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SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS



BULLETIN, 1932, No. 17

MONOGRAPH No. 17

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
HAROLD L. ICKES : SECRETARY

OFFICE OF EDUCATION : WILLIAM JOHN COOPER
COMMISSIONER

SELECTION
AND APPOINTMENT
OF TEACHERS

BY

W. S. DEFFENBAUGH
AND
WILLIAM H. ZEIGEL, JR. .

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NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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NOTE

W. S. Deffenbaugh and William H. Zeigel, jr., authors of this monograph, are, respectively, chief of the division of American school systems of the Office of Education and specialist in school administration of the NATIONAL SURVEY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, is director of the Survey; Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, is associate director; and Carl A. Jessen, specialist in secondary education of the Office of Education, is coordinator.

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., May, 1933.

SIR: Within a period of 30 years the high-school enrollment has increased from a little over 10 per cent of the population of high-school age to more than 50 per cent of that population. This enrollment is so unusual for a secondary school that it has attracted the attention of Europe, where only 8 to 10 per cent attend secondary schools. Many European educators have said that we are educating too many people. I believe, however, that the people of the United States are now getting a new conception of education. They are coming to look upon education as a preparation for citizenship and for daily life rather than for the money return which comes from it. They are looking upon the high school as a place for their boys and girls to profit at a period when they are not yet acceptable to industry.

In order that we may know where we stand in secondary education, the membership of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools four years ago took the lead in urging a study. It seemed to them that it was wise for such a study to be made by the Government of the United States rather than by a private foundation; for if such an agency studied secondary education, it might be accused either rightly or wrongly of a bias toward a special interest. When the members of a committee of this association appeared before the Bureau of the Budget in 1928 they received a very courteous hearing. It was impossible, so the Chief of the Budget Bureau thought, to obtain all the money which the commission felt desirable; with the money which was obtained, \$225,000, to be expended over a 3-year period, it was found impossible to do all the things that the committee had in mind. It was possible, however, to study those things which pertained strictly to secondary education, that is, its organization; its curriculum, including some of the more fundamental subjects, and particularly those subjects on which a comparison could be made between the present and

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earlier periods; its extracurriculum, which is almost entirely new in the past 30 years; the pupil population; and administrative and supervisory problems, personnel, and activities.

The handling of this survey was intrusted to Dr. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Chicago. With great skill he has, working on a full-time basis during his free quarters from the University of Chicago, and part time during other quarters, brought it to a conclusion.

At the time that the National Survey of Secondary Education was starting, a study on the selection and tenure of teachers had been planned by W. S. Deffenbaugh. In fact, he had a questionnaire already prepared. When Doctor Koos announced that this topic would be included in the Survey series Mr. Zeigel was assigned to it. Accordingly Mr. Deffenbaugh and Mr. Zeigel worked together in producing this manuscript.

This study of the selection and appointment of teachers shows that in 1930 about 8 per cent of the teaching staff in secondary schools and about 15 per cent in elementary schools was newly appointed in the city school systems which made reports. In the independent secondary schools and county systems the proportion of the staff which was new each year was approximately one-fourth. Consequently careful selection and provision for overseeing their work seemed to be essential to any intelligent action in securing, retaining, or dismissing teachers. The inquiry attempted to find out how superintendents got their first information about these teachers. A careful study of the literature was made and rules and regulations of boards of education were obtained. It was found that teachers are selected by superintendents in city school systems largely through applications. Larger cities can rely on these personal applications better than smaller communities. The superintendents, however, do not agree as to the methods by which the more desirable candidates may be found. Many superintendents favor the use of placement bureaus of educational institutions and private teachers' agencies as a first approach rather than applications made by the candidates themselves. These studies, however, do not show the relative merits of teachers selected by either of these methods.

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In approximately half of the systems superintendents nominate the teachers directly to the board or to one of its committees. In an additional fourth of the systems the superintendents actually appoint the teachers subject to the approval of the board. School boards, it seems, assume the major rôle in the selection of teachers in about 4 per cent of the cases. Generally the stronger the superintendent and the better trained he is the better opportunity will he have to select the teachers himself. Secondary-school principals are consulted in the appointment of teachers in about half of the schools. They recommend teachers in approximately one-fourth of the schools and appoint them in a very few cases.

This study is important largely as a status study showing the facts in an important situation. I recommend that it be published as a monograph in the National Survey of Secondary Education.

Respectfully submitted:

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS

CHAPTER I : THE PROBLEM AND METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

1. IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

The selection of teachers is, and will continue to be, among the most important responsibilities of school executives. The problem is as old as our public schools. In the earlier days, however, the choice of teachers was a relatively simple matter, since persons with little training were employed to "keep school." The compensation was meager and the occupation was usually a makeshift or part-time job. According to Reisner it was "the last measure of professional and business incompetence. It was not even a well-defined trade with standards of preparation and fitness."¹ No particular professional qualifications were necessary for the selection of teachers.

The evolution of the present appointive agencies was pointed out some years ago by Suzzallo,² who showed how in Massachusetts, teachers were originally chosen by the town meeting; how the town committee later delegated this responsibility to a group of selectmen; how this was followed by selection through a prudential committee, how this gave way to the assumption of the function by the school committee; and how the school committee later came to delegate more and more responsibility for this function to the school superintendent.

Changes like those mentioned were accompanied and in part necessitated by the increasing importance and difficulty of selecting the teaching personnel. The number of teachers

¹ Reisner, Edward H. *The Evolution of the Common School*. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930. p. 393.

² Suzzallo, Henry. *The Rise of Local Supervision in Massachusetts*. Teachers College, Columbia University, *Contributions to Education*, 1906, Vol. 1, No. 3, p. 154.

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needed has increased rapidly, the curriculum has been broadened greatly, research has shown the superiority of particular teaching methods over certain others, compensation has been augmented, and the number of well-trained teachers has greatly increased. The people of the United States recognize the fact that "the classroom teacher," according to Crow,³ "is the fundamental unit in the educational personnel of today. . . . The schools exist for the purpose of accomplishing the tasks of the teacher—supervisors, principals, superintendents, school boards, the office personnel—all of them bend their energies to their work to accomplish the purposes of classroom instruction." Good teachers are a valuable asset to any school system; poor teachers are a detriment. The latter are expensive in that they require excessive amounts of supervision and administration, frequently undo the work of good teachers, are difficult to eliminate, and often disturb the equilibrium and morale of the whole teaching corps. Pupils are entitled to the best teachers obtainable. The fact that each year nearly every system must employ some new teachers offers school executives an opportunity to increase the efficiency of the teaching corps. The opportunity is one which should not be neglected, for it at once presents a challenge and a difficulty. The challenge is the necessity of securing the best, the difficulty lies in the lack of objective methods by which to distinguish superior teachers.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The advisers to the staff of the National Survey of Secondary Education recommended that a study be made of the practices in the selection and appointment of secondary-school teachers. At the time the Office of Education was completing plans for a study of the methods used in the selection and appointment of elementary as well as of secondary-school teachers. In order to carry out the recommendations of the advisers to the survey and at the same time to include a study of the practice in the selection and appointment of teachers for the elementary schools, it was decided to join the two investigations into a single project.

³ Crow, Orin F. *The Selection of Teachers in South Carolina*. Bulletin of the University of South Carolina, No. 169, October 15, 1925. p. 9.

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The present study has two major purposes: (1) to determine the status of current practices in the selection and appointment of teachers; and (2) to identify and to study intensively the practices in some of those public schools where the procedures followed in selecting and appointing teachers are unusual or innovating. Not only does this imply an intensive study of those systems in which the practices employed have proved especially effective in attracting and retaining teachers of high quality, but also some study of those systems which employ methods usually considered undesirable.

The procedures followed by school executives in selecting and appointing new teachers logically fall into six steps which form the basis for the following chapters:

1. The determination of the number of new teachers needed for the following school year. (Ch. II.)
2. The determination of the qualifications desired of new teachers. (Ch. III.)
3. The location of desirable prospective candidates. (Ch. IV.)
4. The collection of information concerning prospective teachers. (Ch. V.)
5. The actual selection and appointment of teachers. (Chs. VI and VII.)
6. The retention of teachers of high quality. (Ch. VIII.)

3. METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

The data for the study have been secured primarily from three sources: (1) literature dealing with methods of teacher selection and appointment, (2) check lists sent to superintendents of school systems and to principals of public secondary schools, and (3) materials sent to the survey by the superintendents and principals responding to the inquiry forms.

The available related studies have been secured, read, and briefed on special forms designed for the purpose. From time to time throughout this report the findings of previous investigations will be drawn upon. Particularly is this true of the excellent recent study of the National Education

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Association,⁴ which is well coordinated to this investigation of the National Survey.

Special inquiry forms were devised and mailed to superintendents in all cities of more than 30,000 population and to representative samplings of cities of fewer than 30,000. In all, approximately 1,300 forms were mailed in this manner. Similar forms were sent to approximately 350 principals of public secondary schools supported by school districts maintaining high-school grades only. These schools will be referred to throughout this report as independent secondary schools. A third inquiry form was sent to all county superintendents in 10 county-unit States. These two additional groups were included in the study to ascertain if the practices employed in selecting teachers varied among different types of schools.

The investigation deals with teacher selection in elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior or 4-year high schools in seven different classifications of systems and schools and in four geographical regions of the country. The seven classifications and the median sizes of the cities included in the study are as follows:

- Group I.—Cities of more than 100,000 population (253,000).⁵
- Group II.—Cities between 30,000 and 100,000 population (56,500).
- Group III.—Cities between 10,000 and 30,000 population (16,720).
- Group IV.—Cities between 2,500 and 10,000 population (5,400).
- Group V.—Villages with less than 2,500 population (1,923).
- Group VI.—Independent secondary schools (1,025).
- Group VII.—County systems.

The unit systems in cities of Groups I to V, inclusive, were further divided so as to form four geographical or regional groups as follows:

<i>Region 1 East</i> (12,714)	<i>Region 2 Middle</i> <i>West</i> (5,800)	<i>Region 3 South</i> (9,100)	<i>Region 4 West</i> (7,000)
Connecticut	Illinois	Alabama	Arizona
Delaware	Indiana	Arkansas	California
Maine	Iowa	Florida	Colorado
Maryland	Kansas	Georgia	Idaho
Massachusetts	Michigan	Kentucky	Montana

⁴ National Education Association, Research Division. *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*. Research Bulletin, 10: 1-75, January and March, 1932.

⁵ The numbers in parentheses represent the median sizes of the villages and cities in which these schools are located.

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<i>Region 1 East</i> (12,714)	<i>Region 2 Middle West</i> (5,800)	<i>Region 3 South</i> (9,100)	<i>Region 4 West</i> (7,000)
New Jersey	Minnesota	Louisiana	Nevada
New Hampshire	Missouri	Mississippi	Oregon
New York	Nebraska	New Mexico	Utah
Pennsylvania	North Dakota	North Carolina	Washington
Rhode Island	Ohio	Oklahoma	Wyoming
Vermont	South Dakota	South Carolina	
	West Virginia	Tennessee	
	Wisconsin	Texas	
		Virginia	

This division of States was made more or less arbitrarily in the case of some States such as West Virginia, New Mexico, and Oklahoma, but inasmuch as the number of returns from such States is relatively small, it was felt that the region into which they were grouped would not be particularly influential on the status in the large number of cases represented. The numbers placed in the parentheses in the lists of the different groups and regions show the approximate median population of the cities included in this investigation. The fact that the median city in the East is considerably larger than the median cities of the other regions should be kept in mind in the interpretation of data presented for the geographical regions throughout this report. The median size for cities of all groups and regions is 8,100.

The number of inquiry forms mailed and the number of returns are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Number of inquiry forms mailed and the number of returns from the various groups and regions*

Group and region	Number of blanks sent	Number of blanks returned	Percentage of returns
1	2	3	4
Group:			
I.....	66	32	48.5
II.....	181	92	50.8
III.....	253	127	50.2
IV.....	390	161	41.3
V.....	395	161	40.7
Region:			
East.....	393	173	43.8
Middle West.....	518	252	48.6
South.....	236	77	32.1
West.....	139	72	51.8
All city systems combined.....	1,286	573	44.5
Independent secondary schools.....	316	165	52.2
County systems.....	700	170	24.3
Total.....	2,302	908	39.4

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The data obtained from these 908 inquiry forms, coming from various types of schools and from systems in cities of various sizes in all parts of the country, have been relied upon chiefly to show the status of current practice in the selection and appointment of teachers. The data were also used for the purpose of identifying, for more intensive study, those public schools where the procedures followed in selecting and appointing teachers were unusual or innovating. A considerable number of the systems where unusual or innovating procedures seemed apparent were visited for the purpose of making personal contacts and for the purpose of securing additional information relative to the practices followed. These systems will be mentioned frequently throughout the investigation. The whole study is, therefore, an investigation both of status and of innovating practices. In this respect it differs from the majority of the projects of the National Survey of Secondary Education since most of these projects have been concerned with practices in innovating schools only.

CHAPTER II: EMPLOYMENT OF TEACHERS

1. THE PROBLEM

Regardless of the fact that most authorities on school administration advise against the annual reelection of teachers, annual elections for teachers are held in nearly all smaller cities.¹ Each year from February to June superintendents and boards of education are working on the problem of teacher selection. Gough has shown for 234 systems in cities of 2,500 to 5,000 population that almost 8 per cent hold annual reelections in February, 37 per cent in March, 23 per cent in April, 27 per cent in May, about 1 per cent in June, and the remainder at more or less indefinite times.²

The magnitude of the task of choosing the teaching personnel is made apparent by an analysis of the teaching population and its mobility. One of the first steps in any program of teacher selection should be the determination of the number of new teachers needed for the following school year. Some new positions may be created, some positions may be combined, some teachers may resign, and probably some teachers should not be reemployed. These facts should be ascertained as early as possible in order to permit adequate time for a proper consideration of the many problems of teacher selection. It is the purpose of this chapter to present data concerning the number of teachers employed and the number of new appointments made in the school systems included in this investigation.

2. NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED

The data reported by superintendents of the city school systems included in the study indicate that the average number of teachers employed in the elementary schools is 172, in the junior high schools about 63, and in the senior or 4-year high schools almost 61. (See Table 2.) Accordingly, the approximate average number of teachers employed at all

¹ Gough H. B. *The Procedure Followed in the Employment of Teachers in Cities of 2,500-5,000 Population. . . . Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Minnesota, 1928.* p. 7.

² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

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levels in the city school systems reporting is almost 296. The largest average number of teachers is reported in the Eastern States, possibly because of the fact, as shown in Chapter I, that larger cities are more frequently found in that region. The average number of teachers employed in the independent secondary schools reporting is almost 12. The counties reporting employ an average of about 91 elementary-school teachers, 11 junior high school teachers, and 21 senior or 4-year high school teachers. In this connection it should be remembered that in many of these counties the city schools are not a part of the county system. This reduces the number of teachers employed in the county systems.

TABLE 2.—Aggregate number and average number of teachers employed in school systems reporting for 1929-30

Group and region	School level					
	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior or 4-year high school	
	Number	Average	Number	Average	Number	Average
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group:						
I.....	56,116	2,078.4	11,349	472.9	16,919	626.6
II.....	15,419	205.6	5,206	93.0	5,330	73.0
III.....	8,361	77.4	1,933	26.5	3,074	30.4
IV.....	3,836	28.0	896	10.1	2,068	15.8
V.....	1,745	11.6	287	4.0	1,228	9.4
Region:						
East.....	47,105	322.6	8,842	96.1	13,351	93.4
Middle West.....	21,086	95.0	6,293	43.7	8,168	39.7
South.....	4,414	65.9	468	15.1	1,784	26.6
West.....	12,872	206.6	4,068	88.4	5,408	96.5
All city systems combined.....	85,477	172.0	19,671	62.7	28,709	60.8
Independent secondary schools.....	(1)				1,750	11.7
County systems.....	14,152	91.3	849	11.5	3,125	21.3

¹ None of the independent secondary schools reporting maintains elementary or junior high school grades.

3. AVERAGE NUMBER OF NEW TEACHERS APPOINTED

The data relating to the average size of the teaching staff becomes more pertinent to our problem when related to the average number of new teachers appointed for the year 1929-30. Each year some new teachers must be appointed to fill positions either left vacant or newly created. The number needed may depend on such factors as the size of the school system, geographical location, tenure and retire-

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ment provisions, salary schedules, and the like. It is not the purpose of this study to present the amount of annual turnover in the school systems reporting since this will be treated in detail in the National Survey of the Education of Teachers. It is the purpose to present here a few facts concerning the number of new teachers appointed each year in proportion to the total number employed in order to give some indication of the magnitude of the task of teacher selection and to furnish a background for a better understanding of the different methods and procedures followed in the systems reporting.

New teachers have been defined in this report to mean either inexperienced teachers or teachers with experience who were appointed to positions for 1929-30 but who did not teach in the system during 1928-29. The number of new teachers varies considerably within the different groups and regions. (See Table 3.) The average number of new elementary-school teachers needed annually in the cities reporting ranges from 2.5 in towns of less than 2,500 population to 72.6 in cities of more than 100,000 population. The average number of junior high school teachers ranges from 1.1 to 26.9 in the same population groups and the average number of new senior or 4-year high school teachers appointed annually ranges from 2.7 to 28.8.

TABLE 3.—Aggregate and average number of new teachers appointed in the systems reporting for the year 1929-30

Group and region	School level					
	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior or 4-year high school	
	Number	Average	Number	Average	Number	Average
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group:						
I.....	2,106	72.6	673	26.9	836	28.8
II.....	1,704	20.5	601	9.7	668	6.8
III.....	1,202	9.5	320	3.6	604	4.2
IV.....	708	4.5	181	1.8	452	3.1
V.....	379	2.5	80	1.1	373	2.7
Region:						
East.....	2,124	12.6	529	4.9	837	5.2
Middle West.....	2,267	9.3	770	4.9	1,011	4.4
South.....	651	9.3	82	2.3	282	4.0
West.....	1,122	16.5	474	9.3	602	9.9
All city systems combined.....	6,154	14.2	1,855	5.6	2,732	5.2
Independent secondary schools.....	(¹)					
County systems.....	1,771	21.1	(¹) 94	2.8	538	3.5
					465	5.7

¹ None of the independent secondary schools reporting maintains elementary or junior high school grades.

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For all cities combined the average number of new teachers appointed in the elementary schools was 11.2; in the junior high schools 5.6, and in the senior or 4-year high schools, 5.2. Principals of independent secondary schools reported an average of 3.5 new appointments to their schools for 1929-30. County superintendents reported, on the average, the appointment of 21.1 new elementary-school teachers, of 2.8 junior high school teachers, and of 5.7 new high-school teachers.

4. PROPORTION OF NEW TEACHERS WITH NO EXPERIENCE

Approximately 39 per cent of the elementary-school teachers appointed in the city systems reporting for 1929-30 had no previous experience, approximately 29 per cent of those appointed to junior high school positions had no teaching experience, and about 22 per cent of those appointed to senior high school teaching positions had not taught. (See Table 4. Nearly 35 per cent of the senior high school teachers in independent secondary schools and slightly more than 44 per cent of those in county systems were reported as having had no experience prior to their appointment for the year 1929-30.

No consistent relationships exist between the size of cities and the average percentage of inexperienced appointees in elementary and junior high schools in Groups II to V. However, a greater percentage of inexperienced elementary teachers are reported in cities of more than 100,000. The average percentage of new appointees in senior high schools with no experience tends to be somewhat greater for cities of less than 10,000 than for cities of more than 10,000 population. Considerable differences exist among the several regions; the largest proportion of inexperienced elementary-school teachers was appointed in the East. This may be partially accounted for by the fact, as shown in Chapter I, that the median size of the cities in the East was somewhat larger than in other regions. In the senior or 4-year high schools the largest proportion of inexperienced teachers was reported appointed in the South, the smallest in the Middle West.

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TABLE 4.—Numbers and percentages of new appointees having had no experience prior to the year 1929-30

Group and region	School level								
	Elementary school			Junior high school			Senior or 4-year high school		
	Number new inexperienced	Total new	Per cent new inexperienced	Number new inexperienced	Total new	Per cent new inexperienced	Number new inexperienced	Total new	Per cent new inexperienced
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Group:									
I.....	1,138	2,106	54.0	219	673	32.5	144	835	17.3
II.....	571	1,764	32.4	159	601	26.4	79	568	13.9
III.....	383	1,202	31.9	88	320	27.5	95	504	18.9
IV.....	217	708	30.9	54	181	29.9	157	462	34.8
V.....	114	379	30.2	22	80	27.6	123	373	32.8
Region:									
East.....	1,055	2,124	49.7	186	529	35.1	185	837	22.1
Middle West.....	776	2,257	34.4	204	770	26.5	196	1,011	19.4
South.....	263	1,651	40.4	16	82	19.4	71	282	25.1
West.....	329	1,122	29.3	136	474	28.6	146	602	24.2
All city systems combined.....	2,423	6,154	39.4	542	1,855	29.3	598	2,732	21.9
Independent secondary schools.....									
County systems.....	971	1,771	54.8	29	94	30.8	187	538	34.8
							206	465	44.1

¹ The percentage reported here includes teachers who were appointed to elementary teaching positions immediately upon graduation from a city teachers-training school. Undoubtedly a few of these persons had experience before entering the training institution.

The problem of teacher selection is made more difficult by the fact that some applicants have had previous experience and some have not. Because of this condition different types of criteria must be set up for the purpose of judging the probable success of the various applicants. These problems will be discussed in Chapter III of the report.

5. PROPORTION OF STAFF MADE UP OF NEW TEACHERS

The proportion of the total staff at all levels made up of new teachers varies inversely with the population of the cities. (See Table 5.) In the largest cities represented, 3.5 per cent of the elementary teachers are new as compared with 21.3 per cent in towns of less than 2,500 population. The percentage of the senior or 4-year high school staff made up of new appointees ranges from 4.6 per cent in cities of more than 100,000 population to 28.1 per cent in towns of less than 2,500 population. A slightly greater proportion of

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the staffs of junior and senior high schools is made up of newly appointed teachers which fact increases the relative importance of the problems of choosing teachers for the secondary schools.

Among the regions the Southern States lead in the proportion of the staff at all levels made up of new appointees. In the East the smallest proportion of the staff at all levels is made up of new appointees. The proportion of the teaching corps made up of newly appointed teachers in the independent secondary schools and in the county systems is considerably higher than for city schools. These differences may again be partly explained by the difference in sizes of cities in the various regions and types of schools.

TABLE 5.—Average¹ numbers and percentages of staff made up of new teachers for the year 1929-80

Group and region	School level								
	Elementary schools			Junior high schools			Senior or 4-year high schools		
	Average number new teachers	Average total number on staff	Per cent new	Average number new teachers	Average total number on staff	Per cent new	Average number new teachers	Average total number on staff	Per cent new
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Group:									
I.....	72.6	2,078.4	3.5	28.9	472.9	5.7	28.8	626.6	4.6
II.....	20.5	205.6	10.0	9.7	93.0	10.4	6.8	73.0	9.3
III.....	9.5	77.4	12.3	3.6	26.5	13.8	4.2	30.4	13.9
IV.....	4.5	28.0	16.2	1.8	10.1	17.6	3.1	15.8	19.3
V.....	2.5	11.6	21.3	1.1	4.0	26.3	2.7	9.4	28.1
Region:									
East.....	12.6	300.6	3.9	4.9	95.1	5.2	5.2	93.4	5.5
Middle West.....	9.3	93.0	9.8	4.9	43.7	11.1	4.4	39.7	11.2
South.....	9.3	65.9	14.1	2.3	15.1	15.0	4.0	26.6	15.1
West.....	16.5	206.6	8.0	9.3	88.4	10.5	9.9	96.5	10.2
All city systems combined.....	11.2	172.0	6.5	5.6	62.7	8.4	5.2	60.8	8.6
Independent secondary schools.....							3.5	11.7	29.4
County systems.....	21.1	91.3	23.1	2.8	11.3	24.1	5.7	21.3	26.7

¹ The average (arithmetic mean) was used as a basis for computing the percentages of the staff made up of new teachers because different numbers of systems reported the number of new teachers and the total number of teachers.

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6. SUMMARY

Teacher selection is a problem of great importance not only because of the fact that large numbers of teachers must be employed annually, but also because of the responsibility resting upon school executives for selecting teachers wisely. Teacher selection is a difficult task, both because of the large number of applicants and because of our present inability to measure objectively the factors correlating highly with teaching success. The average number of new teachers needed annually in the schools represented ranges from 2.5 in villages of less than 2,500 to 72.6 in cities of more than 100,000 population, but no consistent relationships exist between the size of cities and the average percentage of inexperienced appointees in elementary and junior high schools in cities of Groups II to V. The average percentage of inexperienced senior high school teachers is somewhat larger in cities of less than 10,000 population.

CHAPTER III : TYPES OF TEACHERS APPOINTED

1. THE PROBLEM

A second step in any program of teacher selection should be the determination of the type of personnel desired. It is the consensus of opinion among authorities on school administration that the superintendent, either personally or through his appointed agent, should nominate teachers to the board for its approval. It is also generally accepted that the chief function of the board relative to teacher selection is to determine the general policies to be followed. The board should determine the minimum qualifications for all teachers and fix the policies of the systems with respect to tenure, salary, leaves of absence, promotion, and retention in accordance with State regulations.

