral part of the Education Sub-Project of the Southern Appalachian Studies an investigation was made of the professional status of teachers in the Region. Following a brief outline of the history of the professionalization of education in the nation and in the Region, a set of criteria was developed against which the findings of this study could be measured.

Chapter III presented those findings of the study which revealed the current status of teaching in the Southern Appalachian Region. These findings were presented in terms of the numbers of teachers by age and sex; the adequacy of teacher supply; educational level of teachers in the Region; professional work-load and professionally related extra-classroom activities; experience and length of continuous service of teachers; continuity of teaching service; mobility of teachers; salaries and incomes of teachers; continued professional growth of teachers; extra-professional work-activities of teachers; and teachers' attitudes to the teaching profession.

Findings revealing the relation of teachers in the Region to self-governing professional education organizations were presented in Chapter IV. These findings were presented in their functional relationship to the aims and objectives of teachers' professional organizations; programs of professional organizations; and membership and activity of teachers in their organized professional associations.

A summary of the significant findings; statements of conclusions arising therefrom in assessment of findings against accepted criteria of professionalization; extraction of implications of the study for teacher education, for professional organizations, and for the administration of education; and a statement of recommendations growing out of the foregoing completed the study.

Summary of Significant Findings

A brief summary of the most significant findings of the study follows.

Numbers of Teachers by Age and Sex

The average age of teachers in the Region increased rapidly from 1930 to 1950, with a distinct levelling off in average ages from 1950 to 1959.

Since 1930 the average ages of female teachers have been consistently higher than the average ages of male teachers. This age spread was approaching one year in 1930, and had reached nearly four years by 1959.

In a sample of 4150 teachers in 1959, the average age of 957 males was 40.5 years, compared to an average age of 44.1 years for 3193 female teachers. The average for the total sample was 43.3 years. Male teachers in the Region averaged approximately five years older than the national median for male teachers, and female teachers averaged slightly more than one year younger than the national median for female teachers.

The percentage of teachers in the Region who were men increased consistently after 1930, except for a slight decrease during and immediately following World War II and the Korean conflict. In 1959, 23.1 per cent of a sample of 4150 teachers in the Region were males.

Adequacy of Teacher Supply

Fifteen out of nineteen systems studied had difficulty staffing their schools with certificated teachers. Fourteen of these fifteen systems had not had a fully certificated teaching body in any of the previous ten years.

In particularly short supply were teachers qualified in mathematics, the natural sciences, music and band, foreign languages, and primary-grade specialization. There were some local surpluses of teachers qualified in the social studies, English, physical education, and upper-elementary grade specialization.

Educational Level of Teachers in the Region

Educational level of teachers as measured by years of college completed had improved greatly over the preceding twenty-nine years. In some systems the percentage of teachers who were college graduates had quadrupled since 1930.

A study of years of college completed by 3337 teachers in twelve systems in the Southern Appalachian Region showed that in the 1958-59 school year, 81.1 per cent had college graduation and above. This compared favorably with the national average of 78.8 per cent reported by the National Education Association two years previously. There was a

shortage of teachers with graduate training, however. Only 17.5 per cent of the sample held master's degrees and above, while the national average two years previously had been 24.6 per cent.

Professional Work-Load and Professionally-Related Extra-Classroom Activities

Teachers in the Region were required by law to spend from twenty-five to thirty-five hours per week in actual classroom and playground teaching. The usual minimum legal requirement was thirty hours per week. In addition to this time, 229 teachers reported an average of 57.9 hours per month each (almost fifteen hours per week) spent in preparing lessons and grading pupils' work, and other related extra-classroom activities. The largest numbers of teachers spent the greatest amounts of extra-classroom time on preparation and grading, professional reading, and the supervision of school-sponsored public-activities. Smaller numbers of teachers spent large numbers of hours officiating at pupil athletic events, taking college courses, and after-hours counselling with pupils and parents.

Teachers' Experience and Length of Continuous Service

Two hundred fifty-eight teachers responding to the teacher questionnaire had an average of 18.2 years teaching experience each. Of these, 244 teachers had an average of 14.9 years tenure in their present school systems, and 248 had an average of 8.8 years each in their present schools. These totals were in all respects significantly higher than the median national figures for 1956-57 as reported in the National Education

Association Research Bulletin, Volume XXXV, Number 1, February 1957, Table 12, page 16.

Female teachers had significantly higher professional tenure than males in mean years taught, in mean years in present school system, and in mean years in present school. Similarly, metropolitan teachers had significantly longer tenure than rural teachers in all three classifications.

Continuity of Teaching Service

Of the 258 teachers responding to the questionnaire (Appendix B) 140 teachers, 54.3 per cent, had been out of the teaching profession at least once, for periods ranging from one-half year to twenty-eight years. These 140 teachers averaged 6.1 years total tenure breaks each. Metropolitan males had the fewest, the shortest, and the lowest total years of tenure breaks; metropolitan females had the longest total time out, but rural females had the largest percentage of their numbers involved.

Mobility of Teachers

Mobility of teachers in the Region followed the national pattern. Large numbers of them had taught in many different systems, both in their home states and in other states. They tended, however, to remain longer in their positions in the same systems than did teachers in the nation as a whole.

Salaries and Incomes of Teachers

During the period 1929-30 to 1958-59, average annual salaries of teachers had increased by as much as 458 per cent in different systems in

the Region, when expressed in dollars. Converted to actual purchasing value these increases varied from 170 per cent to 278 per cent. These percentage increases, however, should be interpreted in terms of the bases on which they were calculated. For example, while the national average salary for teachers increased 199 per cent in purchasing value between 1930 and 1959, salaries for the state of Alabama increased 278 per cent. The 1958-59 average salary in Alabama was still less than 75 per cent of the national average.

By 1958-59 salary discrimination based on race and sex had disappeared from the Region. There were still gross salary inequities between school systems and between states.

Of the 240 teachers who reported salaries on the teacher questionnaire, fifty-five metropolitan teachers reported average annual salaries of $4330 each, while 185 rural teachers reported average annual salaries of $3559 each. Part of this difference was accounted for by the fact that metropolitan teachers had higher qualifications and longer average periods of teaching service. Hence they fell into higher categories on the salary schedules. The remainder of the difference was due to salary inequities between rural and metropolitan systems.

Males in the sample averaged $357 per year more than females. This was entirely due to the fact that larger numbers of them held positions for which additional remuneration was made. That is, more of them were principals, coaches, band leaders, and so on.

The average annual total family incomes of teachers in the sample were almost double the average annual teaching salaries of the teachers

reporting. In spite of the fact that males averaged $357 per year more than females, and that males earned over three times as much income from second jobs as did females, average annual total family incomes of females in the sample were almost $1500 more than average annual total family incomes of male teachers. This indicated that when the primary bread-winner in the family was a teacher, total family income was decidedly lower than when the major source of income was not a teaching salary.

Continued Professional Growth of Teachers

During the year preceding the investigation a total of 27.5 per cent of the sample had completed an average of 8.8 quarter-hours of college credit each. During the preceding five years, 47.8 per cent had completed an average of 17.9 quarter-hours of college credit each.

One hundred one teachers of 258 replying to the teacher questionnaire (39 per cent of sample) reported an average of 5.0 hours per month each spent in in-service education.

Metropolitan teachers read more professional education periodicals than rural teachers did, and men read more than women. Metropolitan teachers read more books of all kinds than rural teachers did. Males read more professional books than females did, but females read more academic books than males did. Twenty-one per cent of the sample did not report having read any professional education periodicals during the preceding month, and 19.0 per cent did not report having read any professional books during the preceding year. A total of 45.0 per cent did not report having read any academic books during the preceding year. Those who did read, read most prolifically, having averaged 3.9

periodicals the previous month, and 5.0 professional and 5.6 academic books during the preceding year.

Teachers in the Region travelled widely and frequently. Over 80 per cent of the 258 who responded to the teacher questionnaire made an average of 13.6 trips each, in excess of one hundred miles from home, in the preceding two years. Sixty per cent of them had been in over twelve states each in the preceding five years, and over three hundred miles from home 4.8 times each in the preceding two years. One hundred twenty-seven of the 258 respondents (49.2 per cent) had made more than 185 trips outside the confines of the forty-eight states. One hundred sixty of these trips were voluntary and twenty-five were a result of war service.

Extra-Professional Work Activities of Teachers

Approximately 21 per cent (54 out of 258) of the teachers responding to the teacher questionnaire worked part-time at jobs other than teaching. Although only one-third of the sample were men, four times as many men as women reported part-time work. Hence part-time jobs were eight times as common among male teachers as they were among female teachers.

The average annual teaching salary of the eighty-four men who reported was $3967. The thirty-seven men who reported part-time second jobs realized an average of $1106 per year from these sources. Hence, for those who worked part-time, this part-time work accounted for about 20 per cent of their total personal earnings.

Teachers Attitudes to the Teaching Profession

Of the 258 respondents to the teacher questionnaire, 47.7 per cent would definitely recommend teaching as a career, and 22.5 per cent would definitely not recommend it as a career. Metropolitan teachers were much more ready to recommend teaching as a career (55.0 per cent) than were rural teachers (45.5 per cent). There was no significant difference in the percentage of males and females who would definitely recommend teaching to their children, but there was a significant difference in the percentage who would not recommend it. Of the total sample, 28.7 per cent of the males and 19.3 per cent of females gave a definite No. Females exhibited a greater tendency to qualify their answers.

The reasons that teachers most frequently gave for counselling children to become teachers were the personal satisfactions inherent in the life of a teacher and the opportunities to render valuable and needed service. The reasons respondents most frequently gave for counselling children against becoming teachers were low pay and financial insecurity, the lack of status and the low level of public esteem in which they felt teachers were held, and the rigorous nature of the work and its responsibilities.

Programs of Professional Education Associations

Programs at meetings of local professional organizations showed a high degree of participation by member teachers, by college and university personnel, and by other professional and lay personnel. They exhibited a comparatively low degree of participation by representatives of state

and national parent-organizations. Programs at meetings involved a high degree of group and committee study and discussion of legislation affecting teachers and efforts aimed at the promotion of professional growth. A considerable number of local organizations devoted meetings to the promotion of ethical standards and to studies of teachers' salaries. A relatively small number of local associations devoted their efforts to improvement of working conditions and to studies and reports of research conducted by member teachers and others.