The school board can not expect to do work of this nature at one or two meetings. It will require the efforts and attention of the board for a considerable length of time. For this reason it is often suggested that during the year the board carefully prepare definitive rules and regulations governing the type of personnel it desires in the school system. Then, when the superintendent begins to locate the best available candidates for teaching positions, the task of eliminating the untrained and otherwise unqualified candidates will be relatively easy. The efforts of the superintendent may then primarily be directed toward the task of choosing the best candidates from those who qualify.

The boards of education in a considerable number of cities have established such rules and regulations. It is the purpose of the following discussion to show the policies of school systems with respect to the types of teachers appointed. It is hoped that the data may be of value to superintendents and boards in determining standards and desirable qualifications for teachers in their particular school systems.

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2. QUALIFICATIONS CONCERNING EDUCATIONAL TRAINING

Determination of minimum qualifications for teachers.—Minimum educational qualifications for new teachers may be determined by at least three agencies: (1) State departments of education which are assuming increasingly large degrees of responsibility for the certification of teachers, (2) accrediting agencies which require minimum preparation of teachers as a prerequisite to recognition of schools, and (3) local boards of education which may promulgate standards and minimum qualifications above the level required either by State departments of education or by accrediting agencies.

TABLE 6.—*Educational qualifications required of newly appointed teachers in 1930-31*¹

Number of years training required beyond high-school graduation	Cities of more than 100,000 population		Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population		Cities 10,000 to 30,000 in population		Cities 5,000 to 10,000 in population		Cities 2,500 to 5,000 in population		All cities reporting	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Elementary schools:												
Less than one year.....					1	0.3	1	0.2	1	0.3	3	0.2
One year.....			3	1.6	5	1.3	13	3.2	21	5.2	42	2.8
Two years.....	54	64.3	126	67.4	310	78.3	311	75.1	305	76.3	1,107	74.7
Three years.....	17	20.2	40	21.4	60	15.1	62	15.0	59	14.7	238	16.1
Four years.....	13	15.5	17	9.1	20	5.0	26	6.3	14	3.5	90	6.1
Five years.....			1	.5			1	.2			2	.1
Total.....	84	100.0	187	100.0	396	100.0	414	100.0	401	100.0	1,482	100.0
Junior high schools:												
Less than one year.....							1	.3	1	.3	2	.2
One year.....					2	.6	3	.9	4	1.3	9	.7
Two years.....	7	10.1	24	14.6	72	21.4	93	27.9	95	29.9	291	23.8
Three years.....	12	17.4	31	18.9	79	23.4	85	25.8	91	28.6	299	24.5
Four years.....	47	68.1	107	65.3	183	54.3	150	45.1	126	39.6	613	50.2
Five years.....	3	4.4	2	1.2	1	.3			1	.3	7	.6
Total.....	69	100.0	164	100.0	337	100.0	333	100.0	318	100.0	1,221	100.0
Senior high schools:												
Less than one year.....									1	.3	1	.1
One year.....												
Two years.....			3	1.7	6	1.6	2	.5	1	.3	12	.9
Three years.....	2	2.8	1	.5	3	.8	5	1.3	2	.5	13	.9
Four years.....	73	85.9	162	91.1	356	93.7	365	95.6	366	98.1	1,322	94.6
Five years.....	10	11.8	11	6.2	15	3.9	9	2.4	3	.8	48	3.4
Six years.....			1	.5			1	.3			2	.1
Total.....	85	100.0	178	100.0	380	100.0	382	100.0	373	100.0	1,398	100.0

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers. Research Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 1, January 1932. Table 1, p. 8.

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Literature in the field.—There is a considerable amount of literature concerning the desirable minimum qualifications of teachers. This report attempts neither to present a summary of these studies or articles nor to set up suggested minimum academic and professional qualifications. It merely seeks to show the educational qualifications required by a large number of systems at the present time. The most recent publication giving these data is the research study of the National Education Association from which Table 6 is reproduced.

Differences among school levels.—Higher qualifications are required for senior high school teachers than for junior high school teachers, and higher qualifications are required for junior high school teachers than for elementary-school teachers. Approximately 6 per cent of the systems require four or more years of college training for appointment to elementary-school positions, approximately 51 per cent of the systems require four years or more for junior high school teachers, and 98 per cent of the systems require at least four years for senior high school positions.

Differences among cities of various sizes.—Some differences exist among cities of various sizes for the different school levels, but in all groups of cities more than 97 per cent of the elementary-school teachers are required to have at least two years of college training and from 3.5 per cent in cities of less than 5,000 population to 15 per cent in cities of more than 100,000 population are required to have four years of college preparation. Junior and senior high school teachers also are required to have more training for appointment to systems in large cities than in the smaller systems. In the largest cities almost 12 per cent of the senior high school teachers are required to have at least five years of college training.

Professional educational requirements.—In many States certification requirements for high-school teachers not only prescribe the number of hours of academic training but also specify the number of hours of professional preparation for the highest class of high-school teachers' certificate. Bach-

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man¹ reports that of the 45 States requiring a given number of hours of professional preparation for the highest academic high-school certificate, 33 require between 15 and 18 semester hours. The range is from 10 to 24 hours. These are State requirements and those of local communities can not be less, but no systems reporting to the survey indicated the existence of local requirements in this regard which exceeded those set forth by the State.

3. REQUIREMENTS CONCERNING EXPERIENCE

Recognition of experience.—The importance commonly attached to the factor of experience is made evident by even a cursory examination of the methods by which superintendents attempt to apprise themselves of the nature and extent of a candidate's educational experience.

More than 85 per cent of the application blanks request the location of the schools where candidates have taught, more than 80 per cent request the length of experience, and almost 80 per cent request the grade or subjects taught. Data are collected by superintendents from persons named as references in more than 84 per cent of the systems and formal reference blanks are used in almost 70 per cent. The items of information found on reference blanks relate chiefly to the length and quality of teaching experience. In almost all cases salary schedules make provisions for increments on the basis of number of years of service. Furthermore, a large number of school systems have regulations requiring one, two, or three years of experience prior to appointment in the system.

The value of experience.—Several considerations need to be kept in mind in adopting policies with respect to requirements of educational experience. Among these are: (1) Is one or two years of educational experience in smaller systems a distinct advantage to teachers who are employed by larger systems of any given locality? (2) Does the school have a social obligation for "breaking in" some inexperienced teachers each year? (3) Is there any relationship between

¹ Bachman, Frank P. Training and Certification of High-School Teachers. George Peabody College for Teachers, Division of Surveys and Field Studies, Field Studies No. 2, 1930. p. 12.

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the number of years of educational experience and success in teaching as determined by methods usually used by school systems in rating the success of their teaching personnel?

Systems requiring experienced teachers.—The National Education Association reports that approximately 59 per cent of the school systems require no experience prior to appointment to elementary-school positions, and about 47 per cent of the school systems require none for appointment to junior or senior high school positions. One year of experience is required in from 17 to 19 per cent of the systems for appointment to all levels, two years of experience are required in about 22 per cent of the systems for elementary-school positions, and in about 30 per cent of the systems for both junior and senior high school positions.²

Differences among population groups.—For appointment to elementary or junior high schools the size of city bears little relationship to the experience requirements. For appointment to the senior high schools a definite direct relationship exists between the size of city and the percentage of systems which have requirements concerning educational experience.³

Proportion of inexperienced teachers employed.—Data were sought by the survey to show the proportion of the teaching corps that may be made up of inexperienced teachers. These data are presented in Table 7. No rule regarding the proportion of inexperienced elementary, junior high school, or senior high school teachers employed annually is made in from 60 to 66 per cent of the systems for each of the three levels. Size of city makes practically no difference with respect to the appointment of inexperienced elementary or junior high school teachers, but for senior high schools as the size of city decreases the proportion of systems having no rule relative to the employment of inexperienced teachers increases. In general, rules are reported least frequently in the East.

Inexperienced teachers are not appointed in from 21 to 28 per cent of the systems for elementary, junior, and senior or 4-year high school positions. Direct relationships exist in

² National Education Association, Research Division, op. cit., p. 120.

³ Ibid., p. 12.

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all three school levels in regard to the size of city and the proportion of systems appointing no inexperienced applicants. Larger percentages of inexperienced elementary and junior high school teachers are appointed in the Southern and Western regions of the country.

TABLE 7.—Regulations concerning the proportion of inexperienced teachers who may be appointed each year

Rule concerning percentage of staff who may be inexperienced	Group					Region					All city systems combined	Independent secondary schools	County systems
	I	II	III	IV	V	E	M	W	S	W			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
Elementary school:													
No rule.....	67.7	68.4	63.3	67.8	65.3	78.3	64.2	60.6	48.2	66.2	(1)	86.2	
Rule indefinite.....	2.4	3.5	5.1	10.9	3.2	4.6	6.1	15.0	5.5	5.5	4.6	4.6	
None appointed.....	25.9	24.4	26.3	21.2	13.1	17.3	20.7	28.8	26.7	21.4	1.5	1.5	
1-9 per cent.....	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.7	...	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.5	
10-19 per cent.....	1.2	3.1	3.0	6.7	2.6	3.1	3.1	
20-29 per cent.....	6.4	3.1	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.3	
30-39 per cent.....	1.3	
40-49 per cent.....	1.3	
Number of reports.....	31	82	117	137	138	156	223	66	60	505	...	130	
Junior high school:													
No rule.....	60.7	60.7	59.8	59.4	60.6	71.1	58.1	48.4	49.0	60.1	(1)	85.2	
Rule indefinite.....	3.3	3.7	9.9	11.3	4.8	5.2	9.7	13.3	6.6	6.6	3.7	3.7	
None appointed.....	35.7	32.8	32.9	25.2	16.9	23.1	28.7	35.5	28.9	27.6	3.7	3.7	
1-9 per cent.....	1.6	1.2	1.1	...	1.0	...	1.8	3.7	3.7	
10-19 per cent.....	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.4	7	3.2	4.4	1.2	
20-29 per cent.....	3.6	1.1	4.2	...	2.7	...	2.2	1.5	3.7	3.7	
30-39 per cent.....	2.8	...	7	...	2.2	
40-49 per cent.....	1.2	2.2	2.8	...	2.6	3.2	...	1.5	
Number of reports.....	28	61	82	91	71	104	153	31	45	333	...	54	
Senior high school:													
No rule.....	43.8	56.9	62.5	70.5	68.1	68.8	64.5	59.4	53.5	64.1	71.9	86.2	
Rule indefinite.....	2.5	4.5	5.4	8.6	3.2	4.9	6.3	12.5	5.4	5.4	4.2	4.2	
None appointed.....	53.1	38.0	32.1	18.6	12.5	26.6	22.8	32.7	25.0	25.7	10.6	2.6	
1-9 per cent.....	1.3	5	1.7	1.7	
10-19 per cent.....	1.3	2.5	1.6	5.4	1.8	1.8	1.8	
20-29 per cent.....	3.1	1.6	5.4	...	3.8	...	1.8	2.0	5.6	1.7	
30-39 per cent.....	2.3	...	1.0	...	1.8	...	1.4	...	
40-49 per cent.....	
Number of reports.....	32	79	112	129	128	154	208	64	56	480	142	117	

¹ Independent secondary schools do not maintain elementary or junior high school grades.

The percentage of superintendents who reported that they employ some new inexperienced teachers each year varies somewhat according to school level, the size of city, and the

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geographical region. From 5 to 7 per cent of the city systems have rules permitting the employment of a specified number of inexperienced teachers for all levels. Regulations which permit the employment of very few inexperienced teachers are found most frequently in the larger cities and in the Eastern States. Independent secondary schools and county systems have rules concerning the employment of inexperienced teachers less frequently than do city systems. Nearly all county systems will employ inexperienced applicants.

Implications.—The small city schools, the independent secondary schools, and the county systems are to a considerable extent the places where teachers receive their first educational experience. Obviously, all teachers must begin as inexperienced teachers. It is well known that the early experience of teachers may frequently be at one school level whereas their training and their interests lie at another. It is highly unfortunate that the larger cities with fairly adequate supervisory staffs which could guide and direct inexperienced teachers, compel the young teachers to gain their experience in the small systems where they usually receive little or no good supervision. Of course, so long as city systems are able to pay more for the services of teachers than are the smaller schools, just so long will they be able to attract and hold the most competent experienced teachers. But it may also be true that inexperienced teachers with a high type of training might under adequate supervision during their first years of teaching develop into much better teachers than if forced to struggle along almost unguided. The right type of experience is a valuable asset to any new teacher, but the small systems are at present seldom able to provide very adequate supervision. Since teachers must begin teaching somewhere, since experience may be valuable, and since experience earned in smaller cities may be of little or no value in larger systems, one wonders if nearly all systems should not assume a portion of the responsibility for starting correctly a few inexperienced teachers each year.

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4. MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM AGE REQUIREMENTS

Systems having age requirements.—Some systems have set up minimum and maximum age requirements in an attempt to eliminate candidates whom they consider either too young or too old. The percentages of systems having age requirements for service at the various school levels differ but slightly in cities of different size and in different regions. (See Table 8.) Approximately 10 per cent of the systems have rules as to the minimum and maximum ages at which applicants may be appointed to school systems. Cities of more than 10,000 population more frequently have requirements relative to the maximum age than to the minimum age, but cities of less than 10,000 population are more likely to have minimum age requirements. This is true for all school levels. County systems are much more likely to have minimum age requirements than maximum age requirements.

Minimum and maximum ages required.—The age requirements adopted by the various systems differ relatively little in the various groups, regions, or types of schools. Table 9 presents these data in detail. The minimum age requirements are 19.6 years for city elementary-school teachers, 20.2 years for junior high school teachers, and 21.5 years for senior or 4-year high school teachers. The slightly lower age requirements set for elementary-school teachers may in part be due to the fact that elementary-school teachers frequently are required to have only two years of college training whereas high-school teachers in nearly all cases are required to have four. The maximum age requirements range from 37.8 for senior or 4-year high schools to 40.5 for the elementary and junior high school positions. Thus elementary and junior high school applicants may be older than senior high school candidates. Since the junior high school movement is comparatively new and since junior high school teachers have been recruited largely from the elementary-school teachers, it is not surprising that they are of approximately the same age as elementary teachers.

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TABLE 8.—Percentages of systems in which minimum or maximum age requirements have been adopted

Group and region	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior or 4-year high school	
	Minimum age	Maximum age	Minimum age	Maximum age	Minimum age	Maximum age
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group:						
I.....	19.5	45.2	20.0	46.4	17.9	43.7
II.....	14.5	19.0	9.8	21.0	11.5	19.7
III.....	4.4	9.6	5.1	12.3	3.7	8.2
IV.....	8.8	2.3	10.0	2.3	8.5	2.3
V.....	11.9	3.8	11.8	3.1	12.9	4.1
Region:						
East.....	5.8	7.7	5.8	10.7	5.9	7.9
Middle West.....	7.9	8.3	6.8	8.8	6.6	8.0
South.....	28.8	3.3	36.7	3.7	28.1	3.3
West.....	8.6	28.3	11.6	33.3	9.1	29.3
All city systems combined.....	10.1	9.9	9.9	12.4	9.6	10.0
Independent secondary schools.....					8.3	6.3
County systems.....	34.8	5.0	35.1	5.7	28.7	5.6

TABLE 9.—Average minimum and maximum age requirements for school systems

Group and region	Elementary school		Junior high school		Senior or 4-year high school	
	Minimum age	Maximum age	Minimum age	Maximum age	Minimum age	Maximum age
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group:						
I.....	18.0	40.2	18.6	39.5	18.6	40.3
II.....	19.3	41.6	19.9	42.5	20.1	41.6
III.....	21.0	38.9	20.7	45.6	21.5	45.9
IV.....	19.2	41.7	20.3	42.5	20.3	41.7
V.....	20.1	36.0	20.6	32.5	21.2	36.0
Region:						
East.....	18.7	41.8	19.2	41.0	19.7	41.9
Middle West.....	20.1	39.0	20.7	39.6	20.4	34.2
South.....	19.6	35.0	20.5	35.0	23.3	35.0
West.....	19.2	41.2	19.6	41.3	19.8	40.5
All city systems combined.....	19.6	40.5	20.2	40.5	21.5	37.8
Independent secondary schools.....					21.6	41.8
County systems.....	18.2	41.0	18.5	38.3	19.2	43.0

5. THE EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN

During the last few years the agitation against employing married women has become more insistent. Comparisons of the data published by the National Education Association in 1928 and 1932 indicate that cities are more and more

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frequently formulating regulations prohibiting the employment of married women.

It is not the purpose of this report to discuss the merits of such rules and regulations other than to point out that some studies show that married women are just as competent as are unmarried women when judged by principals' ratings of efficiency, but are absent somewhat more than single women.⁴ Attempts are made, however, to show the policies and practices in vogue in cities of different sizes, in various geographical regions of the country, in various types of schools, and at various school levels. For a complete analysis of these data the reader is referred to Table 10.

Rules differ somewhat in accordance with the economic status of the married woman. If she is married but has no dependents, different regulations may exist than if she is married but must either wholly or in part support herself and her dependents. Likewise, policies differ among cities with respect to the employment of widows and women separated or divorced from their husbands.

TABLE 10.—Percentages of systems not employing married women in various types of positions

Marital status of women	Group					Region				All combined	Independent secondary schools	County systems
	I	II	III	IV	V	E	MW	S	W			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Married women with no dependents:												
Elementary school.....	63.3	75.9	76.2	63.9	50.7	66.5	76.3	32.9	72.9	67.3	18.8
Junior high school.....	59.3	73.0	79.1	63.1	63.3	62.3	77.6	33.3	74.1	68.4	17.6
Senior high school.....	64.5	76.2	75.0	64.9	63.0	68.1	77.9	34.8	73.4	68.6	55.4	23.1
Married women with dependents:												
Elementary school.....	56.7	66.7	71.1	64.5	61.7	62.7	73.9	39.1	66.2	65.1	21.4
Junior high school.....	48.1	66.1	75.6	64.0	61.6	61.3	74.2	31.3	67.3	65.4	19.2
Senior high school.....	58.1	68.3	70.4	66.2	64.7	64.4	75.7	39.7	69.4	66.6	60.1	25.4
Widows:												
Elementary school.....		5.7	7.4	7.8	16.4	7.4	13.9	4.3	2.9	9.3	3.2
Junior high school.....	3.7	3.2	3.5	8.7	17.2	6.5	11.1	3.0	3.9	7.9	4.3
Senior high school.....		4.7	7.0	8.3	21.6	9.4	14.1	5.8	4.8	10.4	32.6	5.1
Women divorced or separated from husband:												
Elementary school.....	6.7	21.2	29.1	29.9	52.4	30.7	36.3	41.4	19.4	33.2	19.9	30.3
Junior high school.....		13.1	25.3	29.0	46.8	22.9	29.6	39.4	19.6	27.0	18.2
Senior high school.....	6.4	20.5	27.9	30.9	56.0	31.6	37.0	39.1	21.3	33.7	59.9	22.3

⁴ Lewis, E. E. Personal Problems of the Teaching Staff, New York Century Co., 1925. p. 179. Crothers, George E. The Physical Efficiency of Teachers, Contributions to Education No. 155, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1924. p. 35.

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The following statements summarize the situation with respect to the employment of married women:

- (1) Differences among school levels in city systems—
 - (a) In city school systems small differences exist among the school levels with respect to the employment of married women with or without dependents, but some more consideration is given to women with dependents.
 - (b) School systems are most likely to employ married women with or without dependents in the elementary schools and are least likely to employ them in the senior or 4-year high schools.
 - (c) Widows are employed slightly more often in the elementary and junior high schools than in senior high schools, and women who are divorced or separated from their husbands are somewhat more likely to be employed in junior high school than in elementary or senior high school positions.
- (2) Differences among the population groups—
 - (a) Married women either with or without dependents are less frequently appointed in cities of 10,000 to 100,000 than in either the larger or the smaller places.
 - (b) As the size of the city increases the percentage employing widows or divorced women decreases.
- (3) Differences among regions—
 - (a) Married women either with or without dependents may be employed at all school levels somewhat less frequently in the Middle West than in the South.
 - (b) Widows may be employed more frequently in the Middle West than in the South and West, but divorced women may be employed less frequently in the South than in the West.
- (4) Differences among various types of schools—
 - (a) Independent secondary schools are somewhat more likely to employ married women than are the senior high schools of city systems.
 - (b) County systems employ married women with or without dependents, women who are divorced, and women who are separated from their husbands considerably more frequently at all school levels than do city systems.

From the foregoing statements it is evident that boards of education make some distinction between married women with and without dependents. Widows may be employed in nearly all large cities but not so frequently in smaller communities. The same is true with respect to the employment of divorced women. Some differences exist in the policies of individual schools with respect to the employment of married women for positions at one school level as com-

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pared with another. Of the 15 city school systems of less than 10,000 population which reported different practices for elementary-school positions than for secondary-school positions, 6 reported that married women with no dependents were employed in the elementary schools but not in the secondary, whereas only 2 reported that they were employed in secondary schools but not in the elementary. Much the same conclusion is to be drawn concerning the employment of married women with dependents and of widowed or divorced women. These persons are employed more frequently in the elementary schools than in the secondary schools when any difference exists in the policies for the two levels.

6. RETENTION OF WOMEN WHO MARRY WHILE IN SERVICE

The general situation.—Women who marry while teaching in secondary schools are required to resign immediately in about 28 per cent of the systems. (See Table 11.) Although data are presented only for the senior high schools it was found that little difference exists in the policies for teachers of the various school levels except in the Southern States where junior high school teachers are required to resign in a considerably greater proportion of the systems than are elementary-school teachers. Women who marry while in service are dropped at the end of the year in about a third of the systems, and are retained indefinitely if satisfactory in about a third of the systems.

TABLE 11.—Percentages of systems with various provisions for the retention of women teachers who marry while in service

Group and region	Senior high school teachers			
	Dropped at once	Dropped at end of year	Retained if satisfactory	Varies with circumstances
1	2	3	4	5
Group:				
I.....	28.7	9.7	45.2	6.4
II.....	32.6	34.9	37.9	4.6
III.....	33.1	29.7	33.1	4.1
IV.....	26.0	32.9	37.7	3.4
V.....	31.0	40.6	32.9	5.5
Region:				
East.....	26.1	30.4	37.9	5.6
Middle West.....	30.5	42.0	24.3	3.2
South.....	26.0	15.1	57.5	1.4
West.....	27.0	39.2	33.3	9.5
All city systems combined.....	28.1	33.3	34.2	4.4
Independent secondary schools.....	11.6	28.1	52.1	8.2
County systems.....	12.0	13.4	72.5	2.1

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Differences among groups and regions.—Large school systems are more likely to require resignation at once from women teachers who marry; small systems are more likely to permit them to complete the year. The larger systems also retain such teachers as long as satisfactory more frequently than do the smaller systems. Women in Middle Western schools who marry are somewhat more likely to be dropped at once and considerably more likely to be dropped at the end of the year than are those of other regions. Those of the Southern States are much more likely to continue in their positions as long as they render efficient service.

Differences among types of schools.—The independent secondary schools do not so frequently as city school systems require women teachers who marry to resign either at once or at the end of the year. County systems retain the services of married women in almost 73 per cent of the systems.

Teachers' contracts frequently contain provisions stating that the contract becomes void if a woman teacher marries during the term of the contract. However, it is doubtful if marriage in many States constitutes a valid cause for the dismissal of women teachers.⁵

Illustrations.—As mentioned in Chapter I, a number of schools and school systems were visited for the purpose of obtaining first-hand information and of observing certain types of practices. Rochester, N. Y., which prohibits the selection of married women if any equally well-qualified unmarried women may be found, illustrates the nonemployment of married women. For substitute work the eligible list is divided into three groups: Group I consists of unmarried women from the Rochester teacher-training school; Group II is composed of unmarried women from the outside; and Group III is composed of married women. Persons from Group I are called first, Group II second, and Group III last.

⁵ Allen, Ira M. *The Teachers Contractual Status*. Contributions to Education No. 304, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1928. p. 73-74.

Brubaker, John S. *The Judicial Status of Marriage and Maternity as an Obstacle to the Education of Women for Professional Careers in Public-School Teaching*. *School and Society*, 26: 428-435, October 1, 1927.

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In Fort Wayne, Ind., women not on tenure who marry are dropped at once. Those on tenure may not be dismissed because of marriage alone but the board has adopted the policy of lowering the salary of these persons to the State minimum salary. This reduction forces the resignation of many married women.

7. THE APPOINTMENT OF LOCAL AND NONLOCAL CANDIDATES

The general situation.—Many systems prefer to give teaching positions to local applicants provided other factors are approximately equal. Many other systems have adopted regulations prohibiting local applicants from being appointed either at all or until they have secured experience elsewhere. The National Education Association⁶ has reported from a recent inquiry that 57.7 per cent of the cities have policies giving preference to local candidates and that 42.3 per cent give preference to nonlocal applicants.