The programs of local and state teachers' professional organizations did not appear to include any vigorous concern with professional malpractice either on the part of teachers or of superintendents and school boards. Local associations tended to devote considerable time and effort to the discussion of those professional malpractices which occurred least frequently, and to be particularly concerned with those incidents which represented malpractice on the part of superintendents and school boards. They tended to show least concern about those incidents of professional malpractice which occurred most frequently, and especially those which occurred through the actions of teachers.

Action taken to deal with professional malpractice appeared to be little more than discussion. Of a total of 264 item-respondent malpractice situations reported, "positive action" was reported in forty-nine of these situations. Two of these positive actions involved legal processes and three of them involved joint teacher-administrator committee action. Of the few other actions identified, none of them could be considered positive in the sense that they were likely to solve any

problems or to prevent the recurrence of the situations.

Membership in Teachers' Professional Organizations

Membership of teachers in the Region in professional education associations was highest in state associations, second highest in local associations, and significantly lower in the national association. Membership in the state associations was significantly higher in those counties which lay within the Southern Appalachian Region than it was in the respective states as a whole, with the exception of West Virginia. In West Virginia membership figures for those counties which lay within the Region were practically identical to membership figures for the state as a whole. This was probably because forty-three of West Virginia's fifty-four counties were in the Southern Appalachian Region, a higher proportion than for any other state.

In 1958, the last year for which complete information was available, membership in the national association was significantly higher in every state in the Region than it was in the nation as a whole.

Membership in the local organizations and attendance at the meetings, as reported by respondents to the long-service teachers' and administrators' questionnaire (Appendix E), were both extremely high.

There appeared to be a high rate of turn-over of membership in professional organizations in the Region. Thirty-nine (15.1 per cent) of 258 respondents to the teacher questionnaire (Appendix B) reported that they had previously belonged to associations in which they no longer held memberships. Reasons given for withdrawal in many cases reflected unfavorably upon the organizations named.

Though membership in professional education organizations was high, membership in academic and academically-oriented professional organizations was extremely low.

Activities of Teachers in Professional Organizations

In addition to membership and attendance as a measure of activity, the extent of activity of teachers in their professional organizations was measured by numbers of executive positions currently and previously held. In local organizations, 46.1 per cent of the sample reported some kind of current or past executive activity. Most of this was committee activity. Female teachers led male teachers by over 10 per cent in executive activity. Females predominated as committee members and secretaries, while males predominated as presidents, vice-presidents and treasurers.

Conclusions of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate, analyze, and assess the progress made toward the development of a teaching profession in the Southern Appalachian Region. In accordance with this purpose, a set of criteria were developed against which the findings of the study could be measured. The criteria portrayed the basic characteristics of a profession and a professional person, as developed for this study. They were set out in Chapter I. An assessment of the significant findings of this study against the criteria developed in Chapter I was the aim of this part of the study.

The first criterion set out on page 59 stated that a profession required an extended professional preparation. Table XII, page 83, showed that 81.1 per cent of teachers in the Region had college graduation or above. This compared favorably with the national average for teachers of 78.8 per cent two years previously; with the 6.0 per cent of the population twenty-five years of age or more; and with the 49.3 per cent of professional, technical and kindred workers in the nation.

On the basis of total college preparation used as a gross measure of one facet of professionalization, the teachers in the Region appeared to measure up adequately. The fact that in order to reach this level of preparation the percentage of teachers in the Region who were college graduates had quadrupled in the past thirty years augured well for the speed with which a professional level of preparation was being achieved.

There were still two aspects of the situation in which continued improvement was needed. They were:

1. In 1959, 18.9 per cent of teachers in the Region had not yet achieved college graduation. As long as anyone with less than professional preparation is permitted to practice, a fully professional level has not been achieved.

2. The extent of strictly professional preparation, as distinguished from general preparation, may be roughly assessed by an examination of the number of practitioners who have completed graduate work. In 1959, 17.5 per cent of the 3337 teachers in the sample (Table XII, page 83) had completed the master's degree and above. This compared unfavorably with the national average of 24.6 per cent two years previously.

The second criterion of professionalization stated that a professional person regulates his schedule of activities to enable him to do what needs to be done when it needs to be done. The fact that teachers in the Region worked an average of approximately fifty hours per week at the job of being teachers, and that a significant portion of this fifty hours included such things as supervision of school-sponsored pupil activities, counselling with pupils and parents after school hours, serving as sponsors for all sorts of class and club after-hours activities, continued professional growth, and a host of other activities directed toward both service and improvement of one's ability to serve, seemed to indicate that teachers in the Region measured up to this criterion adequately.

The third criterion of professionalization stated that a profession offers its practitioners a life career and a permanent membership. On the positive side, the 258 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire had taught from one to forty-three years, with an average of 18.2 years each. The fact that 54.3 per cent of the sample had been out of the teaching field one or more times, for periods ranging from one-half year to twenty-eight years, an average of 6.1 years each, indicated that teachers did not always avail themselves of the life career and permanent membership which teaching offered. The vast numbers who had left the teaching field and remained out were not measured, but their existence would tend to reinforce this impression. In terms of discontinuity of membership and apparent lack of desire on the part of teachers to make of teaching a permanent career, the teachers of the Region did not measure up adequately to the third criterion.

The fourth criterion stated that a professional person engages in continuous in-service professional growth. The record of participation by teachers in the Region in formal in-service sessions was not spectacular. Only 101 of the 258 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire, 39.1 per cent of sample, indicated that they regularly took part in in-service growth activities in an organized manner, for an average of 5.0 hours per month each.

About 80 per cent of respondents reported extensive reading of professional periodicals and books. Fifty-five per cent reported extensive reading of academic books. On the basis of professional reading done, teachers in the Region exhibited a high degree of professional growth.

Travel as a vehicle for personal and professional growth rated high with teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region. About 80 per cent of respondents to the teacher questionnaire travelled extensively in their own states, 60 per cent travelled widely in other states, and 50 per cent had travelled outside the continental limits of the United States.

The fifth criterion of professionalization stated that the professional person is aware of, and responds to, the social function of the profession. He is proud to belong to his profession, and he feels right about it with regard to recruitment of suitable candidates for its development and perpetuation. Two measures of this criterion were developed throughout the study. One was the teachers' feelings about teaching as reflected in vocational guidance and advice they gave their

children; the other was the extent to which they received a professional level of remuneration for the services they rendered.

A total of 47.7 per cent of respondents to the teacher questionnaire said that they would definitely recommend teaching as a career, 22.5 per cent said that they definitely would not recommend it, and 29.8 per cent qualified their answers in some way. Of those who had children of their own, 35.1 per cent said that some of their children were teachers or were planning to become teachers. Of the 126 comments favorable to teaching as a career, twenty-seven recognized the social function of the profession in their description of teaching as a means of rendering service to others; seven recognized it as a means of meeting a serious need created by the current shortage of teachers.

Although teachers' salaries in the Region had more than doubled in actual purchasing power in the preceding thirty years, they were still significantly below the national average, and even further below a sound professional level. This fact had its effect on teacher morale in the Region, and was readily noticeable in the comments tabulated in Table XXXVI, page 159. Of the seventy-six comments unfavorable to teaching as a career, fifty-one of them were aimed directly at low salaries, lack of financial security, insufficient reward for the level of performance and responsibility demanded of teachers, and the lack of status and public esteem accorded people whose abilities and efforts so far outstrip their economic rewards.

In conclusion, the results of the investigation indicated that teachers in the Region were generally aware of the social function of

their profession, but they were far from unanimous in feeling right about it with respect to themselves and the recruitment of their children and others into the profession. Comments submitted indicated a high degree of skepticism, in some cases cynicism, concerning the extent to which the social function was recognized, appreciated, and rewarded by other people.

The sixth criterion of professionalization stated that a profession maintains a comprehensive self-governing organization of practitioners. The results of the investigation showed that the profession did indeed maintain a multiplicity of professional organizations and associations at the local, state, and national levels. Membership and activity in those organizations were higher in the counties comprising the Southern Appalachian Region that they were for any of the states which made up the Region. Membership in the national organization was also higher in the Region than it was for the nation as a whole. Membership and participation at all levels, however, fell far short of the desirable 100 per cent.

All professional organizations studied had the constitutional and administrative machinery necessary to enable them to be self-governing. The extent to which they were actually self-governing in practice was not investigated.

The seventh criterion of professionalization stated that a profession sets up, subscribes to, and enforces a code of professional ethics. Every professional organization and association included in this investigation had and subscribed to either its own code of ethics

or that of its parent-organization. Methods of dealing with professional malpractice situations, as described in Chapter IV of this study, indicated that there was virtually no enforcement of any code of ethics by any professional education organization operating at any level within the Region.

Summary of the Conclusions of the Study

1. Teachers in the Region met the requirements of the first criterion adequately with two exceptions:

a. In 1959, 18.9 per cent of teachers still did not meet the minimum requirement for professional preparation. That is, they had not yet attained college graduation.

b. The percentage of teachers in the Region with specialized graduate professional training was almost 10 per cent lower than the national average.

2. As a group, teachers in the Region adequately met the second criterion. That is, they worked 25 per cent more hours per week than the currently accepted industrial work-week, in order to do the job which needed to be done.

3. Teachers in the Region fell somewhat short of meeting the criterion which defined a profession as a vocation which offers its practitioners a life career and a permanent membership.

4. Teachers in the Region adequately met the criterion requiring continuous in-service professional growth, when this growth was measured by professional reading and travel. They failed to meet the

criterion with respect to completion of college courses, and participation in formal programs of in-service education.

5. Teachers in the Region met the fifth criterion in their recognition of their social function. Their morale, however, was not high. This failure to meet the fifth criterion with respect to their own attitudes toward themselves and their profession was directly related to low level of remuneration and low status and public esteem.