Provisions made in school systems.—Some systems have rules giving preference to local candidates, but others have rules giving preference to nonlocal applicants. Among systems having no definite regulations some prefer local, others nonlocal candidates. As shown in Table 12, a great many systems have no rule or stated preference for either local or nonlocal candidates. They attempt to secure the best teachers regardless of residence and many believe that there are few cases of equally desirable candidates, because if the two applicants are judged accurately one is usually superior to the other. Many of these superintendents attempt to make their decisions on merit rather than by giving preference to candidates on the basis of their being from within or without the locality. Local applicants are favored in 19.2 per cent of the systems and nonlocal candidates are given preference in about 16.2 per cent of the city systems. Independent secondary schools have definitive rules in a smaller percentage of the systems than do city systems, and county systems more frequently give preference to local applicants than do either the independent secondary schools or the city systems.

⁶ National Education Association, Research Division, *op. cit.*, p. 22

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TABLE 12.—Percentages of systems with various practices relative to the appointment of local and nonlocal applicants

Regulation concerning the employment of local and nonlocal applicants	Group					Region					All city systems combined	Independent secondary schools	County systems
	I	II	III	IV	V	E	M	W	S	W			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
Preference given to local candidates.....	27.6	38.6	19.8	12.2	14.0	24.6	19.0	14.9	15.5	49.6	6.8	31.7	
Preference given to nonlocal candidates.....	3.4	3.3	13.5	21.6	22.0	15.6	19.3	12.2	11.3	16.2	15.5	10.2	
No rule or stated preference.....	69.0	54.9	65.9	64.4	61.8	59.3	58.9	72.9	73.2	62.7	75.9	54.9	
Other provisions.....		2.2	.8	1.8	1.2	.5	2.8			1.5	1.8	1.2	

Differences among groups and regions.—From 55 to 69 per cent of the city school systems of the different groups reported no definite policy with respect to the employment of local residents. Cities of from 30,000 to 100,000 population and of the East and Middle West tend to have rules more frequently than cities of any other group or region. In nearly all groups and in two of the regions some systems are reported in which different policies prevail with respect to the employment of local applicants for positions in the elementary and the senior high schools.

Illustrations of provisions.—Nine of the systems reported under "other provisions" in Table 12 have policies which differ for the elementary and secondary-school levels. In eight of these cases local teachers are employed altogether or are given a preference for teaching in the elementary grades. One system reported that all teachers in the first four grades may be local residents, that 25 per cent of the teachers in the last four elementary grades may be local, and that 50 per cent of the teachers in high school may be local.

Cities with city teacher-training schools favor the employment of persons graduated from the local school particularly for elementary-school positions. Frequently these persons are given preference over somewhat superior outside teachers because of the fact that their training in the city teacher-training school has presumably given them an insight into the local conditions. An illustration of this situation is found in

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Jersey City in which nearly all elementary-school teachers are graduates of the State normal school. In addition, practically all the junior high school teachers are promoted from the ranks of the elementary-school teachers. When it is remembered that the student body of a normal school in a city of good size is composed largely of local students, it may be seen that nearly all elementary and junior high school teachers in Jersey City would be local residents.

8. APPOINTMENT OF RELATIVES OF MEMBERS OF THE SCHOOL BOARD

State laws and regulations.—Both Anderson ⁷ and Dean ⁸ list 20 States in which laws govern the appointment of relatives of board members. In many of these States school boards are not permitted to appoint relatives of any members except by a unanimous or three-fourths vote.

Local rules.—In addition to the State regulations governing the selection of teachers in certain States, many city boards of education have also adopted policies concerning the employment of relatives of school board members. Data not presented in tabular form, indicate that local rules restricting the appointment of relatives of board members have been adopted in approximately 7 per cent of the school systems. Smaller cities have formulated them more frequently than have the larger systems. Schools in the South have adopted them in about 22 per cent of the cases as contrasted with from 5 to 7 per cent in all other regions.

In some systems no member of the immediate family may be appointed; in others relatives of any school board member must be chosen by a unanimous vote; and in others relatives of board members are used only as substitute teachers. In one Southern city elementary-school teachers are nominated by the board members from the ward or district in which the school is located. In this city board members may not nominate their own relatives, but may nominate the relatives of other board members.

⁷ Anderson, Earl W. *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*. Teachers College, Columbia University. *Contributions to Education*, No. 248, 1927. pp. 164-165.

⁸ Dean, Renwick G. *A Study of Teachers' Contracts*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1929. p. 24.

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9. OTHER LOCAL REGULATIONS CONCERNING THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS

Local conditions in the smaller communities frequently lead school boards to adopt certain rules regulative of the appointment of new teachers. Some boards have a regulation to the effect that only one person of the same household or immediate family may teach in the same system or in the same school. In one system the board tries to avoid "employing teachers who have relatives in the town," another will employ no "minister of the gospel actively at work," and another stipulates nonsmokers. Such rules as these illustrate the unusual factors which sometimes assume major importance in selecting teachers in some of our smaller communities.

10. SUMMARY

Superintendents and school boards should formulate definitive policies with respect to the type of teachers which they wish to employ for service in their system. These policies should be formulated during a period when the problem of selecting teachers is not immediately pressing. This usually permits more careful and less prejudiced consideration of the problem.

Among the policies usually receiving attention are:

- (1) The minimum educational qualifications of new teachers.
- (2) The amount of experience desired of new teachers.
- (3) Minimum and maximum ages.
- (4) Regulations concerning the employment and retention of married women.
- (5) Regulations concerning the appointment of local and nonlocal candidates.
- (6) Regulations concerning the appointment of relatives of the board.
- (7) Other regulations which may seem to those who enact them important in a given community.

CHAPTER IV : LOCATING PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

1. AGENCIES THROUGH WHICH NEW TEACHERS ARE LOCATED

After the board of education has determined the qualifications of teachers which it desires to employ, the next logical step is the location of possible candidates with whom to fill the vacancies occurring. If a vacancy exists the superintendent will be desirous of locating the best available teachers. If teachers need positions they are desirous of securing the best possible ones. The problem of locating desirable teachers and the problem of locating desirable positions are merely different aspects of the more inclusive problem of placing teachers in positions for which they are best fitted.

ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Differences among population groups.—The data set forth in Table 13 show in detail the percentages of new elementary-school teachers located through the different agencies for the systems reporting. New elementary-school teachers employed for the year 1929-30 were located by superintendents chiefly through the teachers' efforts. The percentages of new elementary teachers located through the placement bureaus of higher institutions increase as the population of the groups decrease. That is, placement bureaus of higher institutions are utilized least frequently in large cities and most frequently in villages and small cities. Also the percentage of first contacts made through private teachers' agencies increases inversely as the size of the cities. The same is true also with respect to the utilization of State appointment bureaus.

Since the large cities do not utilize the placement bureaus of higher institutions, of private agencies, or of State departments of education so frequently as do smaller localities, what sources do they utilize? In the cities of Group I the first contacts were made with teachers through individual teachers' applications for almost half the new elementary teachers employed in the systems reporting for 1929-30.

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Teachers were located through the city teacher-training schools in about a third of the cases. In cities of Group II the proportion of teachers located through teachers' applications was almost three-fourths of the total number of new elementary teachers employed for the year 1929-30.

TABLE 13.—Percentages of new elementary-school teachers employed for the year 1929-30 located by various methods in the systems reporting

Method used in locating teachers	Group					All city systems combined (3,405)	County systems (1,363)
	I (590)	II (1,053)	III (842)	IV (574)	V (346)		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Placement bureaus of higher institutions.....	5.4	10.0	12.0	22.1	23.4	13.1	13.6
Applications by individual teachers.....	49.3	72.6	62.0	50.3	51.2	60.0	64.2
Private teachers' agencies.....	2.2	5.0	11.5	16.2	15.0	9.0	2.5
Visits to other schools or systems.....	1.0	1.5	5.6	2.3	2.6	2.7	1.4
State appointment bureaus.....		.2	.5	1.4	3.2	.7	.3
State teachers' association bureaus.....	.3	.8	.2	.9	.9	.6	.4
Visits to higher institutions to interview department heads.....	1.2	2.9	3.9	1.6	1.7	2.5	5.8
Visits to higher institutions to observe practice teachers.....		1.7	1.4	2.3	.6	1.3	.1
Lists from higher institutions of candidates available.....		1.1		.5	1.1	.6	3.0
City teacher-training schools.....	33.4	2.6				7.4	
Other agencies.....	7.1	.6	2.8	2.4	.3	2.0	8.9

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of new teachers employed in the elementary schools of each group.

Differences among regions.—Since only small differences exist among the various geographical regions with respect to the proportion of teachers located through the higher institutions these data were not presented in Table 13. However, in the South, superintendents rely more largely upon the applications of individual teachers than in any other region, but utilize private teachers' agencies, visit higher institutions, and visit other schools and school systems less frequently than do superintendents of other regions. In other words, superintendents of schools in Southern States rely, either from choice or from necessity, more largely upon the individual efforts of teachers than do the superintendents of other parts of the country.

County school systems.—County superintendents located new elementary teachers for 1929-30 through teachers' applications in about two-thirds of the cases, through placement bureaus of higher institutions and through visits to

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higher institutions in approximately 14 and 6 per cent of the cases, respectively.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Differences among population groups.—New junior high school teachers employed for the year 1929-30 were located chiefly through applications of individual teachers. (See Table 14.) Placement bureaus of higher institutions are utilized for locating less than 2 per cent of the new junior high school teachers in cities of Group I as compared with nearly 34 per cent who were first located in this manner in the smaller communities. In general, the larger cities rely upon the individual applications of teachers for locating a much larger proportion of the new junior high school teachers than do the smaller cities. Private teachers' agencies are utilized somewhat more frequently in small than in large cities for locating junior high school teachers.

Differences among regions.—Placement bureaus of higher institutions were reported as having been used least frequently in the East, and most frequently in the Western States; private teachers' agencies are utilized most frequently in the East and West, and superintendents of Southern cities, more than in any other region, rely upon the individual efforts of teachers.

TABLE 14.—Percentages of new junior high school teachers employed for the year 1929-30 located by various agencies in the systems reporting

Method used in locating teachers	Group					All city systems combined (949)	County systems (81)
	I (124)	II (346)	III (244)	IV (170)	V (65)		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Placement bureaus of higher institutions.....	1.6	16.5	14.3	24.7	23.8	16.6	27.2
Applications by individual teachers.....	86.3	61.6	66.4	47.6	41.5	62.2	64.2
Private teachers' agencies.....	5.6	13.3	14.3	18.2	13.8	13.5	4.9
Visits to other schools or systems.....	.8	2.9	.8	1.8	6.2	2.1
State appointment bureaus.....	1.23
State teachers' association bureaus.....	2.0	.8	1.8	1.3	1.2
Visits to higher institutions to interview department heads.....	5.6	1.7	5.9	1.5	2.5
Visits to higher institutions to observe practice teachers.....31
Lists from higher institutions of candidates available.....93	2.5
City teacher-training schools.....95
Other agencies.....	2.1	3.1	.5

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of new teachers employed in the junior high schools of each group.

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SENIOR OR 4-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Differences among population groups.—Definite relationships exist between the size of city and the sources for locating new senior or 4-year high school teachers. These data are presented in Table 15. As the size of city decreases the percentage of new senior high school teachers located through placement bureaus of higher institutions tends to increase. In contrast to this inverse relationship between the size of city and the percentage of new teachers located through placement bureaus of higher institutions is the number of new teachers who were first located through their own applications.

Differences among regions.—Placement bureaus in higher institutions are utilized most frequently in the West, and least frequently in the systems of the East. Teachers' applications are the source for locating a greater proportion of new high-school teachers in the Southern States than in any other region. Private teachers' agencies are utilized more frequently in the smaller cities and in the Eastern States than in large cities and in the South and West. Visits to other schools and school systems or to higher institutions are used most by the superintendents of the smaller cities and in the systems of the East.

TABLE 15.—Percentages of new senior or 4-year high school teachers employed for the year 1929-30 located by various agencies in the systems reporting

Method used in locating teachers	Group					All city systems combined (1,725)	Independent secondary schools (425)	County systems (468)
	I (254)	II (394)	III (386)	IV (360)	V (331)			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Placement bureaus of higher institutions.....	5.1	19.0	15.3	30.3	32.3	21.0	29.6	19.7
Applications by individual teachers.....	83.5	63.8	45.1	35.3	30.8	47.9	30.8	48.5
Private teachers' agencies.....	8.7	15.7	27.5	23.1	26.3	20.9	25.9	7.5
Visits to other schools or systems.....	1.6	5.4	6.7	2.8	2.1	3.8	1.4	5.1
State appointment bureaus.....		.5	1.6	2.6	.6	1.1	.5	1.1
State teachers' association bureaus.....		.6		1.3	1.8	.8	7.1	4.4
Visits to higher institutions to interview department heads.....	1.2	1.3	2.3	3.6	1.8	2.1	2.1	3.4
Visits to higher institutions to observe practice teachers.....		.2	.8	.3	.6	.4		
Lists from higher institutions of candidates available.....		3.0		.3	2.4	1.3	.9	7.9
City teacher-training schools.....								
Other agencies.....		.8	.8	.5	1.5	.8	1.6	.4

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of new teachers employed in the senior high schools of each group.

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Independent secondary schools.—The reports of principals of independent secondary schools show that they locate approximately 30 per cent of their teachers through placement bureaus of higher institutions and about 31 per cent through individual applications. It is to be noted that a greater proportion of the teachers for independent secondary schools than for city systems are located through bureaus of higher institutions and a smaller proportion through individual applications.

These data (see Table 15) make clear the following facts: (1) that principals of independent secondary schools do not rely so completely upon teachers' applications for available candidates as do the superintendents of either city or county systems; and (2) that they utilize placement bureaus of higher institutions, private agencies, and State teachers' associations more frequently. These differences may be either of choice or of necessity on the part of the school officers employing the teaching personnel. It may be that the principals of independent secondary schools desire to use these agencies in preference to teachers' applications, or it may be that they are forced to resort to them because of the fact that relatively few well-prepared teachers make applications for positions in these schools. The latter is undoubtedly an important factor in the small towns and in many of the small independent secondary schools.

TEACHERS OF ALL LEVELS COMBINED

Data are presented in Table 16 for all school levels combined concerning the agencies through which the new teachers employed for the year 1929-30 were first located. Systems in cities of less than 10,000 population and the independent secondary schools use the placement bureaus of higher institutions more frequently than do the larger places. Cities of more than 10,000 population rely more extensively on applications from individual teachers than do the smaller cities. The private agencies seem to aid more frequently in towns of less than 10,000 population. In the cities of more than 100,000 population the city teacher-training school furnishes about 20 per cent of the new appointees. Altogether, the placement bureaus of higher institutions, private teach-

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TABLE 16.—Percentages of all new teachers employed for the year 1929-30 located by various agencies in the systems reporting

Method used in locating teachers	Group							Region			All city systems combined (6,079)	Independent secondary schools (422)	County systems (1,912)
	I	II	III	IV	V	E	M W	S	W				
	(908)	(1,793)	(1,472)	(1,104)	(742)	(1,705)	(2,765)	(546)	(1,060)				
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	13	
Placement bureaus of higher institutions.....	4.9	13.2	13.2	20.2	26.3	11.4	17.3	16.5	19.3	15.9	29.6	15.7	
Applications by individual teachers.....	63.0	64.3	53.3	45.0	41.7	53.3	54.8	72.7	60.2	64.9	30.8	60.4	
Private teachers' agencies.....	4.3	9.0	16.2	18.8	10.9	16.7	11.8	6.4	14.1	13.1	25.9	3.3	
Visits to other schools or systems.....	1.1	2.6	6.1	2.3	2.7	6.1	2.6	1.3	1.0	2.9	1.4	2.3	
State appointment bureaus.....	.2	.2	.9	1.5	1.8	1.1	1.0	.2	.2	.8	.5	.5	
State teachers' association bureaus.....	.2	1.0	.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	.2	.2	3.9	.8	7.1	.4	
Visits to higher institutions to interview department heads.....	1.8	2.5	2.9	2.9	1.8	3.5	2.7	.7	.8	2.4	2.1	6.3	
Visits to higher institutions to observe practice teachers.....	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3	.5	1.4	1.0	.2	.2	.9		.1	
Letters from higher institutions of candidates available.....	1.5	1.5		.4	1.5	.9	.9	.2		.7	.9	4.2	
City teacher-training schools.....	20.4	2.3	2.2	1.5	1.1	3.4	7.3	2.0		4.2	1.6	6.4	
Other agencies.....	4.3	.5					.4		.7	1.4			

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of new teachers employed at all levels of each group and region.



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ers' agencies, applications from individual teachers, and the city teacher-training schools served in 1929-30 as means of locating from 80 to 92 per cent of all new appointees in the different groups.

It should also be pointed out that placement bureaus of higher institutions are used more frequently in the West than in the East; that applications from teachers are used more frequently in the South than in the East; that private agencies are used more frequently in the East than in the South; and that visits made to other schools or to higher institutions locate greater proportions of the new teachers in the East than in the West.

Noteworthy differences exist among the various school levels in the percentages of new teachers located through the various agencies. These may be noted in Tables 13, 14, and 15 and may be summarized as follows:

(1) Placement bureaus of higher institutions are utilized somewhat more frequently for locating teachers of junior high schools than of elementary schools and somewhat more often for locating senior high school teachers than junior high school teachers.

(2) Applications of individual teachers are used most frequently for junior high school teachers and least often for senior high school teachers.

(3) Private teachers' agencies are used least often for locating elementary teachers and most frequently for locating senior high school teachers.

(4) Visits to other schools or systems are made most frequently in locating senior high school teachers.

(5) City teacher-training schools were reported as supplying only elementary-school teachers.

(6) In locating teachers for elementary schools a wider variety of methods are used than in locating teachers for either the junior high schools or the senior high schools.

1. PREFERENCES OF SUPERINTENDENTS FOR THE USE OF VARIOUS AGENCIES

The preference given by superintendents of some systems to the use of one particular source over all others is frequently due to local conditions or to the contacts and acquaintances

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made by the superintendents. Many prefer to use bureaus in higher institutions because they may have attended the institution from which they receive their teachers or because they have come to have confidence in the candidates recommended by persons in some particular higher institution.

A study of the efficiency of teacher-placement agencies reported by Willett¹ shows that of 853 superintendents of the North Central area reporting, 547 indicated that they first notified bureaus of higher institutions and 248 indicated that they first notified private teachers' agencies. Various types of favorable and unfavorable comments have been made with respect to both types of bureaus. The testimonials of private agencies were reported unfavorably by 229 superintendents as compared with 122 superintendents who object to those used by institutional bureaus. The wide range and availability of candidates of private agencies received favorable comment from many superintendents. Promptness in handling requests by private agencies was commented on favorably by 142 superintendents and principals. On the other hand, private agencies were reported unfavorably by many superintendents on the grounds that they "place the commission before service," they "do not list poor qualities of the applicants," there "are too many applicants for the position," and "because the best teachers do not enroll" with private agencies.

Many superintendents and principals utilize several sources for locating teachers. For example, a superintendent of a large high school in the Middle West made 10 new appointments for the year 1929-30. Of this number, 1 was located through a bureau of a higher institution, 7 through private teachers' agencies, and 2 from applications of teachers. The superintendent feels that the types of teachers located by him through any one of the various agencies are not greatly different from those located through any other agency. He feels that private agencies have a broader range of activities, that the colleges of the State have little to offer him in the way of "acceptable material," and that teachers frequently

¹ Willett, G. W. The Efficiency of Teacher-Placement Bureaus. North Central Association Quarterly, Vol. III, No. 2, September 1928. pp. 187-190.

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enroll with a private teachers' agency as well as with the bureau of the institution from which they were graduated.

Many of the larger cities, such as Boston, Rochester, and Jersey City, use the individual teachers' applications and judge the applicants by an examination system. The superintendent in a small Ohio system reported that he preferred the "college bureaus" because he knew "most of the directors and had confidence in their statements concerning the candidates." Other illustrations of preferences of superintendents and principals might be mentioned but space does not permit their inclusion.

5. SUMMARY

The foregoing discussion has brought out the following facts:

(1) Nearly 57 per cent of all new teachers employed in the systems reporting for the year 1929-30 were located through the teachers' own individual applications. Approximately 16 per cent were located through placement bureaus of higher institutions and about 13 per cent were located through private teachers' agencies.

(2) Greater proportions of new teachers are located in larger cities than in the smaller cities through teachers' applications, but smaller cities utilize the placement bureaus of private agencies and of higher institutions more frequently than the larger systems.

(3) Larger proportions of junior high school teachers than of teachers on any other level are first located through the placement bureaus of higher institutions and through the teachers' individual applications; greater percentages of senior high school teachers than of teachers on any other level are located through private teachers' agencies and visits to other schools and school systems. Teachers in the elementary schools are located through a wider variety of methods than are the teachers of the secondary levels.

(4) Teachers for independent secondary schools are located somewhat more frequently through placement bureaus of higher institutions and private agencies than are city school teachers.

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(5) The county teachers are located more frequently than those of other types of schools through individual applications and less frequently through private agencies.

(6) The rank of the various sources for obtaining teachers of all levels combined were reported as follows: (1) applications from individual teachers, (2) placement bureaus of educational institutions, (3) private teachers' agencies, (4) city teacher-training schools, (5) visits to other schools or systems, (6) visits to higher institutions, (7) visits to observe practice teachers, (8) State appointment bureaus, (9) State teachers' association bureaus, and (10) lists of candidates from higher institutions.

CHAPTER V: METHODS OF COLLECTING INFORMATION ABOUT PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

1. THE PROBLEM AND THE SCOPE OF THE CHAPTER

After superintendents and boards of education have located prospective teachers, the next step should be the collection of as much reliable information about these persons as is necessary to insure wise selections. Although the sources from which it is possible to collect information concerning applicants are varied, the following are among those most frequently employed: (1) individual applications of teachers, (2) uniform application blanks, (3) uniform reference blanks, (4) letters of recommendation, (5) interviews, (6) visitation of candidates in other schools, (7) written and oral teachers' examinations, (8) physical examinations, (9) photographs, and (10) other methods of securing information. It is the purpose of this chapter to present data concerning these sources of information.

2. FILES OF AVAILABLE CANDIDATES

Number of systems keeping files.—The policy of keeping files of available candidates is much more prevalent in the larger cities than in the smaller ones (see Figure 1). The percentages of city systems keeping files of candidates range from 77 in places of less than 2,500 to 100 in cities of more than 100,000 population. Almost no difference is present among the percentages of systems in the East, South, and West keeping files of candidates, but the percentage so reporting in the Middle West is slightly lower. Principals of independent secondary schools do not keep files of candidates so frequently as do superintendents in city systems.

Length of time kept.—Data which are not presented in tabular form indicate that applications of teachers are kept on file from 1 to 10 years. Superintendents in the larger cities in the East tend to keep applications on file slightly longer than elsewhere. However, the differences are slight. The average length of time they are kept on file ranges from 1.7 to 1.9 years.

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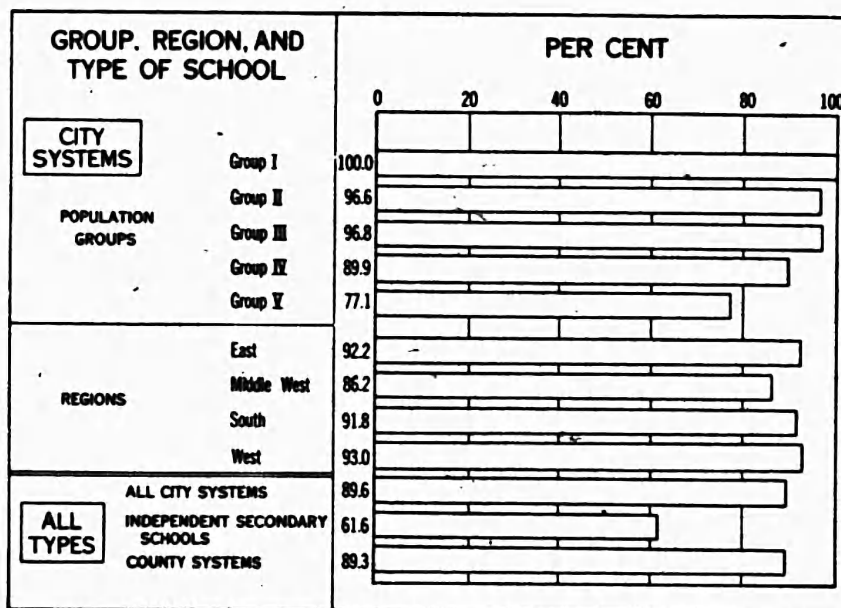


FIGURE 1.—Percentages of systems keeping files of desirable candidates.

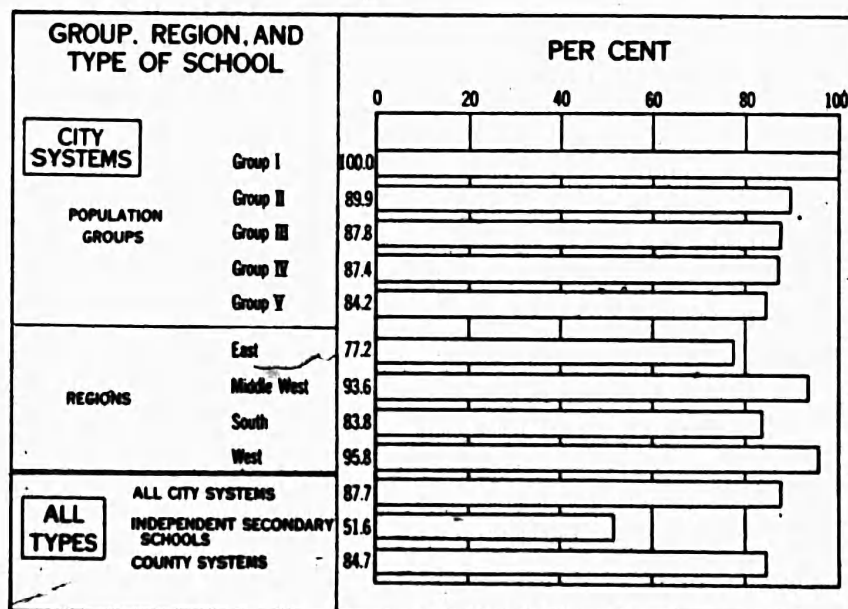


FIGURE 2.—Percentages of systems requiring applicants to fill out application blanks.

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3. APPLICATION BLANKS

NUMBER OF SYSTEMS USING APPLICATION BLANKS

Some type of formal application blank is almost universally used as a convenient method of securing certain desirable information concerning prospective teachers. The percentages of superintendents and principals in the different groups and regions who reported the use of application blanks are presented in Figure 2. The practice is somewhat more frequently followed in the larger cities and in the Middle Western and Western States. The blanks are used least frequently in the East. Principals of independent secondary schools reported the use of uniform application blanks in only a little more than half of the systems, whereas county superintendents reported their use in almost 85 per cent of the counties.

The data shown for the city systems are in almost complete agreement with those reported by the National Education Association.¹

ANALYSIS OF APPLICATION BLANKS

Available studies.—Several studies have been made of the form and content of the application blanks. Keller² analyzed 72 application blanks used in school districts of Pennsylvania of less than 1,000 enrollment. Adams³ analyzed 71 application blanks from cities of all sizes in Texas. Crawford⁴ analyzed 120 blanks coming from cities at large and ranging from about 10,000 population to more than 250,000 population. Several other investigations have been conducted by Davis,⁵ Nietz,⁶ Wang,⁷ and others. Davis analyzed blanks from 148 cities, Nietz from 41 large cities, and Wang analyzed

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Instruction*. Research Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 1, January 1932. p. 24.

² Keller, Frank. *Use of Teachers' Application Blanks*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Pittsburgh, 1926.

³ Adams, Logan S. *Selecting, Assigning, and Starting the New Teacher*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Texas, 1926. 100 p.ms.

⁴ Crawford, Lawrence T. *The Selection of Teachers*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of California, 1930. 85 p.ms.

⁵ Davis, C. O. *What Qualifications Are Demanded of Teachers?* *Nation's Schools*, 3: 31-34, January; 62-8, February; 71-76, May; 46-50, June 1929.

⁶ Nietz, John A. *The Current Use of Teachers' Application Blanks*. *American School Board Journal*, 76: 55-56; March 1928.

⁷ Wang, Charles K. A. *A Study of the Basic Information Utilized in Employing Teachers in the United States*. *Education*, 48: 356-374, February 1928.

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190 blanks from cities of 5,000 to more than 50,000 including 33 from county superintendents, and 21 from private teachers' agencies.

Number and classification of items.—Wang reported that the median number of items on application forms ranged only from 39.6 for cities of from 5,000 to 10,000 population to 42.7 for cities of more than 50,000. County superintendents reported the use of somewhat shorter forms than did city superintendents. The range in the number of items among the schools was from 11 to 75.

The items of information called for on application blanks may be classified into about six general categories: (1) general information, (2) personal data, (3) educational preparation, (4) educational experience, (5) references, and (6) miscellaneous information. The frequency with which the items are found in these categories will be discussed briefly as reported by Wang.

(1) *Items of general information.*—Items such as the name of the applicant, the date, the address of the applicant, position desired, telephone number, and the like were reported in from 60 to 100 per cent of the blanks.

(2) *Items of a personal nature.*—The items of age, height, weight, health, salary, religious affiliation, marital status, were reported in from 78 to 96 per cent of the blanks. Other items of a personal nature such as the status of the applicant as widowed or divorced, race, birthplace, and condition of sight or hearing were found in only from 8 to 26 per cent of the blanks.

(3) *Items of educational preparation.*—Items such as high school attended, years in high school, normal school attended, years in normal school, college attended, years in college, college degree, and time of graduation from college were reported on from 70 to 96 per cent of the blanks. Other educational items such as number of hours in education, elementary schools attended, high-school credits, normal-school credits, college credits, and educational courses were found on from 11 to 20 per cent of the application blanks analyzed.

(4) *Items of educational experience.*—The location of school, number of months taught, grades or subjects taught, and inclusive dates of experience at various schools were reported

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by Wang in from 70 to 85 per cent of the application blanks. Other items such as reason for leaving position, salary received, and number of teachers in the system were found in from 17 to 25 per cent of the blanks.

(5) *Items requesting names of references.*—More than 95 per cent of the application blanks request the names of references acquainted with the work of the applicant.

(6) *Miscellaneous information.*—More than 61 per cent of the blanks requested a photograph of the candidate, about 43 per cent asked when work could be started. A large number of other miscellaneous items are found on application blanks, but not many are found on more than a few forms.

The items reported by Wang as included in more than 50 per cent of the application blanks are listed in Table 17.

TABLE 17.—Percentages of frequency of individual items on 244 application blanks

Item	Percentage of frequency	Item	Percentage of frequency
1. General information		3. Educational preparation—Con.	
Name of applicant.....	100	Years in normal school..	75
Present address.....	95	College degree.....	73
Date of application.....	89	Time of graduation from college.....	70
Permanent address.....	84	Years in high school....	70
Grades or subjects preferred.....	75	Time of graduation from normal school.....	66
Position desired.....	62	Time of graduation from high school.....	63
Telephone number.....	61	Graduate or special school attendance....	59
2. Personal data		Degree or diploma from normal school.....	59
Age.....	96	4. Educational experience	
Height.....	86	Location of school.....	85
Weight.....	85	Number of months taught.....	80
Teaching certificate....	79	Grades or subjects taught.....	78
Marital status.....	78	Inclusive dates of experience.....	70
Present salary.....	69	5. General information	
Health.....	69	References.....	95
Religious affiliation....	67	Photograph.....	61
Ability to teach special subjects.....	52		
Acceptable salary.....	50		
3. Educational preparation			
College attended.....	97		
High school attended....	96		
Normal school attended..	96		
Years in college.....	76		

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4. REFERENCE BLANKS

PERCENTAGES OF SYSTEMS USING REFERENCE BLANKS

If the applications of candidates are seriously considered, superintendents usually desire to learn something concerning their previous experience and to obtain estimates of their ability from those under whom they have taught. This is sometimes done by means of a personal letter to persons listed as references. In many other systems it is done by means of a more or less formal inquiry blank.

Superintendents in cities of more than 100,000 use the blanks in a greater proportion of the systems than do those of any other group of cities (see Figure 3). Superintendents

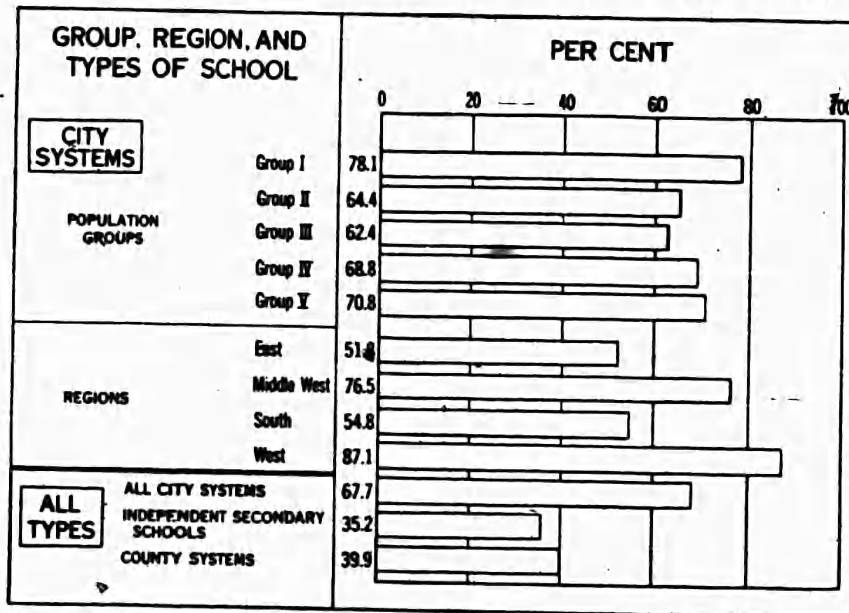


FIGURE 3.—Percentages of systems sending reference blanks to persons listed as references.

in the East and South use them least frequently and less than 40 per cent of the principals of independent secondary schools and county superintendents use reference forms.

ANALYSIS OF REFERENCE BLANKS

Available studies.—Studies by Davis,⁸ Nietz,⁹ Crawford,¹⁰ and Wang¹¹ have indicated the variety of forms used and the large number and types of items included. These studies

⁸ Davis, C. O. op. cit.

⁹ Nietz, John A. Current Use of Teachers' Reference Blanks. American School Board Journal, 70: 41-42, March 1925.

¹⁰ Crawford, Lawrence T. op. cit.

¹¹ Wang, C. K. A. op. cit.

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will not be drawn upon here. Instead, report will be made from the findings of an analysis of reference blanks returned by school officers with the inquiry forms sent out in connection with this investigation of the selection and appointment of teachers. These blanks were classified in the same groups and regions as the responses to the inquiry forms. Space permits only a brief summary of the findings of the analysis of 367 reference blanks.

Name of blank.—The analysis of the names carried by the 367 reference blanks shows that 213 have no definitive title. The majority of these blanks are in printed form with a short letter of three or four lines preceding the body of the blank. The letter explains the nature of the request and usually asks for accurate and confidential information. Seventy-five forms bear some such title as "Recommendation Blank" and 20 bear the name "Inquiry Blank" or "Teachers' Inquiry Blank."

Method of reply required.—The 367 reference blanks have many types of questions and several methods provided for answering these questions. Some forms have one mode of response uniform throughout the blank, while others have different methods of reply for different types of questions. Some blanks request only a general statement concerning the applicant, others require answers to as many as 50 or 60 different specific questions. No attempt has been made to analyze the different combinations of methods of response because it was believed sufficient to show the methods by which the majority of the questions are to be answered.

Of the 367 forms, 29 call only for a general statement concerning the candidate, his fitness for the position for which applying, and possibly one or two more traits. Ninety-eight make provision either for written answers to specific questions or for written opinions on a list of traits. Some type of a check list by means of which the respondent checks certain traits on a scale of from 3 to 10 points is provided on 162 of the forms. Provision is made for underlining the most appropriate term on about 76 forms. Often, however, practically no difference in method exists between checking on a scale of four points and underlining an appropriate term out of four possible gradations of ability.

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Two interesting forms were discovered in which the respondents were to check a list of traits on what might be termed a graphic scale. Along the scale of frequent intervals are descriptive terms to guide the respondent in locating the place where he should like to rate the applicant. These forms will be given special attention later.

Similarity of reference forms.—The similarity of reference forms is due in many cases to the fact that many school systems purchase these blanks directly from publishing houses. Of the 367 blanks studied, four sets of identical reference blanks stand out for their widespread use. One published in Missouri was found used in 30 schools; another published in Iowa was found used in 20 schools; another also published in Iowa was found used in 17 schools; and a form published in Illinois was used in 17 more schools. All the blanks mentioned are published and largely distributed in a limited area of the Middle West. The blanks used in cities of more than 30,000 population are in almost all cases designed for particular systems and each blank differs considerably from blanks used in other cities.

Confidential nature of information.—All the forms but 72 make specific mention of the fact that all information sent by the respondent will be held in strict confidence. The factor of geographic location seems to play little or no part in this connection, but blanks from cities of more than 10,000 are much more likely to omit mention of the fact that information will be held in confidence.

Number and nature of items on reference blanks.—It has been shown that 29 of the forms asked for only a general letter concerning the applicant. Since there is no way of determining the number of items implied by such a request, these forms were omitted from the tabulation which follows. The range in the number of items requested on the remaining forms extends from 5 to 56. (See Figure 4.)

An attempt was made to tabulate the different items found on reference blanks. Difficulty was encountered because so many of the items have almost identical meanings but insofar as possible, the items were classified under the term judged most nearly to express their true meaning. In this way 267 different items were included in the tabulation of the refer-

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ence blanks. No attempt is made here to show more than a partial list of these items.

Only 8 of the 267 different items were found on as many as 50 per cent of the reference blanks from city school systems. This indicates a striking disagreement of opinion among schoolmen as to what items are essential to a reference form.

It must be recognized, however, that the disagreement may be due in part to the many synonymous or nearly synonymous terms used in the reference blanks. The great majority of the items appear in relatively few of the reference forms as evidenced by the fact that in all groups and regions between

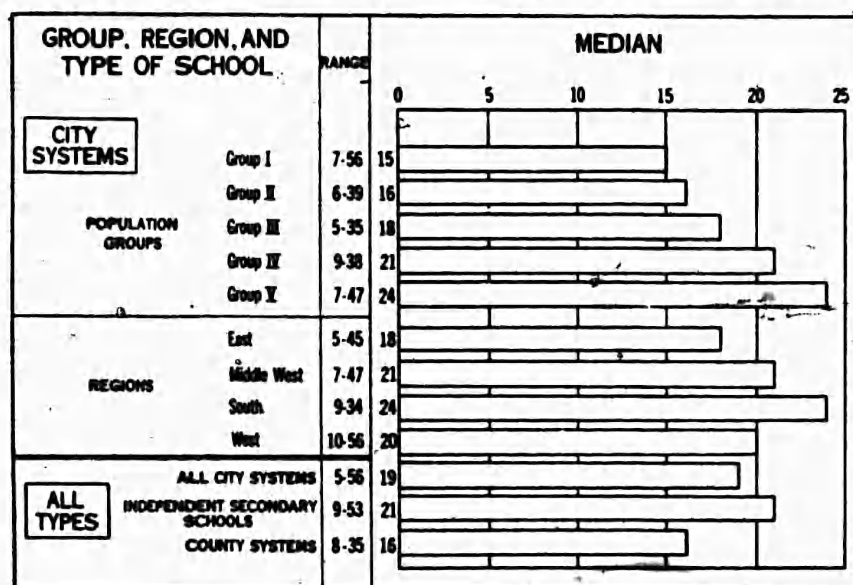


FIGURE 4.—Median numbers of items on reference forms according to population groups and geographical regions.

130 and 180 of the 267 items appear on less than 5 per cent of the forms.

The number of items appearing on more than 20 per cent of the forms for the five groups are as follows: Group I, 19; Group II, 19; Group III, 28; Group IV, 35; Group V, 43; and for the total of Groups I to V, inclusive, 38. As the size of the city decreases, there seems to be more agreement as to what items should be included within the reference forms. These data may be noted in Table 18 even though only Groups I and V, the independent secondary schools, and county systems are presented in tabular form. No such tendency is apparent

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for the geographical regions, also omitted from the table, but the county systems show even more marked lack of agreement. The differences between groups may be partially accounted for by the fact that published forms are used more frequently in smaller cities. However, since most of the published forms are used in the Middle West and only small differences exist among the regions the effect of this factor seems small.

TABLE 18.—Items appearing on at least 20 per cent of the reference blanks and the percentages of forms in which they were found

Item	Group		Total	Independent secondary schools	County systems
	I	V			
1	2	3	4	5	6
Discipline.....	64.7	91.9	84.1	84.0	83.3
General statement or remarks.....	76.5	82.4	78.8	76.0	63.9
Health.....	41.2	83.8	73.9	72.0	63.9
Appearance.....	47.0	60.8	63.4	58.0	38.9
Scholarship.....	58.8	64.9	63.8	78.0	77.8
Skill in instruction ¹	70.5	58.2	63.0	84.0	80.5
Character.....	41.2	44.6	54.3	44.0	44.4
Would you employ.....	52.9	52.7	53.3	40.0	27.8
Tact.....	23.5	59.5	52.5	40.0	22.2
Best suited to what grades or subjects.....	35.3	58.1	46.4	52.0	50.0
Cooperation.....	23.5	40.5	44.2	36.0	44.4
Initiative.....	11.7	54.1	40.9	44.0	16.7
Daily preparation.....	11.7	50.0	37.3	16.0	11.1
General estimate of applicant.....	29.4	52.7	36.2	40.0	22.2
Voice.....	17.6	45.9	31.5	24.0	22.2
Use of English.....	11.7	44.6	30.4	28.0	26.0
Weakest points.....	29.4	25.7	29.0	20.0	13.9
Self-control.....	17.6	28.4	28.3	24.0	13.9
Professional growth and interest.....	5.9	35.1	28.6	4.0	8.3
Personality.....	35.3	16.2	27.9	28.0	38.9
Loyalty.....	29.4	31.1	26.8	28.0	23.0
Strongest points.....	17.6	28.4	26.1	12.0	11.1
Understanding of children.....	5.9	29.7	25.4	8.0	5.6
Care of room.....		30.2	25.0	4.0	8.3
Attention to individual needs.....	5.9	36.5	24.3	8.0	5.6
Defects—mental and physical.....	17.6	33.8	22.1	12.0	11.1
Has applicant taught under your supervision.....	11.7	32.4	22.1	28.0	22.2
Enthusiasm.....	5.9	24.3	21.7	8.0	11.1
Motivation.....		27.0	20.3	4.0	5.6
Opportunity for forming judgment of applicant.....	29.4	8.9	20.3	82.0	19.4

¹ Skill in instruction in this table is a composite of these items: Skill in instruction, ability to instruct, success in instruction, teaching power, and teaching ability.

The 30 items appearing on at least 20 per cent of the reference blanks of all cities in Groups I and V are shown in Table 18. No effort will be made here to enumerate all items. Rather, emphasis will be placed on significant differences

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existing between the groups and regions. An inverse relation exists in the frequency with which items appear on reference blanks and the size of the city in which the blanks are used. The item "discipline" illustrates the point in question. In cities of Group I this item appears on about 65 per cent of the forms; in Group II, 67 per cent; in Group III, 85 per cent; Group IV, 90 per cent; and Group V, 92 per cent.

Other frequently mentioned items in which this inverse relation seems to hold are: "Tact," "grades or subjects to which best suited," "daily preparation," "voice," "use of English," "professional growth and interest," and "attention to individual needs."

Differences among the groups and regions exist throughout the list, but space does not permit their discussion. It seems that the city systems are more interested in learning about the "preparation," "weak points" of the applicant's teaching ability, and her "professional growth and interest" than are independent secondary schools and county systems. On the other hand, the independent secondary schools are more interested in the relations of teachers to pupils, to the administration, and to other teachers, and the extent to which applicants can aid in extracurriculum activities.

Examples of forms with unique provisions. Reference forms differ considerably in giving adequate directions to the respondent. While it is true that a great majority of the blanks are relatively so simple that no specific directions seem necessary for their use, a considerable number of forms request information on rather indefinite items. Whenever this occurs, some explanation is usually necessary either to tell how the rating should be done or to define the traits or qualities listed. For example, the trait "character" is listed on a large number of forms. When the respondent is asked to check on a 5-point scale of superior, above average, average, below average, and poor, questions like the following may arise in his mind: "What is meant by character?" "What does the superintendent receiving the form mean by character?" "Under what conditions should an applicant be marked 'superior'?" Many forms give no indication of the answer to such questions. Some schools, however, have

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sought to make the returns more valuable to themselves by defining the terms employed on the form.

Two of the methods used for overcoming these objections are found on the blanks from Des Moines, Iowa, and Minneapolis, Minn. The former rates applicants as superior, poor, and average in terms of the per cent of teachers who should be rated within each category. No mention is made of the attributes included within the term "character." The blank from Minneapolis uses the words superior, good, fair, and poor and places them on a horizontal line at equal intervals across the page. The words are defined as shown in Figure 5, which illustrates the organization of the inquiry blank:

INQUIRY BLANK

MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

_____ has applied for a position in the Minneapolis schools. Will you assist us by sending the following information at your earliest convenience. We trust that your interest in school children, more than your desire to serve the candidate, inspires your reply. We appreciate your courtesy. Your reply will be considered entirely confidential.

Respectfully yours

C. R. REED, Superintendent

RATING

Each of the factors listed below is rated on a five point scale on which points 1, 2, and 5 have been briefly defined to assist you in interpreting the scale. Place a "V" on the line beside each factor which in your judgment best represents the truth. If you desire, in addition to rating the candidate, you may also underline the words which clearly describe him.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. PERSONAL QUALITIES	Superior	Good	Fair	Poor	
A. CHARACTER	Integrity	Unreliability	Unpleasant	Unpleasant	Unpleasant
B. MIND	Intelligent	Unintelligent	Unintelligent	Unintelligent	Unintelligent
C. APPEARANCE	Well-dressed	Unpleasant	Unpleasant	Unpleasant	Unpleasant

FIGURE 5.—The first three items of the inquiry blank used in Minneapolis, Minn.

This device gives a scale for rating in terms of words of common usage and gives definite aid to the respondent for judging and interpreting the trait under consideration.

Among the items listed on the form from Hamtramck, Mich., are 11 to be checked on a 5-point scale of very poor, poor, medium, good, and excellent. Each of these 11 terms is given an explicit definition. An interesting blank also comes from the Dawson County High School and Glendive, Mont., city schools. This blank has 9 of its 12 items arranged for rating on a 5-point scale of lowest, low, average, high, and highest. Provision is made for definition of both the traits to be rated and the scale by means of which the rating is made.

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The form from Pasadena, Calif., requests eight general items of information on the front and contains a graphic rating report of six items on the reverse side of the form. The report contains definite instructions for its use, explains the scale used in rating, describes in considerable detail each item upon which information is requested, and provides space for miscellaneous remarks for each item. The instructions and the first two items are shown Figure 6:

5. OTHER TYPES OF COMMUNICATION WITH REFERENCES

Personal letters.—As shown in Figure 3, about 32 per cent of the superintendents of city systems, about 65 per cent of the principals of independent secondary schools, and about

GRAPHIC RATING REPORT																															
Instructions for Making Report:																															
1. Before rating on a given quality, read description of that quality very carefully. 2. Note that the highest rating you can give on any quality is 10 and the lowest 1. 3. If the applicant is as good as the best you have ever known, place a check mark at 10; if as poor as the poorest, place the check mark at 1; if only about average, place the check mark at 5 or 6; etc. 4. A rating of 8 or above will be regarded as a favorable rating. You will, of course, let your interest in children, rather than a desire to be of service to the applicant, inspire your ratings.																															
QUALITIES	RATINGS																														
I. PHYSICAL VITALITY Consider the degree to which the applicant appears to possess vigorous health and the extent to which life and vim are put into his work without nervous strain.	<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">1</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td style="text-align: center;">5</td><td style="text-align: center;">6</td><td style="text-align: center;">7</td><td style="text-align: center;">8</td><td style="text-align: center;">9</td><td style="text-align: center;">10</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="text-align: left; font-size: x-small;">Extremely High</td> <td colspan="6" style="text-align: center; font-size: x-small;">Average</td> <td colspan="2" style="text-align: right; font-size: x-small;">Extremely Low</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="10" style="font-size: x-small;">Remarks:</td> </tr> </table>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Extremely High		Average						Extremely Low		Remarks:									
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II. MENTAL ALIENATION Consider the degree to which the applicant seems to possess the ability to size up a situation quickly, to see its relation to other situations, and to arrive at a logical conclusion.	<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">1</td><td style="text-align: center;">2</td><td style="text-align: center;">3</td><td style="text-align: center;">4</td><td style="text-align: center;">5</td><td style="text-align: center;">6</td><td style="text-align: center;">7</td><td style="text-align: center;">8</td><td style="text-align: center;">9</td><td style="text-align: center;">10</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="text-align: left; font-size: x-small;">Extremely High</td> <td colspan="6" style="text-align: center; font-size: x-small;">Average</td> <td colspan="2" style="text-align: right; font-size: x-small;">Extremely Low</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="10" style="font-size: x-small;">Remarks:</td> </tr> </table>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Extremely High		Average						Extremely Low		Remarks:									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10																						
Extremely High		Average						Extremely Low																							
Remarks:																															

FIGURE 6.—The first two items on the back of the reference form used in Pasadena, Calif.

60 per cent of the county superintendents do not use any type of formal reference blank. Many of these school executives write personal letters of inquiry to references listed by the applicant because they feel that they are enabled to obtain a more honest and frank statement of the candidate. Particularly is this practice followed when the reference is well known to the superintendent or principal who is employing a teacher.

Open letters.—“Open letters of recommendation” and the “to whom it may concern testimonials” are not given much consideration by the majority of school superintendents. It was found from data not shown in tabular form that such letters are considered in from 17 per cent of the systems in

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Group V to 44 per cent of the systems of Group I. In the independent secondary schools they were reported used in 28 per cent and in the county systems in 32 per cent of the systems. Of the total number of city superintendents reporting concerning this question, 24 per cent indicate that they consider these references.