6. Teachers in the Region met the sixth criterion, in that they maintained self-governing professional organizations. Their membership and active participation in their associations were not at the desirable 100 per cent level.

7. Teachers in the Region had only started to meet the seventh criterion. Every professional association in the Region had and subscribed to a code of professional ethics. The fact that these codes of ethics were not enforced meant, in effect, that only those members who were personally professional had a code of ethics. Those teachers who were not voluntarily professional were not subject to a code of ethics.

Implications of the Study for Teacher Education

The significant findings and conclusions of the investigation suggested the following recommendations for teacher education:

1. That teachers' colleges and colleges of education in the Region should redouble their efforts to make their facilities more readily available to teachers in the field, both for the completion of undergraduate qualifications and for the pursuit of specialized graduate

work in education.

2. That teachers' colleges and colleges of education in the Region should redouble their efforts to make their facilities and offerings more attractive and more useful to teachers in the field. A special effort should be directed toward the goal of attracting older teachers who have been away from college for several years. A special investigation should be instigated to determine the feasibility and desirability of setting up special "up-dating" courses for teachers who have been away from college for five years or more.

3. That teachers' colleges and colleges of education in the Region should provide special facilities for development of educational leaders capable of initiating and carrying out adequate in-service education programs.

4. That teachers' colleges and colleges of education in the Region should critically examine their teacher education programs, with a view to providing their graduating teachers with a positive and mature orientation to the privileges and responsibilities inherent in membership in a profession. Serious consideration might be given to soliciting the cooperation of professional education organizations in this undertaking.

Implications of the Study for Professional Organizations

The significant findings and conclusions of the investigation suggested the following recommendations for teachers' professional organizations:

1. That local and parent professional education organizations in the Region direct their efforts toward a closer liaison with one another.

2. That local organizations avail themselves of the facilities and services available from the parent organizations, and that the parent organizations provide the facilities and services needed by the local associations and be sure that the locals know what these facilities are and how to use them.

3. That local and parent professional education organizations in the Region direct their efforts more specifically and scientifically toward determining the professional problems with which teachers in the Region are actually faced, then help to solve them.

Implications of the Study for Educational Administration

The significant findings and conclusions of the investigation suggested the following recommendations for educational administration:

1. That administrators of school systems in the Region redouble their efforts to make continued professional growth both available and attractive to the teachers in their systems.

2. That administrators at all levels of administration in the Region engage in a concerted and concentrated program designed to upgrade the level of in-service professional education of teachers in the Region. The first step might well be the choice of personnel of proven leadership qualities, purely on the basis of merit, for promotion and for further development. Where high-level in-service leadership training could not be provided by the administration, provision should be made

for leave with pay for the carefully planned further education of this leadership cadre.

3. That administrators at all levels of administration provide the leadership necessary to expedite the professional maturation of teachers (and of each other). This professional reorientation can be achieved completely and efficiently only if all the resources of the local administration, the state administration, the appropriate professional education associations, and the available colleges of education are brought to focus through a comprehensive, coordinated program of improvement. Intelligent cooperation of this sort is needed and needed badly.

4. That administrators at all levels of administration in the Region begin at once to up-grade their own leadership qualities. Inherent in any position of educational administration is the responsibility for intelligent educational leadership. The writer of this study respectfully submits the observation that in many systems in the Region such leadership has not been exercised, and that it has, by default or design, fallen to those less worthy of exercising it. Until the requisite amount and quality of leadership is forthcoming from the administrators, little professional improvement on the part of teachers can be realized or expected.

General Recommendations Growing Out of the Study

The significant findings and conclusions of the investigation suggested the following general recommendations:

1. That those recommendations stated as implications for teacher education, implications for professional organizations, and implications for educational administration be regarded as the foremost recommendations of this study, and that efforts be made to implement them.

2. That more extensive studies be made of each aspect of the professional status of teachers in the Southern Appalachian Region. This study has attempted to open to examination many facets of the problem of professionalization of teachers in the Region. It may have sacrificed in depth what it has gained in breadth. A thorough investigation of each aspect of professionalization, including many not mentioned in this study, would be necessary in order to get at the roots of the professional problems with which teachers in the Region are faced.

3. That means be devised to make the findings of this investigation and of related studies more generally available to the people of the Region. Administrators, teachers-of-teachers, teachers, and the public generally, need to know more about the over-all picture of their educational problems and more about the steps being taken to meet those problems. In a democratic social order, problems cannot be solved until the people want them solved. People cannot be expected to want them solved until they recognize them as problems.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Southern Appalachian Studies

County_____

State_____

(Answers to be obtained from superintendent or supervisor)

1. How many teachers have you with lower-than-minimum certification? (That is, "permit" or "emergency" teachers) _____

2. In how many years out of the last ten have you had a full complement of fully certificated teachers? _____

3. How many teachers have you who are teaching outside their subject fields:

   _____ in 1 class? _____

   _____ in 2 or 3 classes? _____

   _____ in 4 or more classes? _____

4. In what subject matter fields do you have the most difficulty getting teachers to fill vacancies? _____

5. In what subject matter fields to you have the least difficulty getting teachers to fill vacancies?

   _____

Salaries Paid for Selected Years

	1958-59		1958-59		1958-59	
	Teachers	Prin-cipals	Teachers	Prin-cipals	Teachers	Prin-cipals
Number of Persons on Payroll						
Highest Salary Paid						
Lowest Salary Paid						
Mean Salary						
Median						
Total Payroll						

Current: (Number, Salaries)

Vo-Ag, H. Ec. _____

Coaches _____

Band _____

Special _____

Homebound _____

EMR[1] _____

_____

_____

[1]Educable Mentally Retarded.