6. STUDIES OF THE VALUE OF WRITTEN RECOMMENDATIONS

Studies made of recommendations.—Inasmuch as so many systems make use of reference blanks and other types of written communications with references the question naturally arises as to the value of these recommendations. Vick,¹² in a study of the written recommendation as a factor in selecting teachers in 176 Illinois schools, comes to the conclusions that (1) written recommendations are used in the selection of about 90 per cent of the high-school teachers, (2) the forms of the recommendations desired by superintendents most frequently are (a) answers to specific questions, (b) general letters in answer to specific questions, and (c) underlined words and phrases, and (3) the 10 traits most desired in teachers by superintendents and principals are in the order of their rank: Understanding of children, cooperation and loyalty, discipline, integrity and sincerity, professional interest and growth, adaptability and resourcefulness, sense of justice, self-control, initiative and self-reliance, skill and care in assignment.

The study by Vick implies that because superintendents use written blanks they consider them to be one of the most useful sources of information concerning prospective teachers. Dozier¹³ analyzed 1,132 letters of recommendations in the files of the teachers' appointment committee of the University of Texas and concludes that: (1) the value of recommendations varies with the point of view and training of those who write them, (2) great care should be exercised in the formulation of rating sheets for collecting data concerning the ability of teachers, (3) such forms should fit the point of view and training of those who make use of them, (4) the

¹² Vick, Claude E. A Study of the Written Recommendation as a Factor in the Selection of Teachers. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Illinois, 1929. 60 p. ms.

¹³ Dozier, Meriam. Confidential Recommendations as a Basis for Selecting Teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 14:325-335, December 1926.

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value of recommendations depends in a measure upon the amount of detail recorded, and(5) all writers of recommendations place large emphasis upon the social qualities of teachers.

Letters of recommendation vary in length, in form, in quality, and in content. Also the individuals who recommend and interpret may differ considerably in the meaning attached to descriptive terms and phrases. At present the method of writing letters of recommendation varies so greatly that practically no degree of standardization exists.

Suggested improvements.—In order partially to rectify this situation Weidemann¹⁴ devised a new type of recommendation blank for grades 6 to 12. This blank seeks to standardize the interpretation of the words used, to standardize the rating of traits, and to present a more uniform list of traits upon which ratings should be made. The study offers suggestions which will be of value to superintendents and principals who are desirous of improving their methods of securing information from persons given as references by candidates.

Since written recommendations are used so extensively in selecting new teachers, it appears that superintendents consider them to be a medium through which information concerning prospective teachers may be obtained. Care should be exercised in the use of such forms because of the different meanings attached to descriptive terms and phrases.

7. THE PHOTOGRAPH

Unreliability of judging teachers by photographs.—Nearly all superintendents and principals require that a photograph accompany the application of prospective teachers. Several studies show that this procedure aids very little in the selection of competent teachers. One of these is by Johns.¹⁵ This investigator submitted a set of 24 pictures of superintendents and principals, high-school instructors, elementary-school teachers, and kindergarten teachers to public-school superintendents in Nebraska, secretaries of boards of education, and

¹⁴ Weidemann, O. C. A New Type Letter of Recommendation for Teachers. Educational Research Record. University of Nebraska, 2:67-71, 74-96, December 1929.

¹⁵ Johns, Walter B. The Value of the Photograph in the Selection of Teachers. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Nebraska, 1928. 48 p. ms.

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to secretaries of placement bureaus throughout the country. A total of 148 replies were received. From the correlations between the marking of candidates for the different classes of judges Johns concludes that "there is no value in a photograph in determining ability to teach." Tiegs¹⁶ also reports little value in the use of photographs in determining the teaching efficiency of prospective teachers. The rating of 25 teachers by 11 judges when correlated with the actual rating of these teachers by general supervisors, principals, together with the estimate of the assistant superintendent, show a negative relationship of low degree. The coefficient of correlation was reported as $-.08$.

The value of the photograph.—One should not assume, however, that the photograph has no value at all. In both studies referred to the photographs submitted were of teachers in service and probably of persons of fairly pleasing appearance. If superintendents and principals desire to use the photograph not for the purpose of attempting to select candidates on the basis of a photograph so much as to obtain a general impression of the applicant, they are probably entirely justified in requesting a picture of the candidate. Such a procedure enables them to guard against interviewing or selecting strikingly unattractive candidates, "provided, of course," says Johns, "that the art of photography did not too well cover up the actual situation."¹⁷

8. EXAMINATIONS

The problem.—Teachers have long been examined in some manner or other to determine their competence for the positions for which they make application. In the earlier days the judgment of the board of education or superintendent was adequate for all purposes. Simple written examinations were given to applicants by the county superintendent or by an examining committee. A certificate earned in this way served all needs on the professional side.¹⁸ On the personal side, however, other considerations were frequently determining factors. Personal and political friendships, church

¹⁶ Tiegs, Ernest W. *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Company, 1928. p. 46.

¹⁷ Johns, Walter B. *op. cit.* p. 35.

¹⁸ Cubberley, E. P. *Public-School Administration*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916. p. 199.

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relationships, party affiliations played a part. The daughter of an estimable citizen, the young woman who needed aid to support her widowed mother, the young widow, or the wife whose husband had deserted her were persons given added consideration out of public sympathy.¹⁹ The public attitude was that anyone could "keep school."

The selection of teachers has now become a complex and highly important administrative function. Minimum qualifications for teaching have been formulated and put into effect by accrediting agencies, State departments of education, and by local school boards. Teachers are being trained in universities and colleges from which they are graduated with more or less adequate academic and professional training. The responsibility for the certification of teachers is rapidly being assumed by the State. Under these conditions the need for examining applicants is greatly decreased except in the large cities.

Methods of examination vary considerably from city to city. In some systems relatively simple written examinations are administered, in others difficult written and oral examinations are given.

Written examinations.—This and other studies have shown that approximately 3 to 4 per cent of the school systems use the written examination as a feature of their method of choosing the instructional staff.²⁰ The data for the present study are reported by size of city, geographical region, and type of school. (See Fig. 7.) Data concerning independent secondary schools have been omitted from this figure because such schools do not maintain grades at the elementary or junior high school levels and because no data were reported at the senior high school level.

Written examinations are seldom used except in cities of more than 30,000 population. Of the cities of less than 30,000 population, written examinations are used in selecting elementary-school teachers, junior high school teachers, and senior high school teachers in less than 1 per cent of the systems. None of the 159 independent secondary-school

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 199-200.

²⁰ National Education Association, Research Division. *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*. Research Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 1, January 1932. p. 24.

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principals and only a few county superintendents reported the use of written examinations.

Examination system in selected cities.—Among the cities reporting special examinations for prospective teachers Fort Wayne, Ind.; Jersey City, N. J.; Rochester, N. Y.; and Boston, Mass., illustrate the policies and practices relating to examination systems.

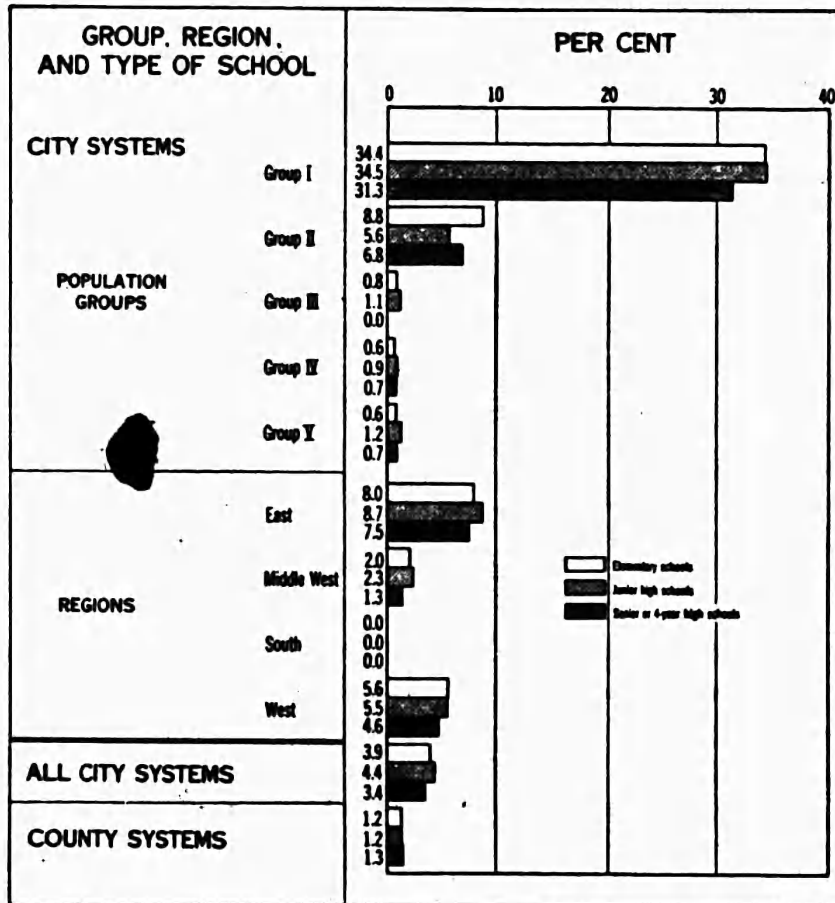


FIGURE 7.—Percentages of school systems requiring candidates for teaching positions at various school levels to take special examinations.

(1) *Fort Wayne.*—Fort Wayne is an illustration of a city school system which gives examinations only to new inexperienced elementary-school teachers. The plan has been followed for about three years, and is reported to be a distinct aid in eliminating all but the best inexperienced applicants. The scores made on the examination are given

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weight in the program of teacher selection approximately equal to that given to the applicant's transcript of record and references.

(2) *Rochester*.—In Rochester both oral and written examinations are given to candidates for permanent appointment. The oral examination is usually held the day of the written examination and is ordinarily from 15 to 20 minutes in length. This examination is in reality an interview with one or more of the members of the examining committee. Each candidate is given a personality rating on the assumption that 80 is about the average rating of all applicants.

The written examinations are of the essay type and deal chiefly with the psychology of the particular subject for which intended. Some of these tests are constructed by members of the board of examiners, some by heads of departments, and others by the directors of subject fields. The examination procedure is somewhat as follows: All candidates for "first appointment" who have been given a "first assignment" must take an examination during the course of the first year. Persons graduated from the city teacher-training school or who hold masters' degrees are excused from the written examination. Candidates for junior high school or senior high school positions take tests in their subject fields, but elementary-school teachers must take examinations in six subjects and in psychology, except that for each year of successful experience elsewhere they are excused from one examination of their choice excepting psychology. Candidates are placed on an eligible list from which all appointments are made, provided that one-third of the sum of twice their score on the subject examinations plus their personality score equals or exceeds 70.

At the time the data were obtained from Rochester, committees were at work on a plan of reorganizing the examination system and of eliminating some of what seemed to the authorities as rather obvious defects.

(3) *Jersey City*.—In Jersey City the board of examiners is composed of one board member, the superintendent, two assistant superintendents, one principal of a high school, one principal of an elementary school, and one member of the research department.

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All candidates must have had three years of successful experience and must hold "limited secondary certificates" to teach the subject for which application is made. Written examinations, usually of the essay type, must be successfully passed in the subject for which the candidate is an applicant. If applicants pass the written examination, an oral examination is given by the whole board of examiners. This examination is general in nature and is for the purpose of judging the experience (including references), preparation, background, methods of teaching, and knowledge of the subject. Each member of the board makes an estimate and the applicants' score is the average of these individual estimates. Candidates are placed on eligible lists according to the scores made on the written and oral examinations. Applicants are appointed in order of their rank on the eligible lists. Provision is made whereby the person ranking number one on the list may refuse to accept about three appointments before being dropped from the eligible list.

(4) *Boston.*—Another city with a comprehensive plan for examining prospective teachers is Boston. High-school teachers must take an examination in a major subject and in the two minor subjects prescribed to be taken with the particular major subject chosen. Candidates must make a mark of 70 per cent on the major subject and an average of 70 per cent for the total of all three examinations. In addition, the candidate must give a demonstration lesson before an examiner or a specialist in the subject being taught. The amount and quality of experience are also given consideration. In order to be placed on the eligible list an applicant must have at least 420 points of a possible 600 on the subject examination, a score of 210 points of a possible 300 on the demonstration lesson, and may increase the final score as much as 100 points depending upon the amount and character of experience. Candidates are placed on eligible lists according to subjects for which eligible and are chosen in the order on the list.

The value of written examinations.—The value of written examinations as one of the bases for selecting teachers lies in the manner of their administration and interpretation. Well-constructed tests, carefully administered by educa-

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tional experts may be of considerable value in aiding school executives to choose teachers wisely. On the other hand, studies made of the relationship existing between various types of professional examinations and teaching efficiency have shown that the scores made on such tests have little value in predicting teaching success. Boardman²¹ has shown that there is little relationship between classroom efficiency of teachers as judged by ratings of pupils, teachers, supervisors, or combinations of these on the one hand, and intelligent scores, or scores on tests of professional information, or scores on tests of knowledge of teaching procedures on the other. This should cause school executives to exercise considerable caution in the use of tests and examinations as a basis of judging the fitness of applicants for teaching positions until we are more able than at present to measure accurately those qualities predictive of teaching success. This leads the Research Division of the National Education Association to conclude that "unless a school system is able to do the job well, it would probably do better to have no written examinations for selecting and promoting teachers."²²

9. HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS

Number of systems requiring.—Many school systems now require that a certificate of health be filed with the superintendent before the appointment is made. The National Education Association²³ reports that for 1,494 city systems physical examinations are required in from 8.9 per cent of the systems from 2,500 to 5,000 population to 49.4 per cent of the cities of more than 100,000 population. Approximately 16.5 per cent of the total number of cities reporting require physical examinations.

Who makes the examination?—Practice varies in regard to the persons making the physical examination. Some cities require only a health certificate issued by any reputable medical doctor whereas others require that the examination be performed by a doctor employed by the board of education.

²¹ Boardman, Charles W. *Professional Tests as Measures of Teaching Efficiency in High School*. Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 337, 1928. P. 65.

²² National Education Association, Research Division. *Practices Affecting Teaching Personnel*. Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 4, September 1928. P. 233.

²³ National Education Association, Research Division. *op. cit.* Vol. X, No. 1, p. 24.

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10. INTERVIEWING APPLICANTS

Value of the personal interview.—One of the most widely used methods of securing information concerning applicants is the personal interview. Lewis states, "There is no substitute for the personal interview."²⁴ Hines, in speaking of the problem of teacher selection for Cincinnati, adds, "No applicant will be employed without an interview. The object of this interview is not to permit personal judgment, but to verify and expand the information contained in the application blank."²⁵ It should not be inferred, however, that the personal interview is an infallible tool. It is, however, a valuable method when employed by those trained in its use.

Extent to which personal interview is utilized.—Nearly all school systems, both large and small, make use of the personal interview. The data relating to the percentages of systems where an interview is neither required nor suggested are presented in Table 19. The data for cities of various sizes agree fairly well, where comparable, with those reported by the National Education Association.²⁶

TABLE 19.—Percentages of systems in which a personal interview is neither suggested nor required

Group or region	School levels			All levels combined where not used
	Elementary teachers	Junior high school teachers	Senior or 4-year high school teachers	
1	2	3	4	5
Group:				
I.....	7.4	7.4	3.7	7.1
II.....	1.1	1.6	1.2	1.3
III.....				
IV.....	2.8	6.1	2.7	4.4
V.....	2.9	5.3	2.1	3.5
Region:				
East.....				
Middle West.....	1.7	2.2	1.3	1.9
South.....	5.3	2.7	4.1	4.3
West.....	10.0	12.2	6.4	10.7
All city systems combined.....	2.7	3.7	2.3	2.8
Independent secondary schools.....			2.5	2.5
County systems.....	6.3	5.4	4.6	5.4

²⁴ Lewis, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. New York, The Century Co., 1925. p. 128.

²⁵ Hines, Harlan C. *The Selection of Teachers for the City of Cincinnati*. *American School Board Journal*, 69: 40, July, 1924.

²⁶ National Education Association, Research Division. *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Practices*. *Research Bulletin*, Vol. X, No. 1, January, 1932. p. 24.

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Relatively slight differences exist in school systems in regard to interviewing teachers of the various levels. In general, if a superintendent interviews teachers for senior high school positions he also interviews teachers for junior high school and for elementary-school positions. Differences between cities of various size are relatively small, but some tendency exists for teachers to be interviewed somewhat more frequently in the East and Middle West than in the South and West.

The officials who interview candidates.—The superintendent interviews candidates for positions in city school systems in 49.5 per cent of the systems; the principal interviews them in about 15 per cent of the systems; and members of the teachers' committee of the board and individual members of the board in about 6 per cent of the systems. Considerable differences exist among cities of various sizes, among regions, among types of schools, and among school levels. Table 20 shows these differences in detail.

(1) *Interviews by the school board.*—As the size of the city decreases the rôle played by school board members in the interviewing of teachers increases. School boards also seem to play an important rôle in interviewing teachers in the Middle West, in the South, in the independent secondary schools, and in the elementary and senior high schools. A probable reason for the smaller part played by school boards in interviewing candidates for positions in junior high schools lies in the fact that most of the junior high schools are in large cities and in these larger cities the boards assume less responsibility for interviewing teachers than in the smaller localities. Practically no difference exists between the extent to which the various board members interview elementary and senior or 4-year high school candidates.

(2) *Interviews by superintendents.*—The superintendent interviews candidates most frequently in cities of from 2,500 to 30,000 population. In cities of less than 2,500 population the rôle played by the board causes him to interview candidates in fewer cases; in cities of more than 30,000 the increasingly complex school organization frequently causes superintendents to delegate this function to heads of departments, supervisors, or assistant superintendents. In the

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large cities, the board of examiners or the director of personnel frequently has this responsibility. Superintendents interview more frequently in the South and Middle West than they do in the West or East. They are also somewhat more likely to interview elementary than junior or senior high school teachers.

TABLE 20.—Percentages of systems classified according to group, school level, and type of school, in which candidates are interviewed by various persons

Persons interviewing ¹	City school systems					Independent secondary schools (290)	County systems (766)
	Group		School level		All city systems combined (2,685)		
	Cities of more than 100,000 population (204) ¹	Villages of fewer than 2,500 population (690)	Elementary (990)	Senior or 4-year high school (1,026)			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
President of school board.....		8.7	4.2	3.7	3.6	11.0	6.8
Chairman of teachers committee of board.....		5.7	4.3	4.4	4.4	1.7	.9
Members of teachers committee of board.....		10.4	6.5	8.3	6.3	3.8	2.1
Members of school board.....	2.9	15.0	7.6	6.5	6.4	19.6	10.3
Principal of school where teacher is needed.....	12.3	10.9	11.2	19.0	15.4	40.3	18.9
Head of department where teacher is needed.....	5.4	.6	1.4	3.4	2.3	3.4	1.2
General supervisors.....	5.9	.7	4.4	1.8	2.9		2.9
Special subject supervisors.....	13.2		3.1	2.8	3.4		3.8
An assistant superintendent of schools.....	21.1		3.6	3.4	3.9	.3	1.0
Superintendent of schools.....	22.5	47.5	51.5	47.3	49.5	17.2	44.8
Others.....	16.7	.4	2.2	1.5	1.9	2.4	10.9

¹ The number of reports shown do not equal the number of systems because applicants often interview more than one person and because data for all levels have been thrown together. The number shown is the total of the frequencies with which various persons were reported as interviewing applicant.

(3) *Interviews by principals.*—Principals of schools interview from 10.9 per cent of the candidates in places of less than 2,500 population to 20.1 per cent in cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 population. Principals of schools in the East and West also interview teachers more frequently than do the principals of cities in either the South or Middle West. Elementary-school principals interview candidates least frequently and senior or 4-year high school principals interview candidates most frequently.

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(4) *Interviews by heads of departments and supervisors.*—Heads of departments and supervisors also interview some applicants. This practice is reported most frequently in the larger cities and in the Western States.

(5) *Independent secondary schools and county systems.*—School boards of independent secondary schools interview teachers much more frequently than do boards of city systems, but since most of these schools are in small communities this is not unexpected. The practices in county systems are reported to be but little different from those employed in city systems.

Number of teachers interviewed.—In the systems reporting, the number of elementary-school teachers interviewed before appointment for 1929-30 was 6,907; junior high school teachers, 1,292; senior or 4-year high school teachers, 3,171. The average number interviewed per system reporting was found to be 11.5, 3.6, and 5.0, respectively, for elementary, junior, and senior high school teachers. A comparison of these averages with the average number of new teachers appointed for 1929-30 indicates that approximately 43 per cent of the new elementary-school teachers, about 74 per cent of the junior high school teachers, and approximately 93 per cent of the senior high school teachers were interviewed before appointment.

In spite of the fact that the reports of superintendents show practically no differences among the various levels in regard to the policy of requiring interviews, the data relating to the actual number of teachers employed for the year 1929-30 indicate that elementary-school teachers are much more frequently employed without an interview than are junior or senior high school teachers.

Reimbursement of applicants for expenses incurred in securing personal interview.—The expenses incurred by candidates in securing personal interviews must be borne largely by the applicants themselves. Particularly is this true if the applicant is later employed. Only 5 per cent of the cities make any provision for paying either all or part of the candidates' expenses if employed. Only 10 per cent make any provision if the applicant is not employed. (See Table 21.) However, provisions are sometimes made for reimbursing

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candidates in special instances if requested to come a considerable distance for an interview. Almost 5 per cent of the systems do this when the applicant is employed and slightly more than 8 per cent when the candidate is not employed. Provisions for reimbursement of candidates are made most frequently in cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 population and in cities of the Eastern States. Independent secondary schools reimburse applicants in nearly 12 per cent of the systems when candidates are not employed. County superintendents reported that from 2 to 3 per cent of the systems make provision for reimbursing candidates when employed and nearly 5 per cent when not employed.

The amount of reimbursement made for expenses incurred varies considerably. Almost a third of the superintendents reported either all railroad fare or full expenses, nearly a third reported about one-half of the incurred expenses, about 20 per cent reported that it depended upon the circumstances and the distance traveled.

TABLE 21.—Percentages of systems in which applicants are reimbursed for expenses incurred in personal interview

Group and region	When applicant is employed		When applicant is not employed	
	Applicants reimbursed	Applicants sometimes reimbursed	Applicants reimbursed	Applicants sometimes reimbursed
1	2	3	4	5
Group:				
I.....	6.5	3.2	6.5	6.4
II.....	4.7	4.7	12.0	8.7
III.....	8.2	11.5	13.6	16.0
IV.....	4.5	4.5	10.7	8.1
V.....	2.7		6.4	2.6
Region:				
East.....	7.8	8.4	14.2	12.1
Middle West.....	4.7	2.5	11.2	6.0
South.....	2.7	5.4	6.3	9.3
West.....	1.5	3.0	1.4	4.3
All city systems combined.....	5.0	4.8	10.1	8.3
Independent secondary schools.....	2.5	.6	11.7	1.8
County systems.....	1.9	3.1	4.9	4.9

Technique for oral interview.—Definite techniques for conducting the oral interview are reported to have been devised by about 28 per cent of the superintendents of city school

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systems. Superintendents in the East and Middle West reported the use of a technique slightly more frequently than did the superintendents of the South and West. The superintendents in the cities of more than 100,000 population reported such a technique in half of the cases, but those in cities of less than 100,000 population reported a technique in only from 22 to 30 per cent of the systems. County superintendents reported a technique in only about a fifth of the systems.

II. VISITING OF CANDIDATES IN OTHER SCHOOLS

Advantages of visiting candidates.—Probably one of the best single devices for judging an applicant is to observe his work in a situation with which he is familiar. Numerous superintendents follow the policy of narrowing the choice for new teachers to a limited few and then either visiting them personally in their classrooms or sending staff members to observe their work. Sometimes the candidates must come to the city and teach a prepared lesson. Sometimes, if the candidate is inexperienced and in a teacher-training institution, visits are made to interview her supervisor and to observe her in practice teaching.

The advantages of such plans are apparent. They allow the superintendent to observe what an applicant is able to do in a teaching situation. However, several cautions should be kept in mind concerning the use of these plans. A great deal of the superintendents' time and a considerable expenditure of money are required in comparison with other methods of teacher selection. It should be asserted, however, that the expenditure of a reasonable amount of money in locating and securing competent teachers is a highly desirable investment for any school board to make. Good teachers require less detailed supervision, do better classroom work, and if the salary schedule is adequate to pay them sufficiently for their services, their tenure will be longer than would be the case with inferior teachers.

The superintendent should also bear in mind that one visit is a very brief time in which to pass judgment. Many factors which may cause a visit on any one day to show the teacher as poorer or better than she actually is, need to be taken into

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consideration. In spite of the possible objections, the visitation of candidates is highly desirable provided conditions are such to make it practicable for a superintendent to utilize the plan.

Percentages of systems in which candidates are visited in other schools.—Superintendents report that it is their policy to visit applicants who teach in other schools for the purpose of observing their work if conditions make it at all practicable to do so. The extent to which superintendents follow this plan in cities of various sizes, in the various geographical regions, and in the various types of schools is set forth in Table 22. Slightly more than 42 per cent of the city superintendents reported that it is their policy to visit, and almost 17 per cent more added that they sometimes visit in order to observe the applicants' work. Superintendents in the Eastern States reported visitation in a far greater proportion of the systems than did the superintendents of the West and South.

TABLE 22.—Percentages of systems in which candidates are visited by staff members before appointment

Group and region	Visit	Sometimes visit	Do not visit
1	2	3	4
Group:			
I.....	35.5	16.1	48.4
II.....	43.3	17.8	38.9
III.....	53.2	17.7	29.0
IV.....	39.6	19.4	40.9
V.....	36.8	12.9	50.3
Region:			
East.....	66.9	14.5	18.7
Middle West.....	36.0	16.6	47.4
South.....	28.4	20.8	52.8
West.....	21.7	18.8	59.4
All city systems combined.....	42.2	16.6	41.2
Independent secondary schools.....	24.1	5.1	70.9
County systems.....	28.0	3.8	68.2

¹ Includes one case in which elementary-school teachers are visited, but high-school teachers are not visited.

The data for the city school systems compare favorably with the data reported by the National Education Association,²⁷ but percentages of systems using the method are some-

²⁷ National Education Association, Research Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 1, January 1932, p. 24.

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what less than reported by Gough.²⁸ The difference probably is largely accounted for by the fact that the systems used in his study are located wholly within the Middle West and East, and the superintendents of these regions reported a larger percentage of systems following the policy of visiting prospective teachers.

Number of teachers visited in previous positions.—About 715 elementary-school teachers were visited prior to their appointment for the year 1929-30; 153 junior high school teachers were visited prior to appointment; and 365 senior or 4-year high school teachers were visited and appointed. The average number visited per system reporting was found to be 1.4, 0.5, and 0.8, respectively, for elementary junior high school, and senior high school teachers.

A comparison of these averages with the average number of new teachers appointed for the year 1929-30 reveals that very small percentages of the teachers appointed were visited prior to appointment. Obviously, however, if inexperienced teachers were appointed, they could not be visited in previous positions. Approximately 5.3 per cent of the new elementary school teachers appointed were visited before appointment, about 8.7 per cent of the junior high school teachers were visited, and about 12.5 per cent of the senior high school teachers were visited prior to appointment.

Persons making visits.—The data show that in city school systems 1,745 visits were made by staff members to observe the work of 1,233 new teachers who were visited before appointment for the year 1929-30. Consequently, some of these teachers were observed by more than one staff member. The average number of visitations to teachers who were observed is 1.4.

The percentage of the total number of visits made to other systems by staff members according to groups, regions, school levels, and types of schools included in the study is shown in Table 23. In all city school systems combined the superintendents were reported to have made approximately 45 per cent of the total number of visitations, and principals,

²⁸ Gough, H. B. *The Procedure Followed in the Employment of Teachers in Cities of 2,500-5,000 Population*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Minnesota, 1928. pp. 46-47.

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assistant superintendents, general supervisors, and special subject supervisors were reported to have made from 10 to about 18 per cent each. School board members made about 4 per cent of the visits.

In the larger systems superintendents do little visitation themselves, but delegate this function chiefly to principals of schools, to the assistant superintendents, and to supervisors. Superintendents in cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 themselves make most of the visits. Superintendents in the East and West visit more frequently than do superintendents of the Middle West or South. Superintendents also tend to visit elementary-school teachers in a somewhat greater proportion of the cases than they do junior or senior high school teachers. This is largely accounted for by the fact that principals of junior or senior high schools make more visits than do principals of elementary schools. Principals were reported as making a larger percentage of visitations in cities of more than 100,000 and in the Middle Western cities. Supervisors and assistant superintendents were also reported to make a greater proportion of visits in the Middle Western States.

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TABLE 23.—Percentages of the total number of visits to other systems made by the various staff members

Person making visit	City school systems										Independent secondary schools (48)	County systems (882)
	Group		Region				School level		All city systems combined (1,745)			
	I (599)	V (180)	E (739)	M W (831)	S (139)	W (45)	Elementary (768)	Senior or 4-year high school (877)				
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	
Superintendent of schools	3.0	67.8	63.2	24.8	57.6	80.0	48.3	41.6	45.2	31.3	60.3	
Assistant superintendent of schools	24.4	3.8	17.4	17.4	2.9	6.7	10.5	8.2	10.1	8.8	
General supervisor	21.7	6	2.3	16.6	16.5	6.7	11.3	7.8	10.4	8.9	
Special subject supervisor	22.4	3.7	3.7	17.0	3.6	2.2	9.5	8.3	10.0	
Principal to whom teacher was assigned	26.9	11.7	15.2	20.2	17.3	11.1	13.6	25.2	17.7	58.3	8.9	
Head of department to whom teacher was assigned	1.3	6.1	6.1	2.2	3.0	3.2	2.7	6.3	10.4	
President of board	5.5	5.1	1.4	3.8	8	7	
Chairman of teachers' committee of board	5.5	5.1	1.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	
Members of teachers' committee	5.5	5.1	1.2	3.6	3.8	2.6	
Board members	1.7	4	1	6	3	
Others	1.7	.6	2.2	4.2	
												9 13.4

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses show the total number for each group, region, and type of school.

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Boards of education or their committees play a more significant part in the cities of less than 2,500 population, and in the East and Middle West. Almost no difference exists between the role played by the board for elementary and senior high school teachers. The smaller percentage of instances in which board members visit junior high school teachers is probably accounted for by the fact that junior high schools are found more frequently in the larger cities where the boards of education assume less direct responsibility for visiting prospective teachers.

11. SUMMARY

The use of application blanks.—Information concerning teachers is collected in a variety of ways, but the use of application blanks is common to nearly all systems. It is impossible to state an ideal number of items for application blanks. They should be as short as possible and yet serve the function for which they were devised, namely, to furnish school executives with essential information concerning the applicants for teaching and administrative positions. The range of the number of items is large. The lower extreme may indicate that some systems are not requesting certain valuable information, while the upper extreme suggests that other systems are requesting items of useless information. Of course, it must be recognized that complete uniformity of application blanks is not desired, but it is safe to assume that many of the long application blanks call for information which is of little value in selecting the teaching personnel.

The use of reference blanks.—No attempt is made to set up an "ideal" reference form. Although frequency of items is no true criterion of the importance of particular items in any given school system, it is indicative of present practice. The large number of items on some forms and the small number of items on many others show either that school superintendents do not agree among themselves as to what information is important to reference forms or that local conditions vary so much as to necessitate the request for wide varieties of information.

Reference blanks, if they are to be used with greatest success, should conform to certain general standards. They

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should be brief enough to insure careful marking of all traits by the respondent within a reasonable amount of time; they should contain only relevant material and all information which may be obtained by other means should be omitted; they should be so constructed as to be attractive and in a form which may be rapidly and accurately filled out; and they should contain enough descriptive information concerning the rating scale and the traits listed to insure that the respondent and the superintendent receiving the form have a common understanding as to the traits upon which the applicant is to be judged.

The use of examinations.—Written and oral examinations are held in only about 4 per cent of the systems and then in only the larger systems. The value of an examination system lies in the manner in which the tests are constructed, administered, and interpreted. The consensus of opinion, however, seems to be that unless a city is prepared to undertake a comprehensive system of examinations it should not attempt this method of selecting teachers.

Other methods of collecting information.—Open letters are given some credence, the photograph is usually requested, health and physical examinations are frequently required, candidates are interviewed in almost all of the systems, and candidates, if teaching, are visited by staff officers from about 60 per cent of the systems prior to appointment.

Effectiveness of methods and devices used.—Studies made of the effectiveness of most of the techniques used show a low predictive value. The photograph has little predictive value; the reliability of superintendents' recommendations may often be questioned; academic and professional tests correlate relatively low with teaching success; few superintendents judge candidates on an interview or in observation of their teaching except through personal impression.

Tiegs²⁰ says,

The reasons for the present low status of prediction techniques appear, in a general way, to be clear. Teaching success can not be satisfactorily predicted unless teaching service can be adequately evaluated when it is observed; and in the past teaching service has, to a large extent, not been correctly evaluated because rating officers have attempted to work

²⁰ Tiegs, Ernest W. *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection*. Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., p. 76.

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with concepts so general in nature as to require their personal reactions to facts of teacher and pupil activity, rather than a faithful recording and adequate understanding of these facts themselves.

Although the problem of predicting teaching success is far from solved, superintendents and principals of schools should keep in mind that the selection of teachers is one of the most important functions of school executives. The superintendent who is cognizant of this fact should attempt to obtain as much reliable information as possible about both the inexperienced and the experienced teachers who are being considered for positions. He should then in cooperation with principals and supervisors weigh all the evidence and nominate only those persons who possess every qualification that he and his principals and supervisors think essential.

CHAPTER VI : PROCEDURES IN APPOINTING THE TEACHING AND ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

1. THE PROBLEM

Steps involved in selecting personnel.—The actual selection and appointment of teachers involves several steps among which are: (1) the selection of the candidates, (2) the nomination of the selected candidates, (3) the ratification of the nominations by the board, (4) the signing of contracts or issuance of formal notices of appointment, (5) and the assignment to specific positions. It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss only the actual procedures followed in the selection and appointment of candidates for teaching and administrative positions. Attempts will also be made to relate the methods used with other factors.

Related studies.—Much has been written concerning the persons or agencies who should select the teaching personnel but most of the investigations have been limited in one way or another. Some are too old to be of value in showing present-day conditions, some attempt to investigate the problem in a single State, some attempt rather general investigations in several States, and many attempt to investigate only one phase of the problem in considerable detail.

Ballou¹ in 1915 reported a complete analysis of methods followed in the appointment of teachers in 73 cities. This investigation represents one of the best studies of the problem, but the author made no attempt to discover the procedures followed in locating teachers, gathering information concerning applicants, or interviewing candidates. His report deals with the methods used and the extent to which the various administrative authorities cooperate in the appointment of teachers. The date of the study makes it valuable chiefly for comparative purposes.

¹ Ballou, Frank W. *The Appointment of Teachers in Cities.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1905. 202 p.

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Johnson,² Adams,³ Burgeson,⁴ and Wait⁵ are among those who have made studies of the selection and appointment of teachers in a single State. Obviously, such studies, while they are of value in certain restricted areas, do not treat the problem from a national point of view.

Many studies have been made dealing with specific phases of the problem, but these usually treat a particular technique for locating or judging available candidates. They seldom discuss the methods and procedures involved in the actual selection and appointment of teachers.

Gough⁶ has reported a comprehensive study of 234 school systems in cities of 2,500 to 5,000 population in eight North Central and two Eastern States. This study is one of the better investigations in the field, but is of limited value in a national survey of the problem because of its restricted scope both with respect to the size of cities studied and also with respect to the geographical distribution of the cities.

This brief analysis of the extent to which previous studies have treated the actual procedures followed in the selection and appointment of teachers shows that none has concerned itself with many phases of the problem for cities of different sizes, for cities of different geographical regions, for different types of schools, and⁷ for both elementary and secondary-school levels.

1. PROCEDURES USED IN APPOINTING TEACHERS

Methods used in city school systems.—Through a comprehensive inquiry form the survey obtained data concerning the procedures used in the appointment of teachers by requesting superintendents to check, in a list provided, the procedure followed in their systems for each of three school

¹ Johnson, Baldo E. *Analysis of Certain Factors Concerned in the Selection of Teachers in the Smaller School Systems of Minnesota*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Minnesota, 1928.

² Adams, Logan S. *Selecting, Assigning, and Starting the New Teacher*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Texas, 1926. 100 p. ms.

³ Burgeson, W. Bernard. *Current Factors Affecting Teacher Selection in South Dakota*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of South Dakota, 1929. 36 p. ms.

⁴ Wait, Wallace T. *A Study of the Criteria for the Selection of High-School Teachers*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Washington, 1926.

⁵ Gough, H. B. *The Procedure Followed in the Employment of Teachers in Cities of 2,500 to 5,000 Population*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Minnesota, 1928. 126 p. ms.

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levels, namely, elementary school, junior high school, and senior and 4-year high school. The procedures listed are as follows:⁷

- A. Does the board of education or a committee of the board appoint teachers without official participation by the superintendent?
 - 1. The board makes the appointment.
 - 2. A committee of the board takes the initial step and the board makes the appointment.
 - 3. A committee of the board makes the appointment, subject to approval by the board.
- B. Does the superintendent take the initial steps by nominating candidates?
 - 1. The superintendent takes the initial steps, and the board makes the appointment.
 - 2. The superintendent takes the initial steps, a committee approves the action, and the board appoints.
 - 3. The superintendent takes the initial steps, a committee appoints subject to the approval by the board.
- C. Does superintendent make the appointment to be confirmed or rejected by the board?
 - 1. The superintendent makes the appointments and the board approves.
 - 2. The superintendent makes the appointments, a committee of the board approves, and the board confirms.
 - 3. The superintendent makes the appointments, subject only to rejection by the board.
- D. Other procedures.

During the course of the discussion and in the following tables, reference will frequently be made to these procedures by letter and number. The general procedures (A, B, C, and D as listed above) used in the selection and appointment of teachers in city systems of various sizes in the different geographical regions, and for each of the three school levels are presented in Table 24. The ensuing discussion at this point deals only with the methods used when a single method is reported by the superintendent of a school system. Although Table 24 shows the combinations of methods used, the discussion of the combinations of methods will be given in a later section.

(1) *Differences among methods.*—Of all the superintendents reporting (see Column 11, Table 24), less than 2 per cent indicated that the board of education or its committees

⁷ Taken from Ballou, *op. cit.* pp. 16-41.

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appoint teachers without the official participation of the superintendent; about 46 per cent reported that the superintendents take the initial step by nominating candidates; about a fourth reported that the superintendent makes the appointment to be confirmed or rejected by the board; nearly 3 per cent reported miscellaneous or other methods.

(2) *Differences among school levels.*—Little difference exists among the procedures followed in selecting teachers at the different school levels. Not only does this conclusion hold true for all groups combined but it also obtains for each of the groups and regions. Differences in no case are larger than 5 per cent of the number of reports and they are usually considerably less.

TABLE 24.—Percentages of city school systems and independent secondary schools using certain procedures in the selection and appointment of teachers

Procedure	City school systems										All city systems combined	Independent secondary schools	
	Population groups					Regions							
	I	II	III	IV	V	E	M	W	S	W			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
Elementary-school teachers:													
A		1.1	0.8	0.7	4.6	1.2		3.2				1.8	(7)
B	36.5	44.4	39.2	24.7	15.7	8.4	49.1	44.8	52.0	46.5		47.2	
C	38.8	25.6	27.2	22.1	6.1	9.2	22.7	30.8	10.6	16.9		24.0	
D	16.1	2.2	1.6		3.8	3.7		2.4	2.7	1.4		2.7	
Combinations of methods	9.6	23.7	31.2	30.6	14.0	23.3		18.8	34.7	25.2		24.3	
Junior high school teachers:													
A		1.5			2.5	.9		1.2				.8	
B	32.2	45.6	36.8	48.6	56.8	45.9		43.5	48.7	46.3		45.0	
C	42.8	28.5	28.8	24.3	19.7	25.3		33.2	8.1	18.5		28.3	
D	17.9	2.9	1.1		3.7	3.6		2.4	5.4	1.9		3.0	
Combinations of methods	7.1	23.5	33.3	29.1	17.3	24.3		19.6	37.8	33.3		24.9	
Senior or 4-year high school teachers:													
A		1.1			3.5	1.2		1.8				1.1	8.2
B	37.4	45.0	38.9	46.1	58.7	48.1		46.3	50.7	43.7		47.2	41.1
C	37.6	23.5	28.0	22.3	22.6	23.8		30.5	10.6	21.9		24.6	24.7
D	15.6	3.4	1.7	.7	3.4	3.7		2.5	4.0	1.6		3.0	3.2
Combinations of methods	9.4	27.0	31.4	30.9	12.4	23.2		18.9	34.7	32.8		24.1	22.8

¹ A. Board of education or committee of the board appoints teachers without official participation by the superintendent. B. Superintendent takes initial steps by nominating candidates. C. Superintendent makes the appointment to be confirmed or rejected by the board. D. Other methods and procedures.

² No independent secondary schools reported elementary or junior high school grades.

(3) *Differences among population groups.*—Boards of education in the smaller cities assume the responsibility independently of the superintendent more often than in the larger

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cities. Superintendents in the smaller cities take the initial steps by nominating candidates to be approved and appointed either by a committee or the whole board only slightly more often than in the larger cities. Superintendents in cities of more than 100,000 make appointments more frequently than in smaller cities and a positive relationship exists between the size of city and the percentage of superintendents making the actual appointments. Other methods are employed almost altogether in the cities of more than 100,000 population.

It should be remembered that the reports on these different procedures were made by superintendents who generally are well versed in modern educational theory and practice. Since school board initiative in the appointment of teachers is generally condemned by authorities on school administration, it may be that a smaller proportion of replies was received from superintendents who do not nominate teachers than from those who do. If such was the case, the part played by boards of education or their committees generally would be greater than is indicated in this study.

(4) *Differences among geographical regions.*—Boards of education assume the responsibility slightly more often in the systems in the Middle West; superintendents in the South nominate the candidates more often than in any other region; and superintendents of the Middle West appoint teachers most frequently. In the Middle West superintendents nominate candidates somewhat less frequently and in the South they appoint least frequently. Although the differences are small, these conclusions hold for all school levels.

The conclusions to be drawn concerning the methods used for selecting and appointing teachers seem to point towards the fact that boards of education wholly perform the function in less than 2 per cent of the systems; that the superintendents nominate in somewhat less than half the systems; that the superintendents appoint in about one-fourth of the systems; and that combinations of methods are used in nearly one-fourth of the systems. Boards of education assume greatest responsibility in small cities and in the Middle West and superintendents appoint most frequently in the large cities. Practically no differences exist between the methods of choosing teachers at the various school levels.

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Methods used in independent secondary schools.—School boards of independent secondary schools select and appoint teachers without the official participation of the administrative head of the schools more frequently than do the boards for city systems. Superintendents or principals of these schools nominate teachers less frequently but appoint teachers in about the same proportion of the systems as do superintendents of city systems. (See Table 24, Column 12.) One possible explanation for this is the fact that independent secondary schools are frequently found in the small communities where the board assumes more administrative control of the school system than boards in larger communities.

Methods used in county systems.—For the county systems it was necessary to secure data in a slightly different form. As a result, the inquiry form sent to county superintendents not only asked concerning the items of information requested from city superintendents but also included an additional item relating to the appointment by local district school boards.

The county board appoints teachers at any level without participation of the county superintendent in less than 4 per cent of the counties. (See Table 25.) Superintendents nominate elementary-school teachers in about one-fourth of the counties and nominate junior and senior high school teachers in almost one-third of the counties.

TABLE 25.—Percentages of county systems using certain procedures exclusively in the selection and appointment of teachers

Procedure	School level		
	Elementary school teachers	Junior high school teachers	Senior or 4-year high school teachers
1	2	3	4
A. County board appoints without official participation of county superintendent.....	1.2	3.7	1.9
B. County superintendent nominates candidates.....	25.7	32.8	30.7
C. County superintendent appoints candidates subject to approval of board.....	16.2	15.9	18.1
D. Local district boards nominate or appoint teachers.....	13.6	8.5	11.3
E. Other methods.....	2.4	2.7	2.5
Combinations of above methods.....	35.9	35.4	35.0

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County superintendents appoint teachers at all levels in about 8 per cent fewer systems than in city school systems. Local district boards select or appoint teachers in from nearly 9 per cent of the counties for junior high school teachers to nearly 19 per cent for elementary-school teachers. A comparison of data in Table 25 with those reported in Table 24 discloses that county superintendents both nominate and appoint candidates less frequently than do superintendents of city systems; that the county boards also assume the function in a slightly greater proportion of the systems; and that local district boards frequently play an important role in the nomination and appointment of teachers at the different local schools.

Part played by committees of school boards.—The rules and regulations pertaining to the selection and appointment of teachers frequently provide for the participation of school-board committees in this function. This participation may be of such a nature that the committee has considerable authority in the matter of choosing the personnel or it may be such that its action is largely a perfunctory routine duty. Since it is clearly apparent (see Table 26) that committees of boards assume little more responsibility for the selection of teachers at one school level than at another, the following discussion will be limited entirely to the rôle played by school board committees in the selection of senior or 4-year high school teachers.

Committees of the board take the initial step (see Items A2 and A3) in less than 1 per cent of the school systems reporting. Superintendents take the initial step by locating, selecting, and nominating candidates for teaching positions to school board committees (see Items B2 and B3) in about 16.8 per cent, and superintendents appoint subject to the approval of a committee of the board (see Item C2) in 3.7 per cent of the systems. Consequently, in about a fifth of the city school systems the appointment of teachers either is made by a committee of the board or is approved by it. School board committees play a considerably less important rôle in the independent secondary schools and function practically not at all in the county systems. This may in part be attributed to the fact that local school trustees in several of

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the county-unit States are delegated some authority in selecting teachers.

TABLE 26.—Percentages of systems in which committees of the board nominate, approve the nomination, or actually appoint teachers

[Methods used singly]

Procedures for—	City school systems						Independent secondary schools	County systems
	Group					All combined		
	I	II	III	IV	V			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Elementary schools:								
A2 ¹		1.1	0.8		0.7	0.5		
A3.....				0.7	7	4		
B2.....	16.1	31.1	16.0	8.9	8.3	14.3		0.6
B3.....		1.1	2.4	4.4	1.9	2.5		1.8
C2.....	6.5	6.7	1.6	3.8	3.2	3.8		
Total.....	22.6	40.0	20.8	17.8	14.8	21.5		2.4
Junior high schools:								
A2.....		1.5				0.3		
A3.....								
B2.....	14.3	32.4	18.9	7.8	9.9	15.9		
B3.....				4.9		1.4		1.2
C2.....	7.1	5.9	2.2	4.9	2.5	4.1		
Total.....	21.4	39.8	21.1	17.6	12.4	21.7		1.2
Senior or 4-year high schools:								
A2.....		1.1				0.4	0.6	
A3.....							.6	
B2.....	15.6	29.2	16.9	9.2	9.0	14.6	5.1	0.6
B3.....		2.3	.8	4.6	1.4	2.2	2.5	1.3
C2.....	6.3	6.7	.8	3.9	3.4	3.7	1.9	
Total.....	21.9	39.3	18.5	17.7	13.8	20.9	10.7	1.9

¹ A2. A committee of the board takes the initial step and the board makes the appointment.
A3. A committee of the board makes the appointment subject to the approval of the board.
B2. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee approves, and the board appoints.
B3. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee appoints, subject to approval by the board.
C2. The superintendent makes the appointment, a committee of the board approves it, and the board confirms it.

A positive relationship exists between the percentage of systems in which school board committees participate and the size of city except for cities of more than 100,000 where the rôle played by the school board committees decreases considerably in importance. Facts not presented in Table 26 indicate that in the South committees participate in only about a tenth of the systems as compared with almost a fourth in the Eastern or Middle Western States. In all of the groups and regions the chief functions of the school board committee in selecting teachers are: (1) to approve

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the nomination of candidates by the superintendent and present them to the board, (2) to approve appointments made by superintendents and present them to the board, and (3) to appoint the candidates nominated by the superintendent and present these appointments to the board for final confirmation.

Criticisms of participation by board committees.—Inasmuch as the reports made by superintendents probably minimize the extent to which school boards assume the initiative in selecting teachers, the number of systems in which school boards or their committees select teachers may be considerably greater than as reported. As a result of this, even in spite of the modern tendency to delegate the responsibility for selecting the teaching personnel to the superintendent, many systems may be found in which the selection of teachers is not considered a professional task. Educational leaders consider this highly unfortunate. This point of view is well illustrated by a survey report of the Public Schools of Nashville, Tenn., which states:⁸

Obviously, if any duties ought to be reserved as the sole function of the Board's trained executive officer, the superintendent, these duties are those concerned with the selection and management of the personnel. There can be no equivocation on this point. To do other than what is proposed is to rob boys and girls of that efficiency in the classroom to which they are entitled.

Cubberley also stresses the same point by stating:⁹—

No one can be more interested in securing the best teachers available than is the superintendent of schools; no one knows the needs of positions better than he; no one is likely to be able to discriminate better as to preparation, professional attitude, and adaptability than is he; and no one is less likely to engage in nepotism or politics or to be influenced by pull than he. He will from time to time make some mistakes, to be sure, but he will make a much smaller number than will teachers' committees or boards of education.

Nomination and appointment of teachers by superintendents.—It has been shown in Table 24 that superintendents take the initial step in locating, selecting, and nominating candidates for senior high school positions in 47.2 per cent

⁸ Bachman, F. P., et al. Public Schools of Nashville, Tenn. Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., 1931. p. 335.

⁹ Cubberley, E. P. Public School Administration. New York, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1918. pp. 205-206.

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of the systems. The nominations made by superintendents are approved by a committee in about 16.8 per cent of these systems and are presented directly to the board for approval in the remaining 30.4 per cent. Superintendents appoint candidates for secondary-school positions in 24.6 per cent of the systems. In these cases, appointments are approved or confirmed by a committee in 3.7 per cent of the systems and are presented directly to the board of education in the remaining 20.9 per cent of the systems.

Other procedures used in selecting teachers.—It has also been pointed out that other methods for selecting and appointing teachers are used in about 3 per cent of the city systems. These methods are used most frequently in cities of more than 100,000 population. Among these plans are: (1) automatic selection and appointment of candidates from eligible lists; (2) the employment of teachers by director of teacher employment, by an examining board, or by a personnel department; and (3) final appointment by the superintendent without approval of the board of education. More detailed discussion and illustrations of the plans will be made later in the report. It was asserted previously that superintendents and principals do not always report the use of a single method of selecting teachers to the exclusion of all other methods. Frequently two or even three methods are reported on the inquiry forms. The following discussion seeks to show the different combinations of methods used by school systems for appointing teachers at the different school levels, in cities of different sizes, and in various geographical regions of the country.