Numbers of Teachers in System by Age and Sex

Age	1959 M	1959 F	19 M	19 F	1950 M	1950 F	1940 M	1940 F	1930 M	1930 F
20 years or less										
21 - 30										
31 - 40										
41 - 50										
51 - 60										
61 - 65										
Over 65										
Total										

Numbers of Teachers in System According to Years of College

Years in College and Degrees Held:

	0	1	2	3	4/BA/BS	5/MA/MS	6/EdS	7/EdD/PhD
1959								
19__								
1950								
1940								
1930								

APPENDIX B

Southern Appalachian Studies

Teacher Questionnaire

Note: Please complete this questionnaire, return it to the envelope, and drop it in the nearest mailbox AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. Your immediate attention to this questionnaire is of vital importance to the progress of the Southern Appalachian Studies.

PLEASE DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME TO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE, NOR PUT ANY OTHER IDENTIFYING MARKS ON IT. You will not be identified, either in person or by location, in any of the writings which grow out of this questionnaire. This is for statistical purposes only.

HOW TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE: (PLEASE READ CAREFULLY)

1. Whenever a choice of answers is indicated without blanks, please CIRCLE the correct response.
2. Most questions where blanks are left may be answered with a check-mark or a single word or phrase. If more space is needed feel free to answer on the back page of this questionnaire.
3. If a question does not apply to you please write "NA" (Not Applicable) in the space provided for the answer.
4. If you do not wish to answer a question, please leave it blank.
5. If you do not know the EXACT answer to a question please submit your best possible estimate, and write "est" after your answer.

PLEASE complete and return this questionnaire as soon as possible.

SECTION I. General and Background Information:

State:_____

County:_____

School:
(Check one) Rural_____
Town _____
City _____

Type of School:
(Check one) Grades 1-6 ____
1-8 ____
7-9 ____
7-12 ____
9-12 ____
10-12 ____
1-12 ____
Other (Specify) _____

If Elementary, I teach grade(s)_____

If High School, my home room grade is____

High School subjects I teach are _____

_____

I was born in (City/County)_____

State_____

Father's occupation is/was_____

Highest grade father attended was_____

Highest grade mother attended was_____

My father's church is/was_____

My mother's church is/was_____

My present church is _____

My wife's (husband's) church is _____

My present age is _____

My sex is M_____ F_____

My marital status is M S D W

I have _____children.

Age of my oldest child is ____ yrs.

Age of my youngest child _____.

Number of children living at home with me now is _____

My present teaching salary is $_____ yr.

Our total annual family income (of those in my household) is about $_____/yr.

SECTION II. Level of College Training

*YEARS in College (circle one) 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(NOTE: a *year in college means a full 45 quarter hours or a full 30 semester hours.)

DEGREES held (circle as many as apply):
B.A.; B.S.; M.A.; M.S.; Ed.D.; Ph.D.;

Other (Specify)_____

Undergraduate major_____

Undergraduate minors_____

_____

Graduate majors_____

Graduate minors_____

I received my last college or university degree in the year _____

Institution(s) where undergraduate work was done:		No. of Years:	Which Years:
Name:_____	Location_____	_____	_____
Name:_____	Location_____	_____	_____
Name:_____	Location_____	_____	_____
Institution(s) where graduate work (is being) (was) done:			
Name:_____	Location_____	_____	_____
Name:_____	Location_____	_____	_____

SECTION III. Service in the Armed Forces:

Have you served in the armed forces?
Yes____
No_____

If yes, circle as many as apply:

W.W.I W.W.II Korean War

Peacetime

Service was in the Army
Navy
Marines
Air Force

Other (Specify)_____

Length of time in the armed forces_____

Places sent while in armed forces:

1._____ for____ months;

2._____ for____ months;

3._____ for____ months;

4._____ for____ months;

SECTION IV. Travel:

Have you travelled widely in your own state? Yes No

Have you travelled extensively in other states? Yes No

In how many states did you travel in the past five years?_____

In what parts of the country?_____

_____

_____

About how many times in the past two years have you been:
about 100 miles from home?____

about 300 miles from home?____

over 1,000 miles from home?_____

Check the places you have been:

Alaska_____
Hawaii_____
Canada_____
Mexico_____
South America_____
Europe_____
Asia_____
Australia_____
Africa_____
West Indies_____

Other (Specify)_____

SECTION V. Teaching and Work Experience.

	Number of Years Taught In This State:	In Other* State(s):	In other** Country	Total Number of Positions Held:
Elementary School				
Junior High School				
High School				
College				
Other (Specify)				
Total				

*Name(s) of State(s)

**Name of Country

I started teaching in the year _____

Since that time, I DID NOT TEACH during the years _____

Have been in my present school _____ years, and in my present school system _____ years.