Differences among the combinations of methods used in appointing teachers to the different school levels are practically nonexistent. (See Table 27.) Not only are the percentages of systems reporting the use of two or more methods almost exactly the same for all levels but the percentage of systems reporting the use of each of the different combinations of methods are almost identical at the three school levels.

The combination used most frequently is a combination of methods whereby superintendents sometimes only nominate candidates to the board or one of its committees for final

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approval and sometimes actually appoint the candidates. This combination of methods (B and C) was reported for the appointment of secondary-school teachers in about 17 per cent of the systems. This situation usually exists because in the spring when the whole problem of teacher selection is under consideration superintendents only nominate candidates to the school board, but during the summer, immediately preceding the opening of school, or during the year when an unexpected vacancy occurs superintendents are permitted to make the actual appointments subject to the later approval by the board.

The next most frequently mentioned combination for senior high school teachers is that caused by the different procedures within "Method B" in which the superintendents only nominate candidates. Sometimes the nomination is made directly to the board of education but at other times the nomination is submitted to a school board committee. A combination of methods in which the board sometimes assumes complete authority and sometimes delegates to the superintendent authority to nominate candidates was reported in 2.4 per cent of the systems. No other combinations were reported in as many as 1 per cent of the systems.

TABLE 27.—Combinations of procedures used in the selection and appointment of senior or 4-year high school teachers in city school systems

Combinations of procedures used	Per cent of systems using each combination of methods in—										
	Group					Region				All combined	
	I	II	III	IV	V	E	MW	S	W		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Combinations of method:											
A ¹		1.1					0.4				0.2
B.....		5.7	1.7	3.9	0.7	3.1	2.1	2.7	3.1		2.6
C.....		1.1	3.3			.6	.4	1.3	3.1		.9
Combination of A and B.....		3.3	4.2	2.6	.7	4.3	.9	4.0	1.6		2.4
B and C.....	9.4	14.7	20.5	22.3	11.0	13.4	14.7	23.4	23.4		16.9
B and D.....		1.1				.6					.2
C and D.....				.7		.6					.2
A, B, C.....			1.7	1.4		.6	.4	1.3	1.6		.7
Total.....	9.4	27.0	31.4	30.9	12.4	23.2	18.9	34.7	32.8		24.1

¹ A. Board of education or committee of the board appoints teachers without official participation by the superintendent.

B. Superintendent takes initial steps by nominating candidates.

C. Superintendent makes the appointment to be confirmed or rejected by the board.

D. Other methods and procedures.

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3. METHODS USED FOR SELECTING THE ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

Source of data.—Data relating to the methods used in selecting the administrative and supervisory staff were obtained from inquiry forms mailed to superintendents of city school systems in connection with another project of the survey, relating to the administrative and supervisory staff. Returns were received from 357 superintendents. These returns were classified into the same geographical regions as were the returns for this study. The population Groups I, II, and III are the same. Group IV in the project relating to the administrative and supervisory staff includes cities from 5,000 to 10,000 only and no cities were included of less than 5,000 population. The data were collected by modifying the page of the inquiry form used for ascertaining practices relating to teacher selection. Consequently, the data relative to the methods used for choosing the administrative staff are comparable to those collected relative to methods used for choosing the teaching corps.

Procedures used in appointing staff officers. (1) Similarity of data.—The most significant tendency to be noted from a comparison of the data relating to the manner of selecting and appointing the administrative and supervisory staff is that the various methods are reported in almost exactly the same proportions of school systems for all school levels as were reported for the selection of classroom teachers. (See Tables 24 and 28.) The similarity of the data points strongly to the general conclusion that the administrative staff members are selected by exactly the same methods as are classroom teachers. It also tends to show the reliability of the data on both projects.

(2) Differences among school levels.—Differences among the school levels are in general very slight and usually amount to no more than 1 or 2 per cent. In view of these small differences among the school levels, attention will be given chiefly to the selection of staff members for the senior or 4-year high schools.

(3) Differences among population groups.—Differences among the methods reported for classroom teachers and staff officers differ considerably when compared by population groups. Yet in spite of this, the results for all superintend-

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ents combined agree almost perfectly for all school levels. In the larger systems administrative staff officers are nominated somewhat more frequently by the superintendent than are classroom teachers. On the other hand, in the smaller systems classroom teachers are nominated more frequently by the superintendent. In the larger cities, classroom teachers are appointed by the superintendent more frequently than are staff officers. Combinations of methods while varying greatly with respect to the selection of teachers, differ relatively little in the selection of staff officers.

TABLE 28.—*Procedures used in the selection and appointment of the administrative and supervisory staff*

Methods and procedures	Per cent of systems using each method in city school systems									
	Group				Region				All combined	
	I	II	III	IV	E	M W	S	W		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Elementary school:										
A ¹			2.6		1.8	0.9				0.9
B.....	52.7	50.8	45.3	44.5	56.9	39.3	49.2	36.7		47.2
C.....	22.8	17.9	23.4	28.3	17.5	30.3	23.7	20.0		23.5
D.....			.9		.9					.3
Combination.....	25.0	31.3	27.8	27.2	22.9	29.5	27.1	43.3		28.1
Junior high school:										
A.....			2.3		1.3	1.2				.9
B.....	58.7	52.6	49.3	41.4	56.2	41.8	57.5	40.8		49.4
C.....	17.2	19.3	20.3	31.0	18.7	27.9	20.0	18.5		22.3
D.....			1.1		1.3					.4
Combination.....	24.1	28.1	27.0	27.6	22.5	29.1	22.5	40.7		27.0
Senior or 4-year high school:										
A.....			2.7	2.4	2.9	1.9				1.7
B.....	54.3	52.3	44.1	42.3	55.2	39.7	48.2	36.7		46.6
C.....	22.8	20.0	22.9	29.4	19.0	31.2	23.2	20.0		24.2
D.....			.9		1.0					.3
Combination.....	22.9	27.7	29.4	25.9	21.9	27.2	28.6	43.3		27.2

¹ A. Board of education or committee of the board appoints staff members without participation by the superintendent. B. Superintendent takes initial steps by nominating candidates. C. Superintendent makes the appointment to be confirmed or rejected by the board. D. Other methods and procedures.

(4) *Differences among geographical regions.*—In the East the superintendent of schools nominates staff officers more frequently than does the superintendent in other sections of the country. In the Middle West he appoints such officers more frequently than does the superintendent in other sections.

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Role played by school board committees.—Because the differences in the role played by school board committees vary so little among the three school levels, Table 29 and the following discussion treats only the methods of appointing the administrative personnel of senior or 4-year high schools. Relatively slight differences are found between the rôle assumed by committees for the selection of senior high school teachers and administrative officials of secondary schools. Committees were reported as taking the initiative in only about 1 per cent of the systems, but as pointed out previously, this percentage probably minimizes the extent of this practice. School board committees have a part in the selection and appointment of staff members in about 27.8 per cent of the systems. Superintendents nominate both high school teachers and administrative staff officers more frequently in cities of 30,000 to 100,000 than in any other population group.

TABLE 29.—Percentages of city systems in which a committee of the board either nominates, approves the nomination, or actually appoints members of the administrative staff in senior and 4-year high schools

[Methods used singly]

Procedures	Group				Region				All combined
	I	II	III	IV	E	M W	S	W	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A2.....			1.8	1.2	1.0	1.9			1.0
B2.....	25.7	29.2	22.0	10.6	24.8	25.2	12.5	6.7	20.7
B3.....		4.6	.9	2.4		3.9	1.8	3.3	2.0
C2.....	5.7	1.5	4.6	4.7	3.8	4.9	3.6	3.3	4.1
Total.....	31.4	35.3	29.3	18.9	29.6	35.9	17.9	13.3	27.8

¹ A2. A committee of the board takes the initial step and the board makes the appointment. B2. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee approves, and the board appoints. B3. The superintendent takes the initial step, a committee appoints, subject to approval by the board. C2. The superintendent makes the appointment, a committee of the board approves it, and the board confirms it.

Combinations of methods used.—Although the percentage of systems reporting the use of a combination of methods for choosing the administrative staff members was larger than the proportion using a combination for the selection of classroom teachers, the types of methods used are much more limited. Of the 27 per cent of the systems reporting the use of a combination of methods, 24.5 per cent report the com-

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ination to be nomination by the superintendent and sometimes appointment by the superintendent. Only three other combinations are reported at all. (See Table 30.) The above conclusions hold true for all school levels to approximately the same extent even though the percentages vary somewhat from group to group and from region to region.

TABLE 30.—Percentages of city systems in which combinations of procedures are used in the selection and appointment of the administrative and supervisory staffs for senior and 4-year high schools

Combinations of procedures	Per cent of systems using each combination of methods								
	Group				Region				All combined
	I	II	III	IV	E	M W	S	W	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Combinations of Method B ¹			1.9	1.2		1.0		6.7	1.0
Combination of A and B.....			1.9	2.4	1.0	1.0	1.8	3.3	1.4
B and C.....	22.9	26.2	25.6	22.3	20.9	24.2	26.8	33.3	24.5
A, B, C.....		1.5				1.0			.3
Total.....	22.9	27.7	29.4	25.9	21.9	27.2	28.6	43.3	27.2

¹ A. Board of education or committee of the board appoints teachers without official participation by the superintendent. B. Superintendent takes initial steps by nominating candidates. C. Superintendent makes the appointment to be confirmed or rejected by the board. D. Other methods and procedures.

4. PART PLAYED BY SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Source of data.—Data showing the part played by secondary-school principals in selecting the staff for their schools were collected by means of another inquiry form used in the project dealing with the administrative and supervisory staff. Principals of 464 secondary schools furnished usable data concerning this question. The practices by which principals cooperate with superintendents in this function are varied. These data are presented in Table 31. In many systems the principal plays no part at all, in others he advises or confers with the superintendents, in still others he actually selects and nominates the new teachers.

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TABLE 31.—Percentages of city secondary-school principals reporting their responsibility in the selection of teaching personnel

Part played by principal	Population group				All combined (464)
	I (128)	II (91)	III (139)	IV (106)	
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. No part.....	32.0	18.7	16.5	20.8	22.2
2. Advisory only; at times consulted by superintendent.....	16.4	11.0	19.4	15.1	15.9
3. Aid in rating candidates; interview and give opinion.....	1.6	4.4	7.2	7.5	5.2
4. Confer with superintendent—joint action.....	16.4	37.4	30.2	42.5	30.6
5. Principal recommends to superintendent.....	25.8	25.3	20.9	12.3	21.1
6. Nomination by principal, approved by superintendent and board.....	6.2	3.3	3.6	.9	3.7
7. Selected by principal from highest on eligible list.....	.8				.2
8. Principal selects and recommends to board.....	.8		2.2	.9	1.1

NOTE.—The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of reports from secondary-school principals in each group.

The items listed in Table 31 may be classified into four general groups representing a gradation from no responsibility to complete responsibility by the principal as follows: (1) Principal plays no part—item 1; (2) principal serves in an advisory capacity—items 2, 3, and 4; (3) principal recommends candidates to superintendent—items 5 and 6; (4) principal selects independently of superintendent—items 7 and 8.

How principal participates.—Between a fifth and a fourth of the principals claim that they have no part whatsoever in the selection of the teachers assigned to them. They must take what they get regardless of the fact that the principal is the person who must work with these teachers, supervise them, and largely be held accountable for their success or failure. Lewis¹⁰ has stated in unmistakable terms, "The person who has to work with the teacher should always be consulted before the selection is made. No principal or supervisor should be deprived of the right of passing judgment on new teachers that he directs."

Slightly more than half of the principals report that they only advise, and about a fourth report that they nominate to the superintendent. The superintendent is actually

¹⁰ Lewis, E. E. *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*. New York, The Century Company, 1925. p. 117.

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responsible for the nomination or the appointment of teachers in all but about 1.3 per cent of the systems.

Differences among groups and regions.—In the cities of more than 100,000 the principals of about a third of the secondary schools have no voice in the selection of their teachers; in cities of 10,000 to 30,000 they have no part in 16.5 per cent of the schools. In addition an inverse relationship exists between the percentage of schools where the principal serves in an advisory capacity and the size of city in which the school is located. Likewise, a direct relationship exists between the size of city and the percentage of schools in which the principals make nominations to the superintendent. Although the differences are relatively small, data not presented in Table 31 indicate that principals of the Middle West and South have a part in the selection of the staff somewhat more frequently than do the principals of the other regions.

5. METHODS OF APPOINTING SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS AS RELATED TO OTHER FACTORS

The question at issue.—Is there any relationship between the various methods used in the actual selection and appointment of teachers and factors such as (1) the methods used in locating teachers, (2) the visiting of candidates, (3) the interviewing of candidates, and (4) the training of the superintendents? Is there any relationship between the extent of the participation by the principal and factors such as (1) the size of school, (2) the total educational experience of the principals, and (3) the degree of centralization in the organization for the administration of educational affairs? The following discussion presents data bearing on these questions.

Methods of selecting teachers as related to methods of locating teachers.—In systems in which superintendents nominate teachers to the board or to a committee of the board, about a fifth of the secondary-school teachers are located through placement bureaus of higher institutions, about half through applications by individual teachers, and more than a fifth through private teachers' agencies. (See Fig. 8.) When superintendents actually appoint teachers, placement bureaus of higher institutions and of private agencies are used more frequently than where the superintendent only nominates.

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When a combination of methods is used, applications of individual teachers are utilized less and placement bureaus of higher institutions are utilized more than they are when other methods are used for selecting the teaching corps.

Methods of selecting teachers as related to visits to candidates.—In systems where the superintendents only nominate,

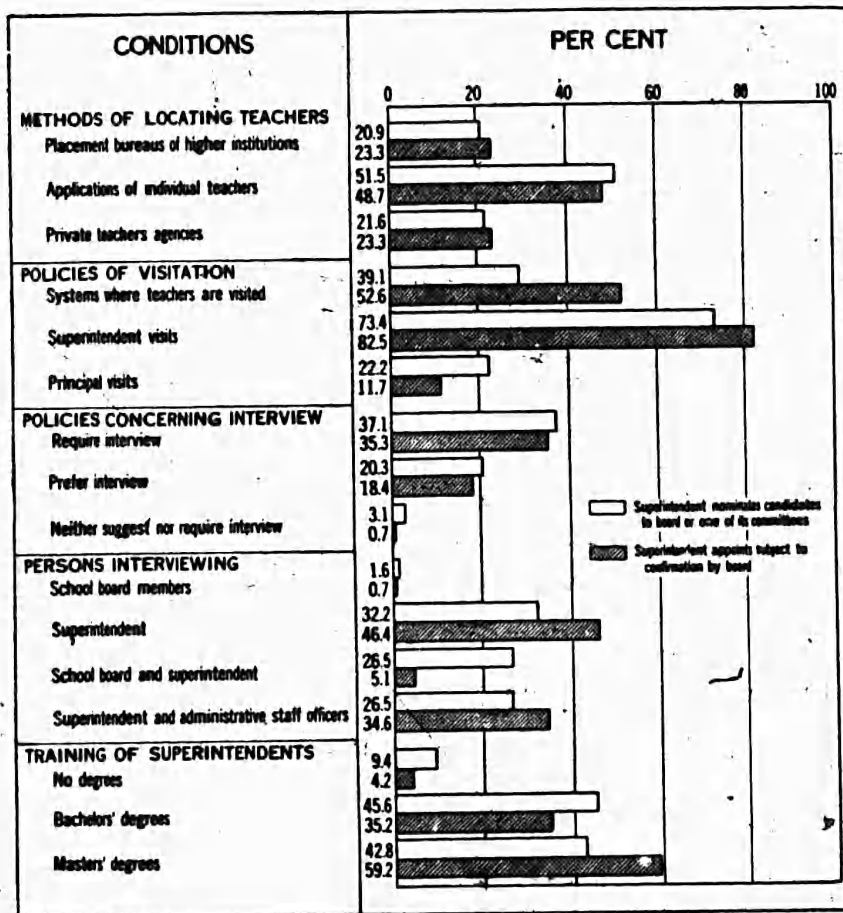


FIGURE 8.—Percentages of superintendents who follow various methods and policies in nominating or appointing teachers, with added data on the training of superintendents in relationship to nominating or appointing power.

teachers were reported to be visited in their positions in 39 per cent of the systems. (See Fig. 8.) But in the systems where superintendents appoint, teachers were reported to be visited in more than half of the systems. Furthermore, in systems where teachers are visited and the superintendents only nominate, the visitation is made by superintendents in

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about 73 per cent of the systems, but when superintendents make the appointment they visit in almost 83 per cent of the systems. Such differences as these point toward the fact that superintendents exercise more care in choosing teachers when they bear the whole responsibility of locating, selecting, and appointing the candidates.

Methods of selecting teachers as related to the use of the personal interview.—No apparent differences exist between the policies with respect to personal interviews with applicants for secondary-school positions in systems where superintendents only nominate and in systems where they appoint. (See Fig. 8.) Since superintendents who appoint teachers report a somewhat greater degree of visitation, it is not surprising to note that a slightly greater percentage of the superintendents who only nominate applicants require personal interviews. It should be asserted, however, that the difference just mentioned is offset by the slightly larger proportion of superintendents who only nominate candidates and neither ask nor suggest an interview at all. Consequently, it appears that the method of selection used bears no appreciable relation to requiring personal interviews of applicants.

When superintendents only nominate candidates for high-school positions they personally interview applicants in about a third of the systems. When they actually appoint applicants they personally interview them in almost half of the systems. The difference is even greater with respect to the proportion of applicants for elementary-school positions interviewed by the superintendents when only nominating as contrasted with when actually appointing. These facts are highly significant and tend to substantiate the conclusion made with respect to the visitation of candidates, namely, that when superintendents are delegated the sole responsibility of locating, selecting, and appointing the staff, they give more personal attention to the problem of the selection of personnel.

Methods of selecting administrative and supervisory staff as related to training of superintendent.—The differences in types of degrees held by superintendents who only nominate and who appoint are striking. (See Fig. 8.) Superintendents

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who have the most advanced training most frequently appoint staff members subject only to the approval or confirmation of the board. One should not conclude from the data shown that boards necessarily allow superintendents with advanced training more freedom in the matter of personnel selection. It may be true that they do, but it is also entirely possible that the type of school board which is particularly desirous of having a good school system and employs a well-trained superintendent, also recognizes the fact that the selection of the teaching and administrative staff is a

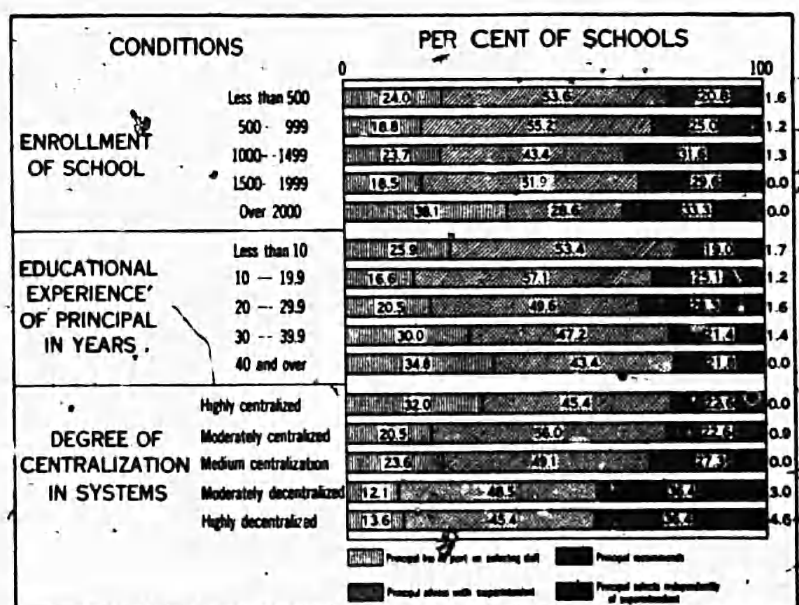


FIGURE 9.—Extent of participation by secondary-school principals in the selection of their staffs.

technical educational function for which they as laymen are not well fitted. Accordingly they may delegate to the superintendent the responsibility for locating, selecting, and appointing teachers.

Participation of principal as related to enrollment of school.—As may be noted in Figure 9, principals of schools enrolling 2,000 or more pupils take part less frequently in the selection of teachers than do the principals of smaller schools. On the other hand, a greater percentage of principals of the larger high schools recommend teachers. Principals of high schools enrolling fewer than 500 pupils recommend less fre-

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quently than do principals of larger schools. Principals of schools enrolling from 500 to 1,000 pupils advise with the superintendent relative to the selection of teachers more frequently than do principals of smaller or larger schools.

Participation of principal as related to the total educational experience.—Except for the group of principals who have had less than 10 years of experience, a direct relationship was found between the number of year's experience and the percentage of principals who report that they have nothing to say concerning the selection of teachers. More than 57 per cent of the principals with from 10 to 20 years of experience report that they advise with superintendents, whereas 43.5 per cent of the principals with more than 40 years of experience so report. Recommendations concerning the selection of the teaching staff are made most frequently by principals with from 20 to 30 years of experience. Principals select teachers independently of the superintendent in less than 2 per cent of the schools.

In general, the only apparent tendency is that principals with more than 30 years of educational experience have less to say concerning the selection of the teachers assigned to them than have principals with less than 30 years of experience. Principals advise somewhat more frequently when they have less than 20 years of experience. Attention should be called to the fact that many of the principals with extremely long tenure are located in large centralized systems. This fact should be kept in mind in interpreting the data presented.

Participation of principal as related to the degree of centralization.—The inquiry form to secondary-school principals requested from them an estimate as to the degree of centralization in the organization for the administration of educational affairs on a scale of five gradations extending from highly centralized to highly decentralized. Do principals of secondary schools in highly centralized systems have as much responsibility for selecting teachers as do principals in systems reported as decentralized? The evidence indicates that the answer to the question is negative. It seems that as the degree of centralization increases the percentage of principals reporting that they have no part in the selection

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of their teachers also increases. This tendency is to be expected, for centralization of authority would often involve assuming responsibility for the selection and appointment of teachers. Also as the degree of centralization increases the percentage of principals who recommend candidates decreases considerably. In the systems reported as highly decentralized the percentage of principals recommending teachers is more than 36 per cent as contrasted with only about 23 per cent in the systems reported as highly centralized. It is also significant, even though the number of instances is small, that principals select teachers independently of the superintendent almost altogether in the highly decentralized systems.

6. SUMMARY

Methods used by superintendents.—Superintendents of school systems recommend the appointment of new senior high school teachers to the board or to one of its committees in almost half of the systems, and appoint applicants subject to the confirmation of the board in about a fourth of the school systems. In addition, combinations of the two aforementioned methods are used in approximately a fifth of the systems. In all, in more than 91 per cent of the systems new teachers are either nominated or appointed by the superintendent.

Part played by school boards.—School boards appoint teachers without the participation of the superintendent in about 1 per cent of the systems. However, the school board actively participates with the superintendent in an additional 2.6 per cent of the systems. Committees of the board approve or appoint applicants on the recommendation of the superintendent in slightly more than 20 per cent of the systems. School boards of independent secondary schools assume complete responsibility for the teacher-selection function considerably more often than do school boards of city school systems. Local district boards are delegated the responsibility for nominating or appointing teachers in a considerable proportion of the county systems. The nature of the returns, however, indicates the probability of greater control of the selection of teachers by school boards than is shown by the data reported.

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Selection of staff members.—Administrative and supervisory officers are appointed in almost exactly the same manner as teachers, with the exception that certain rather significant differences exist between the methods of selecting and appointing teachers and administrative officers in the various groups and geographical regions.

Part played by principals.—Secondary-school principals play no part in choosing their teachers in about 22 per cent of the schools, serve in an advisory capacity in almost 52 per cent, recommend candidates in nearly 25 per cent, and actually select candidates independently of the superintendent in about 1.3 per cent of the schools.

Methods of selection as related to other factors—As would be expected, a rather marked tendency appears to exist for superintendents who have been delegated almost complete responsibility by the board in selecting and appointing teachers to give the problem their close personal attention. When superintendents actually appoint teachers, as contrasted with merely nominating them, they are more likely to have visited them in their classroom, more likely to have interviewed them personally, and are more likely to have sought teachers from higher institutions rather than waiting for the personal applications of teachers. In addition, superintendents who appoint teachers hold more advanced degrees than do superintendents who only nominate teachers. Principals have least responsibility in the selection of teachers in the large schools and principals in highly centralized systems have less responsibility in the matter of selecting teachers than do principals in decentralized systems.

The tendency seems to be that boards allow the better qualified superintendents, when qualification is measured by degrees held, more responsibility in the matter of selecting teachers. The superintendents who are granted this responsibility seem to give the problem greater personal attention. Secondary-school principals are usually consulted and often recommend candidates.

CHAPTER VII : ILLUSTRATIVE PLANS FOR SELECTING TEACHERS

1. EXAMPLES OF BOARD RESPONSIBILITY FOR TEACHER SELECTION

The visits which were made to school systems in connection with the work on this project make possible the presentation of concrete illustrations of the different methods of selecting and appointing teachers as these have been described in Chapter VI. A few of these illustrations will be given in order to depict the general procedures followed by superintendents or boards of education in choosing the teaching personnel for their schools.