FULL-TIME JOBS I have held other than teaching: (Do not include summer and part-time work nor military service):

1. Nature of the work: _____

   Salary: $_____/month; I worked at this job _____ months;

   Location: (County or city, and state): _____

2. Nature of the work: _____

   Salary: $_____/month; I worked at this job _____ months;

   Location: (County or city, and state): _____

3. Nature of the work: _____

   Salary: $_____/month; I worked at this job _____ months;

Location: (County or city, and state):_____

I (went into) (returned to) teaching because_____

_____

Aside from my regular teaching salary I now earn an outside income of $_____/year.

The nature of this work is_____

During the school year I work at this job approximately _____ hours per week; During school holidays I work at this (or other) job approximately _____hrs/week.

_____

SECTION VI. Professional Activities

1. Please list all organizations related to the professional, academic or public relations aspects of your teaching positions to which you NOW belong. Include education associations, athletic associations, teachers' leagues, federations, unions, fraternities, sororities, P-TA, etc.:

_____

_____

2. Executive and Committee positions you NOW hold:

Organizations:	Position:

3. Executive and Committee positions PREVIOUSLY held (at any time in your life):

Organization:	Position:	Year(s):

4. Please list all organizations (of the types in question 1 above) to which you PREVIOUSLY belonged at some time in the past:

Organization: Reason for dropping membership:

_____

_____

_____

5. Please list all professional organizations (education or others) to which you would like to belong, hope to belong, or plan to qualify for soon:

_____

6. Number of hours* of college work I have taken: a. In the past year:_____

*NOTE: Please indicate whether "S.H." (semester hours) or "Q.H." (quarter hours). b. In the past five years:_____

7. Please name the professional education periodicals to which YOU personally subscribe:

_____

_____

8. To about how many professional education publications do you have EASY access in your home, school library, county library, public library, etc.? (Circle one answer in each line):

Current periodicals: 5 or less; 6 7 8 9 10; more than 10; no idea.

Professional books: 25 or less; 50 75 100 150; more than 150; no idea.

9. About how many professional periodicals have you read in the last month?_____

10. About how many books have you read in the past year: (a) In or related to your professional field?_____; (b) In or related to your academic field?_____; (c) Not related to either?_____

11. (a) Have you ever had any of your writing published? YES NO

(b) If YES: (Check appropriately):
Was it professional (Education)?_____
Academic?_____
Fiction?_____
Poetry?_____
Music?_____

Other (specify):

_____

(c) Have you ever tried to publish? YES NO

12. About how many hours per month do you spend on professional activities outside of school time? (Itemize below):

(a)	Preparing lessons and grading papers	_____hrs.
(b)	Reading related to school and profession	_____hrs.
(c)	Attendance at professional and P-TA meetings	_____hrs.
(d)	Supervising school sponsored pupil activities	_____hrs.
(e)	In-service education	_____hrs.
(f)	Counseling pupils and parents	_____hrs.
(g)	Refereeing and officiating	_____hrs.
(h)	In organized college and extension courses	_____hrs.
(i)	Other (specify):	
	_____	_____hrs.
(j)	_____	_____hrs.
(k)	_____ TOTAL/Month	_____hrs.

13. Are any of your children teachers (or planning to become teachers)?
YES NO

14. Would you advise any of your children to become teachers? YES NO

(b) Reasons:_____

15. (a) Have you ever accepted a teaching position <u>verbally</u> or by telephone and later found it necessary not to go to that job?
YES NO

(b) If YES, what was your reason for not going to the job?_____

_____

16. (a) Have you ever accepted a teaching position in writing and later found it necessary not to go to that job? YES NO

(b) If YES, what was your reason for not going to that job?

_____

17. (a) Have you ever found it necessary to resign during a semester? YES NO

(b) Did you give a reason, in writing for your resignation? YES NO

(c) What reason?_____

(d) Was this the REAL reason? YES NO

(e) How much notice did you give?_____days

18. (a) Have you ever heard of any teachers' professional organization taking any legal action or otherwise attempting to control hiring and firing of teachers? YES NO

(b) If YES, give details briefly_____

_____

19. Would you care to comment briefly on the problems of developing and instituting a workable code of professional ethics for teachers?

_____

_____

_____

20. Would you care to comment on any other professional problem with which you are faced or about which you feel rather strongly?

_____

_____

_____

Please use the remainder of this page to answer any questions for which you did not have sufficient room on previous pages.

APPENDIX C

Southern Appalachian Studies

Teacher Questionnaire

TO THE SUPERVISOR:

Suggestions for distribution of the Teacher Questionnaires.

PLEASE distribute these questionnaires to as wide a selection of teachers as possible.

(a) To at least 1 teacher in each elementary school grade;
(b) To at least 1 teacher in each major high school subject area;
(c) To a number of teachers in each size range of school in your county (i.e., 1-teacher schools, if any; 2- or 3-teacher schools; 4-and-more-teacher schools, etc.)

Please distribute to teachers who indicate some willingness to complete them.