In several of the cities visited, the school boards, through their committees, practically control the selection of the teaching personnel. In one city all candidates for high-school positions file their applications with the high-school principal, are interviewed by him, and are then sent to see the superintendent. If the principal and superintendent are favorably impressed, the applicants are directed to the three members of the school board committee on "teachers and instruction." After the interviews have been held with prospective teachers, the principal, the superintendent, and the members of the teachers' committee confer and come to agreement concerning the persons to be appointed. The recommendations of the principal and superintendent need not be accepted by the committee, a condition demonstrated by the fact that the committee has in the past substituted applicants of its own choice. This is done frequently in places where the practice is possible under the school board rules governing the selection of teachers. Authorities in educational administration, as pointed out in the preceding chapter, universally condemn the use of this method.

The superintendent in the city referred to, however, contemplates no change in the present method because it enables him both to escape the responsibility for unwise selections and to use the teachers' committee as a buffer against the

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criticism of disappointed applicants. Unless superintendents are willing to assume complete responsibility for the selection of teachers, boards of education will not delegate to them the function of selecting and nominating new teachers.

Nashville, Tenn., is the only large city visited in which the school board almost completely dominates the employment of personnel. At the time the system was visited during the spring of 1931, the situation was found to be as described in a survey report of the public schools of the city:¹

Neither has the Board considered the appointment of its employees as a professional task, for by both rule and practice teachers and principals are selected by the Instruction Committee, which recommends their election to the Board. Even the assignment of teachers is referred to the Instruction Committee * * * (which) assigns or transfers them, with or without advice from its executive officer. Applicants for positions seem to think it necessary for them and their friends to "see" members of the Board. The question appears to be not, Am I qualified for the position? but, who is my "friend"?

Studies by Theisen² and Olsen³ have pointed out that the function of boards of education in regard to the selection of the teaching corps is officially to appoint teachers only on the recommendation of the superintendent of schools.

1. ILLUSTRATIONS OF NOMINATION AND APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS BY THE SUPERINTENDENT

It was shown in Chapter VI that the major portion of the systems follow the plan of delegating to the superintendent the responsibility of locating, selecting, and nominating candidates for consideration by the board or one of its committees. In these systems variations of procedure are often found. In some systems the superintendent nominates to the board of education as a whole while in others he nominates to a committee of the board which approves and presents the nominations to the board. In some cities the committee or the board may substitute candidates for those nominated by the superintendent while in others the board may only reject nominations. In some systems the superintendents

¹ Public Schools of Nashville, Tenn. George Peabody College for Teachers, Division of Surveys and Field Studies, 1931. pp. 331-336.

² Theisen, W. W. The City Superintendent and the Board of Education. Teachers College, Columbia University. Contributions to Education, No. 84, 1917. 137 p.

³ Olsen, Hans C. The Work of Boards of Education. Teachers College, Columbia University. Contributions to Education, No. 213, 1926. 163 p.

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appoint candidates subject only to the confirmation by the board.

Montclair, N. J.; Sylvania, Ohio; Fort Wayne, Ind.; and Allegany County, Md., are examples of systems in which the superintendent nominates candidates to the board or its committees for final approval. In practice the candidates are informed that the appointment or offer made by the superintendent must receive the approval of the board before it becomes a legal offer. Seldom, if ever, does the board of education in these systems refuse to appoint teachers nominated or appointed according to this plan.

In Montclair the usual procedure is somewhat as follows: The principal on learning of a vacancy notifies the central office. He may or may not suggest possible candidates. The file of available applicants is searched and the choice of candidates is narrowed to a relative few by a careful study of blanks of application and reference. The most promising candidates are usually visited by either the superintendent or the principal and an agreement reached as to the best available candidate. No appointment to a teaching position, except in emergencies, is made without consulting the principal. The person agreed upon by the principal and the superintendent is offered the position subject to approval or rejection by the board. No nominee has been rejected during the eight years the superintendent has served in his present position. A plan of this nature definitely places the responsibility for the selection of the teaching staff on the superintendent. It allows the principal to participate in the selection of the teachers assigned to him. The method is generally considered by authorities in educational administration as a desirable one for cities to follow unless their size is such as to make necessary the development of special devices for examining and evaluating prospective candidates.

3. ILLUSTRATIONS OF OTHER METHODS USED IN SELECTING TEACHERS

Appointment by superintendents.—In Torrington, Conn.; an innovation in the manner of selecting teachers was inaugurated by the board a number of years ago. According to the superintendent, the board is composed largely of business men who allow him a considerable degree of freedom in the manage-

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ment of the schools. During the month of April the board authorizes the superintendent to employ the teachers for the following year. The minutes of the board meeting pertaining to the employment of teachers usually read about as follows: "To hire the teaching and supervisory staff according to the best of his judgment and according to the salary schedule." He then proceeds to locate and select the best possible candidates and after reaching a decision, mails a contract to the applicant for signature and later signs it on behalf of the board. This step concludes the action. There is no need to report to the board the personnel chosen except perhaps to state that the staff has been completed.

Competitive examinations.—In many of the larger cities a more complicated form of organization is used for the selection of teachers and must of necessity be delegated largely to persons responsible to the superintendent. Time and space will not permit the detailed treatment of the more or less elaborate plans followed in any large number of cities. A few have been selected to present the outstanding features of these methods.

Most of the large systems check the qualifications of teachers in order to ascertain whether they meet satisfactorily the minimum qualifications set by the school board with respect to training, experience, age, marital condition, and health; examine them both in the content of the subject or subjects to be taught and the methods of teaching these subjects; and either interview them orally or observe their classroom teaching. On the basis of these facts candidates for teaching positions are rated, ranked, and placed on "eligible lists" from which teachers are selected in the order of their rank.

Boston, Washington, D. C., Jersey City, Rochester, and Pittsburgh are examples of cities where plans of this kind are followed.

(1) In Boston written examinations are held each year during the Christmas vacation for all candidates seeking appointment in the Boston schools. All candidates must take an examination in one field termed a "major" and in the two minor fields which have been grouped with the "major" chosen. Any person meeting the minimum quali-

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fications may take the examinations. A board of three examiners is given complete responsibility for examining prospective teachers.

In order to pass successfully the examination candidates must make at least 420 of a possible 600 points on the written examination. Candidates must also teach a lesson to demonstrate their ability to conduct a class. The applicant must earn at least 210 points of a possible 300 in order to pass this part of the test. Furthermore, candidates may be given as many as 100 points of additional credit depending upon their length of experience, educational training beyond the minimum qualifications, quality of references, and personal qualities as rated in the personal interview. The maximum number of points for the examination, teaching demonstration, and the additional credit which may be earned is 1,000. Candidates who pass are placed in order of rank on the total number of points on the eligible list for the subject in which they took their major examinations. Those lists are submitted to the superintendent and board for final approval and when adopted all positions in the school system must be filled from these lists according to rank.

Head masters of secondary schools have little voice in the selection of teachers. If a vacancy develops the head master must take the candidate ranking first on the list for that subject except in case he feels that the particular candidate would not fit into his school. He then may, with the consent of another head master, persuade a teacher from the latter's school to request a transfer to his school in which event the person on the list would be appointed to the position left vacant by the transferred teacher.

Head masters also have some choice at the end of the year when a number of candidates are to be selected in the various schools. The head masters meet and discuss the candidates who rank at the top of the list and agree among themselves as to which will be appointed at each school. In this manner preferences may be indicated. However, if 10 positions are to be filled in a subject, the first 10 persons on the eligible list in that subject must be offered appointments before the eleventh candidate is appointed. A candidate has

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some option in waiving an appointment in order to be eligible for one at a later date in another school.

(2) In Jersey City a board of examiners composed of a board member, the superintendent, two assistant superintendents, the principal of a high school, the principal of an elementary school, and a member from the research department conduct both written and oral examinations of all applicants. More emphasis is placed on the oral interview, or examination, in Jersey City than in Boston. The board sits as a body and interviews each candidate who successfully passes the written examination. The interview is judged by each member of the board of examiners on the basis of 100 per cent. A candidate must have an average score of at least 75 per cent to be successful. The scores made by candidates on the oral and written examinations are combined and the applicants placed on eligible lists from which they are called in order of rank when vacancies occur.

(3) A modified form of an examination system was in use in Rochester, N. Y., when that school system was visited during the spring of 1931. Applicants for secondary-school assignments present their credentials to the director of teacher employment who passes on them, interviews the teacher, and refers the candidate to two or three secondary-school principals. These principals interview the candidates and, if favorably impressed, place them on their list of eligible teachers who are subject to call for temporary or first assignment. The director of teacher employment is notified of the candidates being placed on this list so that the applicant may be also made available to other principals. When vacancies occur principals have practically full responsibility for filling the positions for the "first assignment." During the course of this first year the teacher must successfully pass both an oral and a written examination.

The written examinations are marked and the oral examinations judged on the basis of a perfect score of 100 with 80 being the score for the average applicant. One-third of the sum of the score made on the oral examination plus twice the score made on the written examinations must equal or exceed 70 if the candidates are to be eligible for "first appointment." The plan is one in which the measurement of the ability of

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candidates both on the type of written examinations used and the oral interview is rather subjective. Secondary-school principals practically control the "first assignment" of new teachers.

(4) The Pittsburgh Board of Public Education has ruled that beginning with the school year 1932-33 all initial appointments to vacancies in the Pittsburgh public schools shall be made from the three highest on a competitive eligibility list.⁴ The competitive eligibility list is made up of two groups of persons: (1) those who are not now in the service of the Pittsburgh School District and (2) those who are members of the Pittsburgh schools and desire promotion. The functions of selecting, grading, promoting, and dismissing teachers are performed by a personnel department established in June, 1929, for the purpose of improving the teaching service in the Pittsburgh public schools.

4. ILLUSTRATIONS OF COMBINATIONS OF METHODS USED IN SELECTING TEACHERS

Two types of combinations of methods are frequently used for selecting teachers. One of these types exists when superintendents sometimes use one method and sometimes another. The second type exists when one method is used for selecting teachers at one level and another method for those at a different level.

Illustrations of the former type are found when the board sometimes assumes complete responsibility and at other times delegates the responsibility to the superintendent. Other illustrations are found in systems in which the superintendent is permitted only to nominate candidates but on other occasions is delegated almost complete control and authority in making the actual selection.

The Joliet Township High School in Illinois serves to illustrate this situation. During the regular school year when the problem arises of choosing the teaching staff for the following year, the superintendent makes nominations to the board of education. During the summer months or in emergencies the superintendent is permitted to make the

⁴ Data concerning the methods used in selecting teachers in Pittsburgh were secured from personal correspondence with the superintendent of schools, May 9, 1932.

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appointment to be later confirmed by the board. This practice seems in line with common sense and expediency.

In a number of systems one method is followed in employing elementary-school teachers and another in employing secondary-school teachers. The school system in Genoa, Ill., illustrates this divergence. The township high-school board and the elementary-school board jointly employ a superintendent for the administration of the school system. The superintendent reports that in the selection of elementary teachers he makes the nomination to the committee, the committee makes the appointment, and the board confirms the appointment. In the selection of high-school teachers he nominates directly to the board which makes the appointment.

5. ILLUSTRATIONS OF HOW TEACHERS SECURED POSITIONS

During visits to school systems teachers were frequently interviewed for the purpose of gaining insight into how they located the position held and the methods used in securing the appointment. Several interesting facts became known.

In a Middle Western city where the teachers' committee dominates the selection of teachers, situations came to the attention of the investigator. The members of the teachers' committee interview all teachers who are appointed. One teacher found it necessary to make two trips to this city because the administrative personnel changed before his appointment had been made. In another instance the principal and the superintendent recommended the appointment of one teacher but the teachers' committee substituted another. The person employed was considerably older than the recommended person and was, in the opinion of the principal and superintendent, somewhat less well qualified.

At Sylvania, Ohio, all teachers interviewed bore out the evidence reported by the superintendent to the effect that the board of education allows the superintendent almost complete freedom in choosing teachers. No teachers were interviewed by board members.

In another city, where the superintendent has been delegated the responsibility of making appointments subject to the confirmation of the board, one teacher secured her posi-

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tion by interviewing only the superintendent. She was, however, the niece of a board member. She was attracted to the position because she had a sister teaching in the system and because it was her home city. She felt that her uncle's membership on the board helped her secure the position.

Another similar situation was reported in which the principal of a secondary school and the superintendent recommended the dismissal of two incompetent teachers. The board approved this recommendation and the teachers were dismissed. The board of education, a political body appointed by the mayor, was almost evenly divided for and against the superintendent. Two members of the board were bank directors. One of the teachers dismissed was the son of an influential business man who threatened to withdraw his large bank deposits from the banks with which these directors were connected. Unfortunate publicity resulted and the teachers were retained by the board.

These situations have been described to show what factors sometimes play important parts in the selection of teachers. Political influence, personal friendships, and school-board relatives sometimes serve as valuable assets to persons seeking new positions or desiring to hold those obtained. However, according to the statement of policies and practices reported in Chapter VI for large numbers of school systems, these influences are infrequently brought to bear and the superintendents of city systems are delegated almost complete freedom in choosing the teaching and administrative personnel.

**CHAPTER VIII: METHODS OF RETAINING TEACHERS
OF HIGH QUALITY**

1. TYPES OF METHODS USED

After competent teachers have been appointed the problem of how to retain them for a number of years arises. The types of methods used by school boards to induce teachers of high quality to remain in the system are numerous. A partial list of these methods as found in educational literature is as follows:

Retirement and pension provisions

Tenure provisions:

Written contracts

Term of employment

Tenure regulations (State or local)

Salary schedules depending in part on factors such as the following:

Number of years of service

Amount of academic and professional training

Rating given by administrative and supervisory staff

Position held in system

Travel

Acquisition of additional training

Performance of extra duties

Other factors

Definite lines of promotion

Leaves of absence (with part or full pay) for:

Personal illness

Death in immediate family

Visiting other schools

Attending educational meetings

Religious holidays

Study and professional improvement

Travel

Rest

Reducing teaching load to permit teachers to serve on committees or to do research work

Other methods:

Assisting teachers to get started

Good program of supervision

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2. METHODS REPORTED MOST EFFECTIVE

It is not in the province of this report to summarize or appraise the merits of the different methods nor to show the status with regard to the current use of these methods. The National Education Association in a recent bulletin has presented these data in excellent form.¹ The purpose of the present discussion is to report the judgments of city superintendents with regard to the effectiveness of these methods in retaining teachers of high quality.

The opinions of 573 superintendents relative to the number and percentages of systems in which the different methods were reported as being effective and unusually effective are presented in Table 32. Salary schedules were reported by the largest proportion of the superintendents as being the factor which is most effective in retaining teachers of high quality; retirement and pension provisions rank second; tenure provisions rank third; and definite promotions, fourth.

The proportion of superintendents reporting the methods as being unusually effective are in most cases relatively small in comparison with the percentage of superintendents reporting the plans as being effective. The one exception to this is the method relating to the scheduling of salaries. This item is reported as being unusually effective in about half as many cases as it is reported as being simply effective.

TABLE 32.—Numerical and percentage frequency with which various methods were reported by superintendents of 573 city school systems as being either effective or unusually effective in retaining teachers of high quality

Method	Systems in which methods were found effective		Systems in which methods were found unusually effective		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Retirement and pension provisions.....	139	24.3	25	4.4	164	28.7
Tenure provisions.....	116	20.2	21	3.7	147	25.9
Salary schedules.....	286	49.9	149	26.0	435	75.9
A definite line of promotions.....	110	19.2	25	4.4	135	23.6
Leaves of absence.....	68	11.9	8	1.4	76	13.3
Reduction of teaching load.....	60	10.5	6	1.0	66	11.5
Other methods.....	53	9.2	3	0.5	56	9.7

¹ National Education Association, Research Division. Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Practices. Research Bulletin, Vol. X, No. 2, March 1932.

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The practices differ greatly among systems in the various population groups. This is not surprising for one would expect that the larger cities would find it possible to utilize many more methods with greater degrees of success than do the smaller communities. To illustrate this fact attention is called to the inability of most small cities to pay salaries which compare at all favorably with those paid by the larger cities. Small communities often can not pay salaries large enough to hold teachers of high quality when they are offered positions in other systems. Retirement and pensions provisions, tenure provisions, leaves of absence, and promotions find more general use in the larger cities. The relationship between the size of city and the effectiveness of these methods are direct and obvious.

Differences among the geographical regions are almost as large. Provisions for the retirement and pensioning of teachers are reported as effectively holding teachers much more frequently in the East than in any other region. The same is true, but to a somewhat lesser extent for tenure provisions, promotions, salary schedules, leaves of absence, and other methods. Principals of independent secondary schools and county superintendents both report the use of effective methods of retaining desirable teachers in smaller proportions than do city systems. This may be expected because these systems under normal conditions find it very difficult to keep good teachers due to their being drawn away to city systems where they are paid higher salaries and have more social advantages.

Since most methods for retaining teachers of quality seem better adapted to the larger cities, the question arises as to what smaller schools may do to develop within teachers a feeling of satisfaction and a desire to remain with their work? Superintendents in numerous cases report that close social and professional relationship between the administrative staff and the teachers, good working conditions, assisting the new and particularly the inexperienced teachers in getting started, the development of a good program of constructive supervision, and encouragement are factors which often aid in holding good teachers.

CHAPTER IX: SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

1. IMPORTANCE OF WISE TEACHER SELECTION

The study of the practices in the selection and appointment of teachers indicates that the specific methods employed in locating, selecting, and appointing teachers differ considerably in cities of various sizes, in different regions of the country, and in the various types of schools.

In 1930 about 8 per cent of the secondary-school teaching staff and about 15 per cent of the teaching staff of elementary schools were newly appointed in the city school systems reporting in this study. In the independent secondary schools and county systems the proportion of the staff made up each year of new appointees amounts to more than one-fourth of the total number of employees. The fact that many new teachers are needed each year makes it necessary for school executives to exercise very great care in the selection of teachers. Poor teachers are, in the long run, expensive teachers. Through the careful selection of personnel, provision for satisfactory working conditions, and adequate salary schedules the teaching corps may be continually improved from year to year. With proper procedures good teachers can often be retained and new teachers of high quality selected to fill vacant positions.

2. SCHOOL BOARD RULES GOVERNING THE TYPE OF NEW TEACHERS DESIRED

It is generally conceded that school boards and superintendents should have definite ideas on the types of teachers which they desire both in specific positions and in the system as a whole. These ideas which school boards and superintendents put in operation constitute their policy with respect to teacher selection. These policies should be clarified and definitely set forth as rules or regulations concerning the employment of personnel.

Educational literature frequently indicates the advisability of formulating rules and regulations setting forth the minimum conditions of employment at a time when the school

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board is not immediately concerned with the question of selecting new teachers. Such a policy not only enables school boards to give more careful attention to the problem but also enables them to give more unbiased opinions concerning the employment of various types of teachers.

The rules and regulations adopted by school boards on the type of teachers desired usually take into consideration the following:

- (1) Minimum qualifications as to training.
- (2) Minimum qualifications as to experience.
- (3) Minimum and maximum age requirements.
- (4) Marital status of women.
- (5) Appointment of local and nonlocal applicants.
- (6) Appointment of relatives of the school board.
- (7) Other factors which may be of local importance in determining the type of teachers desired.

3. METHODS OF LOCATING NEW TEACHERS

Teachers were reported by superintendents of the various city systems as having been located in more than half of the cases through individual applications of teachers, in about a sixth of the cases through placement bureaus of higher institutions, and in about an eighth through private teachers' agencies. Large cities are able to rely more completely on the applications of teachers than are the smaller communities. Elementary teachers are located through teachers' applications more frequently than are senior or 4-year high school teachers; senior or 4-year high school teachers are located more frequently through private teachers' agencies than are either elementary or junior high school teachers.

Superintendents do not agree as to the methods by which the most desirable candidates may be located. Many superintendents prefer so far as possible to use the placement bureaus of educational institutions and to use the bureaus of private agencies as a later resort. Others, however, prefer to use private agencies almost altogether.

Studies do not show the relative effectiveness of teachers located by the various methods. Until more complete data are available each superintendent who is responsible for the employment of teachers must utilize the methods or

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combinations of methods which seem most serviceable to him. It would appear that superintendents should attempt to search out and to locate good teachers. This, of course, may be done more easily by systems in larger communities which have more to offer as inducements to teachers.

4. METHODS OF COLLECTING INFORMATION CONCERNING APPLICANTS

An important element in any program of teacher selection is the collection of accurate information and sufficient data concerning applicants. The following are among the methods most frequently employed by superintendents:

- (1) Permanent files containing the names of available and desirable candidates.
- (2) Application blanks.
- (3) Reference blanks.
- (4) Other types of communications with references.
- (5) Photographs.
- (6) Written and oral examinations.
- (7) Health and physical examinations.
- (8) Interviews for prospective candidates.
- (9) Visitation of candidates in other schools.

Available studies which have sought to discover the qualities by means of which the teaching success of prospective teachers might be satisfactorily predicted tend to show that no single method enables predictions to be made with any high degree of success.

Application forms are used in about 90 per cent of the systems and reference forms in almost 70 per cent of the systems. Candidates are interviewed in almost all systems and visits by staff members to observe teachers are made in approximately 60 per cent of school systems. Studies do not show how valuable application and reference blanks are in selecting competent teachers, but the data do indicate that interviews and visits are frequently conducted in such a manner as to be of little real service in appraising prospective teachers.

Photographs have almost no value in teacher selections. "Open letters" and written letters of recommendation frequently are of such a general nature as to be of little value because the qualities listed and the terms used are easily

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misunderstood and tend to present only the most favorable qualities of candidates. Written examinations according to several studies have relatively low predictive value in selecting prospective teachers.

The problem of securing accurate information and of interpreting it correctly is far from solved. Until we are able to determine better what information is needed, schools will probably do well to collect information concerning prospective teachers from as many sources as possible. The evidence collected should be carefully analyzed and the selection made only on the basis of estimated competence.

5. METHODS AND PROCEDURES IN APPOINTING NEW TEACHERS

Superintendents in more than 91 per cent of the systems have an important part in nominating or appointing secondary-school teachers of city systems. In nearly half the systems superintendents nominate teachers either directly to the board or to one of its committees. In about a fourth of the systems superintendents appoint subject to the approval of the board.

School boards were reported by superintendents as either appointing teachers independently of the superintendent or as sometimes assuming a very important role in selecting teachers in less than 4 per cent of the systems. However, as pointed out in Chapter VI this percentage probably represents the situation as better than it actually is.

A rather significant relationship seems to exist between the training of the superintendent and the extent to which superintendents are given a free hand in the selection of the teaching personnel. In addition, superintendents who actually appoint teachers seem to take a more personal interest in interviewing and visiting prospective teachers.

Secondary-school principals are consulted in the appointment of teachers in about half the schools, they recommend teachers in almost a fourth of the schools, appoint them in very few cases, and have no part whatever in slightly over a fifth of the systems.

It must be recalled, however, that the data presented have been reported by schoolmen, presumably persons reasonably well versed in modern educational theory with respect to the

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accepted practices for selecting and appointing the teaching staff. Consequently, there may be a tendency for some superintendents to report conditions as better than they actually are. This factor should be taken into account in appraising the results of the study. This caution appears to have the support of the results of inquiries at the time of visits to a number of school systems. Desirable policies, methods, and procedures were often reported, but visitation revealed that political influence, personal friendships, and blood relationships sometimes played important parts in the selection of teachers.

Cubberley¹ states "one of the first steps in improving conditions surrounding the selection and retention of teachers is to get rather clearly in the minds of the board and the community generally certain fundamental principles of action which relate to the work of the schools." One of these principles has been set forth as follows: "The schools exist, in no sense, to afford places for teachers. No one is entitled by right to a teacher's position, except on the one basis of being the best-prepared and the most professionally in earnest teacher available. In no way should the schools be made local family affairs, or used for local charitable, political, social, or religious purposes."²

6. METHODS OF RETAINING TEACHERS OF HIGH QUALITY

All superintendents desire to attract and retain good teachers. The methods used to hold teachers, such as good salaries, tenure, retirement provisions, and leaves of absence, are particularly adapted to the larger city systems. The small locality has comparatively little to offer either in the way of educational advancement or remuneration for the services given. However, all systems can do much to make the work of teachers pleasant and effective. If good teachers can not be offered higher salaries, and if they are interested in securing positions elsewhere, they should be aided and encouraged not only for their own sake but for the sake of the benefits accruing to the profession through the extension of their services to a larger field of activity.

¹Cubberley, E. P. *Public-School Administration*. New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914, p. 202.

²Ibid.

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7. THE INVESTIGATIONAL PROBLEM OF THE FUTURE

This and other studies show that new teachers are located, selected, and appointed by a variety of procedures. As yet, however, little real evidence has been published to show which of the methods are most effective in obtaining competent teachers.

It is, therefore, needless to say that further study should be made of the problem of teacher selection. Additional study of present practices in locating, selecting, and appointing teachers may not be needed, but it seems evident that studies to ascertain the best criteria for predicting the future success of inexperienced teachers and for appraising the work of teachers already in service should be undertaken by some educational agency. Several questions need to be answered. Among these are: (1) What constitutes teaching success? (2) How may future success of inexperienced teachers be predicted? (3) How may the success of teachers in service be measured? When these questions are answered the problem of teacher selection will be well on its way to solution.