PLEASE impress upon the teachers to whom the questionnaires are given:

(a) The importance of completing the questionnaire and returning it promptly;
(b) The objectivity with which the data will be handled, and our respect for the COMPLETE ANONYMITY of the respondent;
(c) The value of the data as a starting point for improvement of the teaching profession.

PLEASE request that the teacher completing the questionnaire allow about an hour of his/her time for the task.

YOU may also tell them, if you wish, that a summary of the statistics derived from the questionnaires for the entire Southern Appalachian Region will be returned to you (the Supervisor) for use in discussions at in-service or professional meetings (if you wish to use it that way).

PLEASE accept our profound appreciation for your assistance in the work of these studies, and convey that appreciation to all the other teachers who are willing to help us by completing and returning this questionnaire.

(Signed) Wm. L. Evernden,
Department of Educational
Administration and Supervision
University of Tennessee

APPENDIX D

Southern Appalachian Studies

Teacher Questionnaire

NUMBERS OF TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED AND NUMBERS AND PER CENTS OF TOTALS RETURNED--BY COUNTIES, BY STATES, AND FOR THE REGION

Geographical Identification	Number Distributed	Number Returned	Per Cent Returned
DeKalb County, Alabama	22	9	40.9
Pickens County, Georgia	20	17	85.0
Jackson County, Kentucky	30	2	6.6
Leslie County, Kentucky	30	7	23.3
Owsley County, Kentucky	30	18	60.0
State of Kentucky	90	27	30.0
Swain County, North Carolina	30	18	60.0
Bradley County, Tennessee	30	18	60.0
Hamilton County and Chattanooga, Tennessee	60	40	66.7
Hawkins County, Tennessee	30	13	43.3
Sevier County, Tennessee	30	10	33.3
State of Tennessee	150	81	54.0
Giles County, Virginia	30	26	86.7
Barbour County, West Virginia	30	25	83.3
Gilmer County, West Virginia	30	9	30.0
Grant County, West Virginia	30	15	50.0
Kanawha County (and Charleston), West Va.	30	20	66.7
Tucker County, West Virginia	30	11	36.7
State of West Virginia	150	80	53.3
Total for the Region	492	258	52.4

APPENDIX E

Questionnaire to Long-Service Teachers in the

Southern Appalachian Region

1. Approximate number of teachers in your system: _____. Male_____;

   Female_____

2. To what local teachers' professional organization(s) do you belong?

   _____

3. Approximately how many teachers (in your system) are MEMBERS of this (these) local teachers' professional organization(s)? _____

4. Approximately how many teachers (in your system) usually ATTEND meetings of this (these) local professional organization(s)? _____

5. At the meetings of your teachers' professional organizations do the programs include: (Circle answers which apply)

   (a) Participation by member teachers? _____ YES NO
   (b) Participation by college or university personnel?____ YES NO
   (c) Participation by state or national parent-organization personnel? _____ YES NO
   (d) Participation by other professional or lay personnel? _____ YES NO
   (e) Reports of research projects undertaken by member teachers? _____ YES NO
   (f) Reports of research projects in education undertaken elsewhere? _____ YES NO
   (g) Committee or group study of problems concerning:
   teachers' salaries? _____ YES NO
   promotion of professional growth?_____ YES NO
   teachers' working conditions?_____ YES NO
   promotion of ethical standards? _____ YES NO
   local, state and national legislation affecting teachers?_____ YES NO

   OTHER (Specify)_____

6. The "incidents" or "situations" given below are considered appropriate fields for concern and/or action by many professional organizations. Please indicate by circling the correct response in each of the columns below: (A) Whether or not this situation has arisen

since you have been in the system; (B) Whether or not the professional organization(s) of which you are a member shows concern through discussions in meetings, etc.; (C) Whether or not the professional organization(s) of which you are a member takes positive action through field representatives, petitions, official protests, legal actions, etc.

Incident or Situation	(A) This situation has arisen in my system		(B) Shows concern through discussions, etc.		(C)* Takes positive action about this	
1. Board/Supt. hiring "permit" teachers when qualified teachers are available	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
2. Board/Supt. hiring poorly qualified teachers when ones with better qualifications available	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
3. Board/Supt. hiring or firing teachers on the basis of their family or political affiliation.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
4. Board/Supt. firing teachers without reasonable notice.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
5. Board/Supt. firing teachers without defensible reasons.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
6. Teachers resigning or leaving without reasonable notice.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
7. Teachers leaving positions during school term for other than medical (i.e. for personal) reasons.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
8. Board/Supt. and individual teachers reaching private agreement on salary above schedule.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
9. Teachers attempting by devious means to secure positions already filled by other teachers.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO

Incident or Situation	(A) This situation has arisen in my system		(B) Shows concern through discussions, etc.		(C)* Takes positive action about this	
10. Teachers transferred within the system against their wishes.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
11. Teachers applying for (and accepted in) positions failing to "show up" to fill those positions.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
12. Teachers consistently unprofessional in dress, action, speech, social relationships, etc.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
13. Protection of tenure and reputations of teachers unjustly accused of unprofessional conduct.	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO

*If any answers in Column (C) are YES, please give background and action taken: