An Analysis and Appraisal of Lay Teacher Employment Practices in Large Catholic Elementary School Systems in the United States

Leonard Andrew Setze
Loyola University Chicago

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AN ANALYSIS AND APPRAISAL OF LAY TEACHER EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES IN LARGE CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN THE UNITED STATES

by

Leonard Andrew Setze

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Loyola University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education

January

1965
Leonard Andrew Setze was born in Chicago, Illinois, July 12, 1929.

He was graduated from Loyola Academy, Chicago, Illinois, June, 1947, and from Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, with the degree of Bachelor of Science in February, 1951, of Master of Arts in June, 1954.

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The writer has published an article entitled "A Rorschach Experiment With Six, Seven, and Eight-Year Old Children," (Journal of Projective Techniques, XXI, June, 1957, 166-171).
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

It is a truism that the quality of education a school or a school system offers is a direct function of the quality of its teachers. Or, as Weber puts it:

The child is still the center in any school system. Teachers have been, and still are, the key to the growth of children in school. Without teachers whose skill, understanding, character, and spirit are such as to promote the wholesome development of children, the best building in the country with the finest educational equipment and the best of supplies can be a crime against children. Thus the problems of teachers are crucial to administrators. The outstanding problem of education today is the development of personnel programs which cause teachers to become better teachers. The nub of the situation is this--administrators should give ever-increasing attention to personnel problems of the staff.¹

The current interest in personnel administration not only reflects the importance of the teacher in the success or failure of educational aims, but it is a reaction to the need for schools to be competitive--with each other and with business and industry.

For some years now, American elementary education has

been marked by increased enrollment and expanding schools. This trend is continuing at a more rapid rate, and has heightened the problems of securing qualified teachers to staff the growing number of classrooms. For Catholic parochial schools, the increases in enrollment have been more rapid than the increases in vocations to the teaching sisterhoods. Consequently, the demand for more teachers has resulted in a great influx of lay teachers, with a corresponding heightened attention to policies governing their employment and to their role in Catholic education. At the same time, this has brought changes in the relative emphasis given to the administration of teacher personnel by Catholic school administrators as compared to the previous pattern of religious community-religious faculty administration, and has added complexities which require more professionalized planning and organization than are possible on the parish level.

As the lay staff in Catholic elementary schools grows and gains in resemblance to that of public schools, the problems of teacher personnel as well as their solutions will be increasingly similar. Since the existence of adequate personnel policies in a school organization is of fundamental importance to the educational program, a study of these changing practices in parochial schools, and their relation to recognized standards for public schools, appears useful and fitting. Previous studies of lay teachers in Catholic schools have been, for the most part, status investigations of single dioceses or states. None have attempted
to analyze current lay teacher personnel practices and standards based on a national survey, as does the present study.

Purpose of the Study

It is the purpose of the present study to survey and analyze elementary lay teacher personnel practices in selected dioceses across the United States. This analysis will be in terms of the recruitment and selection of teachers, and certain employment practices, plus problems and possible trends in Catholic school personnel administration. Supplementary data to the questionnaire inquiries are to include samples of relevant personnel materials in current use: recruitment brochures, application blanks, lay teacher contracts, policies and procedures manuals, salary schedules, and additional written lay teacher policies. An evaluation of these areas of diocesan personnel administration will be made by comparing them to the standards and procedures of public school personnel administration.

A secondary aim of the study will be to note the extent and problems (and the acceptance) of changing policy in Catholic school personnel administration from the historical or traditional pastoral pattern of independent parish operation to a more centralized, diocesan-wide pattern of educational leadership resembling that found in public school administration.

Importance of the Study

It has been predicted--through statistical projection--
that lay teachers will constitute a majority of Catholic elementary school teachers within the next decade. As the need for capable lay teachers grows more acute, competition with public schools (already severe) in attracting and retaining lay teachers will undoubtedly increase. This rivalry necessarily focuses attention on the factors which influence the quality of teachers available in a school—e.g., supply and demand, selection procedures, salary, fringe benefits—and the need to be acquainted with the techniques already developed by public school administrators. Although religious or spiritual motivations cannot be discounted in regard both to obtaining and retaining lay teachers in Catholic schools, the schools which can offer more attractive working conditions have an obvious advantage in attracting the more highly qualified and competent teachers. And, when this is accomplished, the educational program in those schools clearly benefits.

Teacher personnel practices have received attention largely in the area of public school staffing. The present investigation of current diocesan lay teacher personnel practices and their relationship to public school techniques, therefore, seems pertinent and useful. It is hoped that this study will be of some value to Catholic school administrators by helping to identify

strengths, weaknesses, and emerging problems of personnel practices in Catholic school systems.

Definition of Terms

1. Lay Teacher. In Catholic schools, this term is commonly applied to teachers who have not taken religious vows as have teachers in the schools who are priests, sisters, or brothers.

2. Lay Teacher Applicant. This term applies to laymen or laywomen who are seeking employment in a Catholic school or school system as a teacher. The term candidate is used interchangeably with the term applicant in the present study.

3. Diocese. A Catholic diocese is a geographical area headed by its ordinary (cardinal, archbishop, or bishop) for the administration of church affairs within that area. The ordinary is the representative of the Church's teaching authority and is charged with the administration of his diocese, including the diocesan school system. The educational policies of the diocese are ultimately his responsibility as official head of the school system.

4. Archdiocese. This term applies to geographical ecclesiastical areas within the Catholic Church in the United States and elsewhere governed by an archbishop. There is no essential difference between a diocese and archdiocese other than prestige and some honorary prerogatives granted to an archbishop over that of a bishop heading a diocese. For practical purposes, the
terms diocese and archdiocese may be considered similar enough to be interchangeable. In the present study, therefore, diocese will be used to designate either a diocese or archdiocese.

5. Superintendent of Schools. This title is one applied to the person, usually a priest, assigned by the bishop to administer and supervise the diocesan school system. He is frequently executive secretary of a Catholic school board (comprised of priests and, sometimes, laymen) that recommends policies for the diocesan schools--subject to the approval of the bishop. The superintendent is sometimes called director of schools, but in this study the term superintendent will be used regardless of individual title differences.

6. Central Office. This term will be used to designate the office of the superintendent of a Catholic diocesan school system. Such offices vary in exact title in different dioceses, and house staff assisting the superintendent to administer and supervise the diocesan schools.

7. Parish. This term is applied to the basic societal unit within a diocese, under the administrative head of a pastor (a priest appointed by the bishop). The pastor is also the administrative head of the parish school, which constitutes a unit in the diocesan school system. Typically, the pastor delegates many of the educational administrative and supervisory functions to the sister principal of the parish school--who is appointed by the mother superior of the religious community of sisters.
staffing the parish school. The parish school will frequently be referred to as the local school in this study.

8. Parochial School. This term is used to refer to the parish elementary school under the organization of the diocese, as distinguished from the so-called private Catholic school (not part of the present investigation), in that the latter is usually under the immediate administration of a religious order rather than of a pastor of a parish. While such private Catholic schools are technically part of the diocesan system, in practice they are sometimes granted varying amounts of independence from administrative regulations of parish schools in a diocesan system.

Scope and Procedure

The basic information for this presentation of current practices was obtained by means of a six-page questionnaire (reproduced in Appendix I) sent to superintendents of diocesan school systems which incorporate the majority of lay teachers in the United States. Because of the need to delimit the investigation, only elementary school systems were included.

The Questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of four parts, and was designed to elicit factual information, personal commentary, and indications of the extent of centralization (diocesan central office control) of selected personnel practices. Part I consisted of nine questions concerning selection techniques.
Part II contained fourteen questions covering recruitment procedures and certain employment practices; Part III inquired about written policies, personnel and other relevant statistics, and current problems in lay teacher selection and recruitment. The final section consisted of a request for sample personnel materials in present use—including application blanks, recruitment brochures, lay teacher contracts, policies and procedures manuals, plus other written lay teacher policies and salary schedules. The majority of the inquiries were of a checking, underlining, or fact-reporting type, while fourteen were open-end type questions which permitted or encouraged respondents to clarify and qualify their responses, or to make comments.

Sample and Return. Originally, thirty-six dioceses were selected for study. The number was arbitrarily chosen after examination of the statistics within the 1963 Official Catholic Directory revealed that this number of diocesan school systems employed four hundred or more lay teachers as of January, 1963. While this sample represents only 24.3 per cent of the total of 148 dioceses in the United States (twenty-eight archdioceses and 120 dioceses), it represents well over half of all the 35,571 lay teachers employed in Catholic elementary schools in 1962-63, as

reported by Pflaum. Hence, it was assumed that these school systems would provide reasonably representative and adequate data regarding current lay teacher personnel practices and policies.

In early January, 1964 a copy of the questionnaire (see Appendix I), together with an individually typed, personally addressed cover letter of introduction (reproduced in Appendix II) was sent to the Catholic school superintendent of each of the thirty-six dioceses. Names and addresses of the superintendents were obtained from the Official Catholic Directory. (The personal attention of the superintendent was sought, since many of the survey questions requested information on current problems and policies and anticipated changes in relation to diocesan elementary lay teacher personnel.) Anonymity of respondents and school systems was guaranteed in order to encourage candidness of response and to avoid unfavorable or possibly unjust individual comparisons of particular school systems.

A total of four mailings (see Appendix II), between January and April, 1964, was used to secure a net response of 91.7 per cent. Although the majority of school systems intending to cooperate did so within a two-week period from the first mailing, a second and third mailing became necessary to obtain the final representation. Later, when the questionnaire responses were ex-

amined and recorded on summary sheets, it became necessary in several cases to request additional or clarifying information regarding certain responses. Also, where applicable, this follow-up procedure was used to clarify reasons for failure to enclose some of the requested personnel materials, since such omissions could not legitimately be assumed to mean the school system does not utilize such an item, unless explicit evidence of this was obtained.

From the above procedure, thirty-one (86.1 per cent) usable questionnaires were obtained from the thirty-six diocesan school systems contacted. Table I gives the number and percentage of the various replies.

**TABLE I**

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RETURNS FROM THIRTY-SIX DIOCESAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Questionnaires mailed</td>
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<td>Responses</td>
<td>33&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>Questionnaires returned</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>86.1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Two school systems (5.6 per cent) declined.
Of the five systems not included, two superintendents sent letters declining cooperation— one with no stated reason, and the other reporting that their personnel information would be better organized for response a year hence. Three systems made no reply whatever, despite four individual mailings.

Excellent cooperation of the respondents was evident from their willingness to compose detailed responses. Their interest and concern in the problems of lay teacher personnel is also reflected in the twenty-four (77.4 per cent) requests for summary findings of the present study. Another factor aiding returns was that mailings were sent first-class, with large pre-addressed return envelopes enclosed with sufficient postage to facilitate both the return of the questionnaire and whatever sample materials were being supplied. The individually typed personal cover letters also mentioned, with permission, the interest in the present study of Monsignor William E. McManus, Superintendent of Catholic Schools in the Archdiocese of Chicago, which undoubtedly further encouraged cooperation of other superintendents.

The basic data upon which the present study is based, then, comprise the following: thirty-one usable questionnaires returned from thirty-one superintendents of diocesan elementary school systems; twenty-seven sample application blanks, five recruitment brochures, twenty sample contracts, sixteen policy books, twelve additional written lay teacher policies, and fifteen salary schedules. The thirty-one school systems represent the following:
4,901 parochial schools (nearly half of the 10,322 in the United States as of January 1, 1963); 2,534,699 full-time elementary pupils; thirty-one full-time teaching priests; 365 teaching brothers; 41,145 teaching sisters; and 21,442 lay teachers. In terms of Pflaum's data for the previous year, the number of lay teachers employed in the thirty-one elementary school systems in the present study would comprise about sixty per cent of the total in the United States. Table II (pages 13-14) summarizes the breakdown of these figures for each of the dioceses. To preserve anonymity, each school system will be designated by a number in this and other tables throughout the study.

Treatment of Data. Total collected data will be analyzed in terms of recommended personnel practices commonly agreed upon by public school and Catholic school administration authorities. One key resource of criteria will be Principles of Staff Personnel Administration in Public Schools, by Willard S. Elsbree and E. Edmund Reutter, Jr., and Associates, published in 1959 by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. These principles were developed from a critical analysis of the literature of personnel administration—in education, in business and industry, and in general government—and represent a basic core of generally accepted concepts on which there is substantial agreement among authorities as found through a thorough examina-

5 Ibid.
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<th>School system</th>
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TABLE II (continued)

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, PUPILS, AND FULL-TIME TEACHERS REPRESENTED BY THE STUDY SAMPLE OF THIRTY-ONE DIOCESAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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<th>School system</th>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>Number of pupils</th>
<th>Priests</th>
<th>Brothers</th>
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<td>75,939</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1,087</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>26,179</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>390</td>
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<td>668</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>109</td>
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<td>711</td>
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<td>391</td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>63,169</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>1,121</td>
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<td>88</td>
<td>46,341</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>36,980</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,901</td>
<td>2,534,699</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>41,145</td>
<td>1,228a</td>
<td>20,214a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Number here approximate. Two school systems report no separate data on sexes of lay teachers available, and gave only total number employed. These were arbitrarily placed in laywomen count.
tion of recorded research and experience. The principles are cat-
egerized into five operational aspects of the personnel function:
obtaining personnel; utilizing personnel; compensating personnel;
developing personnel; and separating personnel. These forty prin-
ciples are reproduced in Appendix III.

While specifically drawn for public school administra-
tion, these basic principles of personnel practice have applica-
tion in Catholic school systems which employ considerable numbers
of lay teachers. Therefore, it seems relevant to relate pertinent
principles to findings of the present study.

Where possible, comparison will be made with a National
Education Association questionnaire survey\(^6\) of personnel practices
in 1,228 urban public school districts\(^7\)--the most recent in a ser-
ies of studies which began in 1922-23. The sample (stratified)
consisted of urban school districts of all sizes, with a net re-
turn of over sixty per cent from the 1,813 districts contacted.
The questionnaire sought data on (1) organization and administra-

\(^6\) National Education Association, Research Division,
Personnel Administration in Urban School Districts, 1961-62,

\(^7\) "Urban school districts vary from towns of 2,500 pop-
ulation, with approximately twenty-five school employees, to such
large metropolitan districts as New York, Chicago, San Francisco,
and Denver. . . . The rural districts vary in size from the type
that supports only a one-room school with one teacher to large
county districts like those in the South, which may be larger than
many of the city districts."--Harold E. Moore and Newell B.
Walters, Personnel Administration in Education, New York, 1955,
4-5.
tion for personnel administration, (2) recruitment, selection, and employment practices, (3) employment conditions in service, (4) salaries and nonsalary benefits, and (5) selected personnel statistics. Data were analyzed according to size of school district by population, region of the country, and expenditure level per pupil, with attention to striking relationships among the findings.

Finally, attention will be given in the present study to the administrative organization through which the functions under study are discharged in these school systems, and to factors which may influence or be influenced by the practices.
CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND RELATED STUDIES

A brief history of Catholic schools in the United States, and of the role of the lay teacher, seems essential to understand (1) the development of administrative complexity in Catholic schools, (2) the changing role of the lay teacher from a temporary to a permanent status, and (3) the key role of the pastor in the future development of Catholic school systems—in his relationships with the diocesan superintendent of schools and with the principal of the parish school.

Growth of American Catholic Schools

The first American Catholic schools were those established by missionaries. Indeed, the first school in America was a Catholic school—established by the Franciscans in St. Augustine, Florida, in 1603.\(^1\) By the time of the outbreak of the American Revolution, there had been founded in the country some seventy Catholic schools.\(^2\) All of these schools were on the elementary


\(^2\) Ibid., 40.
level since, before the establishment of Georgetown College in 1789, there was no successful school for secondary training. The opening of Georgetown began an era which was to last about five decades, during which the main Catholic educational effort was directed toward higher education. The reason for this was the urgent need for colleges to supply the priesthood.

The true founding of the parochial schools of America is generally credited to Mother Seton, who opened in 1810 the first free parochial school for both boys and girls taught by religious, in St. Joseph's parish of Emmitsburg, Maryland. St. Mary's School in Philadelphia, in existence as early as 1767, is sometimes referred to as the first parochial school in America. However, it was conducted by lay teachers and charged fees.

When John Carroll, the first American bishop, was consecrated in 1790 as bishop of the diocese of Baltimore--then comprising most of the United States east of the Mississippi--there were only 35,000 Catholics served by thirty priests, amid a total population in the country of three million. By the time of his death in 1815, the Catholic population had trebled. By 1840, it


reached over six-hundred thousand. The first great flood of Irish and German immigration swelled this number to over three million Catholics by 1860. The U.S. Catholic population grew further to over twelve million by 1900, to twenty million in 1930, and to a 1963 figure of 43,851,538.

When Horace Mann began his efforts to secularize denominational schools under state control, he was opposed by both Protestants and Catholics. But in 1848, when the number of Irish immigrants increased considerably and the Catholic population began to grow, the Protestants became alarmed and gradually swung to Mann's position, preferring to turn their own schools over to the state rather than see the state support so many Catholic schools. Opposition thus solidified against the denominational school. Catholic schools still receiving state aid were under pressure to appoint non-Catholics as teachers. These secularist developments actually forced the development of an independent system of Catholic schools within each diocese. Catholic leaders concluded that if Catholic children were to receive a Catholic education in the United States, previously thought possible within the framework of public education, it would have to be in schools supported without

6 Ibid., 99.


public funds. A great effort was made to lay down a school policy for the entire country in the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore held in 1884, which resulted in the present parochial school system. This Council decreed in part:

Therefore we not only exhort Catholic parents with paternal love, but we also command them with all of the authority in our power, to procure for their beloved offspring, given to them by God, reborn in Christ in Baptism, and destined for heaven, a truly Christian and Catholic education, and to defend and safeguard them from the dangers of an education merely secular during the entire period of childhood and youth; and therefore to send them to parish schools or others truly Catholic, unless perchance, the Ordinary, in a particular case, should judge that it be permitted otherwise. . . . Near each church, where it does not exist, a parish school is to be erected within two years from the promulgations of this council, and is to be maintained "in perpetuum," unless the bishop, on account of grave difficulties, judge that a postponement be allowed. . . . All Catholic parents are bound to send their children to the parish schools, unless either at home or in other Catholic schools they may sufficiently provide for the Christian education of their children, or unless it be lawful to send them to other schools on account of a sufficient cause, approved by the bishop, and with opportune cautions and remedies. As to what is a Catholic school it is left up to the judgment of the Ordinary to define.9

While some internal disputes continued within the ranks of American bishops and educators for nearly a decade following this crucially significant Third Baltimore Council, the decrees of the Council are still in effect today. Were it not for the adamant Protestant position and successful implementation of strictly

secular public schools, ostensibly to protect against religious denominational favoritism, there could well have developed a system of denominational schools in the United States subsidized and supervised by the state.

After, 1884, Catholic schools moved toward complexity at a rapid pace. Diocesan school boards and diocesan school superintendents began to appear as agents of individual bishops to assist in discharging increasingly technical aspects of administering Catholic schools. (Catholic school boards are usually consultative in nature. They are not administrative boards. Therefore, they assist the Superintendent of Schools by studying with him various educational problems and they help him formulate the programs and policies which are in the best interest of the diocese. In almost every instance the bishop is the honorary chairman of this board and meets with the members in order to give direction and authority to the many decisions which must be made.10)

Following World War II, birth rates shot up and, by the early 1950's, resulted in the increased enrollments and school expansion throughout the country. By 1962, there were 188 chief Catholic-school administrators, with over ninety assistant administrators, to direct diocesan school systems.11 By January 1, 1963, though the decree of the Third Plenary Council had not yet been completely realized, there were 2,434 parochial and private


Catholic high schools, and 10,322 parochial and institutional elementary schools. Staffing these schools as teachers were: 11,749 priests; 1,105 scholastics; 5,462 brothers; 102,343 sisters; and 62,677 laymen. These schools served a Catholic population of 43,851,538 amid a total U.S. population of 183,217,097.12

The pattern of Catholic school organization for executing the bishop's authority in education has remained, for the most part, the one established at the time of the Councils of Baltimore.13 Each parochial school has been to a great extent a quasi-autonomous entity, headed by the pastor of the parish, who is the agent of the bishop. The pastor is generally responsible for the school construction, finance, and staffing. He secures the principal and as many teachers as are available through arrangements with the superior of a religious order of teaching sisters. The order appoints the principal and assigns the teachers to the school, and is responsible for their training, religious development, professional development, and (less completely today with the growth of the diocesan school office) for the instruction provided in schools staffed by its members.14 From a survey of


433 parochial schools in twenty-nine states, Fichter gives the following operational descriptive summary of individual parish elementary school administration:

All of the schools are run by local authority with practically no interference from diocesan officials.

In most of the parochial schools the function of the Pastor seems to be whatever he wants to make it. In ten per cent of the schools he does nothing at all. His most frequently performed role, in seventy-three per cent of the schools, is that of giving out the report cards to the children. In two out of five schools (39%) he teaches religion. In twenty-two per cent of them he acts as ultimate and chief disciplinarian of the pupils. In relatively few instances (7%) does the Pastor visit the classrooms frequently and regularly. There are other isolated activities mentioned in the reports, like judging contests, coaching teams, hearing first Friday confessions.

The Sister Principal, either alone or with one of the parish priests, actually directs the parochial school in more than three-quarters of the cases studied. The full-time Principal, however, is something of a luxury in the parochial school system, existing in only sixteen per cent of the schools. Nine per cent of these schools have part-time Principals, who do some teaching. In the great majority of schools the full-time teaching Principal handles either the eighth grade, or in the smaller schools, the combined seventh and eighth grades.\(^{15}\)

Changes in this traditionally decentralized pattern of school administration are predicted—indeed urged—by many, in view of the growing complexities of Catholic schools and the need for detailed and wide-scale planning. In the words of McCoy:

The older pattern, characterized by a pastor supreme under the bishop in educational matters, can too frequently result in an autonomy exercised with more vigor and self-assurance than professional knowledge. In such extremes it

too closely resembles the district-unit system which so long plagued public education. 16

The response to the increased complexity of educational problems (particularly the greater use of lay teachers) has somewhat strengthened the position of the superintendent in diocesan administration. Nevertheless, there is considerable variation among dioceses in the functions assigned to the diocesan superintendent and in the organizational patterns for developing school policies and practices, as well as continuing obstacles in the way of more centralized school administration.

Return of the Lay Teacher

From Quigley's excellent summary history of laymen in Catholic education, 17 we learn that laymen have played an important role in Catholic education both in the early Church and in America. Sister teachers were a rarity in early American education, and before 1790 only one teaching sisterhood was to be found in the country—the French order of Ursulines in New Orleans. 18 Lay teachers were commonly found staffing American Catholic schools until about the beginning of the nineteenth century, when

16 McCoy, American School Administration, 123.


they began to be supplanted by communities of teaching sisters. While frequently their qualifications left something to be desired, they served an important and useful purpose. Many of these early lay teachers were indentured servants, parish organists, or sextons. Because of low pay, well-qualified lay teachers were scarce. As time went on, enrollments grew and it became almost impossible to secure adequate funds for capable lay teachers. Bishops wrote to Europe asking religious congregations to assume the teaching responsibility of parish schools. As sister teachers began to dominate Catholic school teaching staffs, lay teachers were looked upon as substitutes who were necessary only until religious teachers could take their place.

Since 1920, the number of lay teachers has been on the rise, with the greatest acceleration in the past fifteen years. In 1920, there were about three thousand lay teachers in the Catholic grade schools of the country; and in 1961, there were over thirty thousand, with the ratio of religious to lay teachers about three to one. The increase may be shown numerically from Lunz in Table III (page 26). From 1920 to 1961, the increase in lay teachers in elementary schools was 29,734.

19 Ibid.

### TABLE III

**NUMBER OF LAY TEACHERS IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1920 TO 1961**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>2,989</td>
<td>3,454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>3,643</td>
<td>4,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>4,747</td>
<td>10,823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>29,050</td>
<td>12,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>32,723</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A statistical compilation by Pflaum²¹ (see Table IV, page 27) gives more specific data showing the biennial increase in lay teachers in the past eighteen years—from five per cent of the total number of Catholic elementary school teachers in 1946 to thirty-two per cent in 1962. Since so few priests and brothers make up the percentage of the total religious teachers at the elementary school level, the changes in the figures largely reflect changes in the percentages of sisters.

Conley, reviewing statistical trends in relation to increasing lay teachers in the Catholic schools, points out that the total number of lay teachers in elementary and high schools in

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1948 grew by 537 per cent that number in 1960. During this same period, priests and religious teachers increased by only thirty-seven per cent. The total school enrollment had grown over eighty per cent in this twelve-year period. Also noted by Conley, and confirmed by others, is the changing public image of the lay teacher, so that the lay teacher is winning more widespread and genuine acceptance. Less and less do they have the status of the "boarder"—needed temporarily but not to be considered "a member of the family." 22

**TABLE IV**

**NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RELIGIOUS AND LAY TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES FROM 1946 TO 1963**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year</th>
<th>Total number of teachers</th>
<th>Religious teachers</th>
<th>Lay teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946-47</td>
<td>59,727</td>
<td>56,961</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948-49</td>
<td>62,179</td>
<td>58,946</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-51</td>
<td>66,525</td>
<td>61,788</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952-53</td>
<td>72,457</td>
<td>66,055</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954-55</td>
<td>76,833</td>
<td>67,477</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956-57</td>
<td>84,794</td>
<td>70,692</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958-59</td>
<td>93,100</td>
<td>76,011</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>108,169</td>
<td>79,119</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>111,312</td>
<td>75,741</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As of the beginning of the school year 1962-63, the percentage of lay teachers staffing Catholic elementary schools in 131 of 141 dioceses reporting statistics ranged from seven per cent to sixty per cent. In the twelve diocesan elementary school systems employing over 2,000 elementary teachers, the percentage of lay teachers ranged from twelve per cent to forty-two per cent. 23 (Eleven of these thirteen largest diocesan school systems, in addition to twenty others, have been included in the present study.)

Religious and lay teachers do continue to have some integration problems because of the different sub-culture in which they actually live. Formerly, the Catholic school was staffed only by religious teachers who lived together in a convent or community house, with faculty meetings and supervisory programs occurring as part of community living. Too often, there is resistance of sister principals to regard lay teachers as full-fledged faculty members, with the result that lay teachers function largely cut off from ultimate contact with the religious leadership of the school. However, directives from religious congregations, as well as from diocesan school offices, are increasingly urging the acceptance of the lay teacher as an integral part of the school system. The problems of low salaries, lack of fringe benefits,

tenuous job security, and overcrowded classrooms continue to be serious.

Despite so many negative aspects in the recent past and current situation, it has been found that lay teachers have high personal morale and are increasingly well-accepted by parents of school pupils. The prevailing attitude of parents toward lay teachers is well illustrated in a passage from Father Fichter's study of a single anonymous parish and school:

The three lay teachers at St. Luke's [pseudonym] feel at home in the school. They have cordial reciprocal relations with the religious teachers. They appear to be able to teach the religion classes as competently as most of the nuns. Parents in general hold the traditional view that "it would be better if we could have nuns" when they speak of lay teachers as a category. But when they speak of these three lay teachers as individuals who have care of their children, they tend to rate them highly on the basis of their teaching competence. 24

That lay teachers in the parochial schools are here to stay is evidenced by the growing concern of Catholic school administrators to formulate specific lay teacher policies and to provide for their welfare. McCluskey sees the future of American Catholic schools in terms of purely administrative and academic functions becoming more and more the responsibility of the laity, as is the case in parts of Canada and Europe. As he concludes:

"It has not been a lack of good will but a tradition of isolationism and the general poverty of the Catholic community that has re-

24 Fichter, Parochial School, 295.
Related Studies

An extensive scholarly literature is not to be found as yet on the general subject of lay teachers in Catholic schools, but it has been increasing in the past few years. A great portion of the material available has come and continues to come from the research of master's theses and doctoral dissertations. Other sources are, understandably, Catholic periodicals—particularly those in the field of education. However, these journal articles are seldom comprised of objective studies but more often present informal commentaries on general or particular aspects of lay teacher employment. No study on a national scale up to now has focused on prevailing Catholic school lay teacher employment practices as does the present study.

Prior to 1955, there were few studies concerning lay teachers. Quigley,26 in 1938, conducted the first broad and systematic status study of lay teachers. Because of the marked changes which have occurred in the past three decades, many of his observations and findings are mainly of historical interest. At that time, he found that the number of lay teachers had been increasing since 1920, but that they were regarded by parish priests

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26 Lay Teacher in the American Catholic System.
merely as substitutes whose salary and tenure were of little concern. He correctly predicted greater and greater need for lay teachers and decried the then current negativism toward lay teachers.

Two other studies, McKeever\textsuperscript{27} in 1948 and Novicky\textsuperscript{28} in 1950, appeared in what may be called the early period of the literature on lay teachers. McKeever studied the status of lay teachers in Catholic high schools in five Eastern states and the District of Columbia, using the questionnaire method to obtain information from lay teachers themselves. Novicky used the personal interview in his study of seventy-nine lay teachers employed in twenty-eight Ohio Catholic high schools.

About 1955, studies of lay teachers began to appear more frequently. By then the growing question was no longer whether to accept lay teachers, but how to attract and keep them. The presence of lay teachers in Catholic schools was not only inevitable and necessary but, according to many, even desirable. As their numbers increased, policies had to be devised to accommodate the changing situation—more urgent for some areas such as large cities. No longer would temporary adjustments do. The demand was


for more efficient and organized procedures, or at least for efforts in that direction. Independent school systems or territories responded through the development of their own policies, whatever their shortcomings or assets. Accordingly, more and more studies began to appear surveying these very policies and conditions. While early studies may have inquired into attitudes regarding the growing number of lay teachers in the schools, many studies within the last ten years attempt to evaluate the requirements and conditions of their employment. Former attention to problems of acceptance have now largely shifted to an emphasis on problems of qualification and job security.

A large majority of the status studies that have contributed to the literature on lay teachers in the past decade have originated from Catholic University. Pesci did a master's thesis in 1955 involving twenty-three Catholic schools of different types: thirteen elementary parish schools, six high schools, one academy, one college, and two nursing schools. However, the small sample of schools and lay teachers scattered among such varied educational institutions would not seem to warrant any significant conclusions.


A more carefully designed study by Purcell the same year examined questionnaires returned by 451 lay teachers in Catholic schools of Chicago and other parts of Illinois. He found lay teachers comprised twenty to twenty-five per cent of the total faculties and generally fell into three life-status categories: (1) young single girls from twenty to thirty years of age, (2) middle-aged, married women whose children are no longer a full-time care to them, and (3) elderly ladies who formerly taught in public school systems. The majority were assigned to classes below the fifth-grade level (Janssen's study revealed an identical finding 32). Morale seemed to be high. Nearly seventy-five per cent reported salaries over $2,000, with only ten per cent given regular salary increments by their employees. Less than half had college degrees, with thirty-nine per cent with two years of college or less. Similar or lower proportions of bachelor's degree training were found by Janssen 33 and Glass. 34 Nearly a quarter of the lay teachers in Purcell's sample had no previous teaching experience, and three-quarters had been in the position two years or


32 Janssen, Lay Teacher Program in Iowa, 96.

33 Ibid.

less. About ten per cent reported sickness benefits received in the form of accident or hospitalization insurance, and nearly fifteen per cent had written contracts. Less than ten per cent reported membership in social security or other forms of retirement benefits.

An interesting list of the chief reasons the lay teachers gave for accepting their present teaching assignment is presented in Purcell's study. These included: to relieve the teacher shortage; desire to teach in a Catholic school; wanted occupation with a purpose; school was near my home; because I enjoy teaching; lack of public school requirements; to gain experience; pleasant environment; first opening in my field; needed income. 35

The majority of those surveyed reported they felt the lay teacher should have a permanent place in Catholic schools. Purcell listed, in order of frequency of mention by lay teachers themselves, the causes suggested for lack of lay teachers: salaries too low; no pension or retirement benefits; no sickness benefits or provision for substitutes; no opportunity for advancement; overcrowded classrooms; nonacceptance by parents and children; and, no social contacts. 36

Lack of acceptance by parents is seldom met in later studies. Increasingly favorable attitudes have been found by

35 Purcell, Lay Teacher in Illinois.

36 Ibid.
Delrey, Janssen, and, currently, by Sister Giovanna Maypelli (the latter in a questionnaire study of attitudes toward lay teachers in California parish schools).

A third status study in 1955 was done by Silbermann in the Baltimore Archdiocese. Her study used questionnaires with forty-seven parochial school women lay teachers. The ages ranged from eighteen to sixty-two, with twenty-eight years the mean age. Sixty per cent were married. They taught classes averaging fifty-three pupils in size. No uniform policy for employing lay teachers was in effect. About half the respondents were hired by the principal, twenty-one per cent by the pastor, and the rest by the archdiocesan superintendent. Only twenty-three per cent had written contracts. No provisions for pension, insurance, or tenure were available, but about two-thirds were covered by social security. Teachers volunteered comments reflecting feelings of employment insecurity. Over half of them lacked a college degree and two-thirds did not hold a teaching certificate from the state.


38 Janssen, Lay Teacher Program in Iowa, 98.


The most frequently reported reasons for teaching were (1) to teach in a Catholic school, and (2) to relieve the teacher shortage. The majority indicated a desire to continue teaching in the Catholic schools and said they would not transfer for a salary increase even as much as one thousand dollars per year. This was so despite nearly half reporting the belief that they were treated inequitably by their principals with religious teachers in matters purely scholastic. Similar attitudes were found recently by Dawson in his study of three dioceses in Nebraska—lay teachers expressed happiness in their work and reported many nonfinancial compensations, but there was a serious complaint in not being regularly consulted on school policies.

Another study on the status of the lay teacher covered the dioceses of Mobile-Birmingham, Natchez, St. Augustine, and Savannah-Atlanta. Sister Christine Trepani used data obtained from 240 lay teachers on questionnaires. The majority of the lay teachers in the sample were young married women. About sixty percent had completed three years of college, just over half received a salary under two thousand dollars a year, and only six reported


having a written contract. Generally, the lay teachers reported being happy working with sisters. Recommendations included an increase in salary, a system of sick leave and retirement benefits, and opportunities for lay teachers to complete college.

Sister Christine's findings and recommendations relating to contracts, salaries, benefits, and college training are repeatedly confirmed by other studies. Janssen's study of the lay teacher program in the Catholic elementary schools of Iowa found that most were covered by social security, but otherwise received no regular salary increments or fringe benefits. Also, few had written contracts.

Riegert has recently made some interesting psychological interpretations of the attitudes of lay teachers in Catholic schools. He believes the lay teacher in a Catholic school is prone to have attitudes formed in elementary school years. Inculcated with a deep respect toward, and a deference to, religious teachers, he (she) carries as an adult these attitudes toward religious co-teachers and administrators which deter the development of mature and efficient working relationships. Unconsciously, according to Riegert, the teacher is likely to feel that he ought not to establish himself as a professional equal with the re-

43 Janssen, Lay Teacher Program in Iowa, 97.

religious, but should continue instead the docile and obedient pattern of earlier experience. This parent-type image dependency is said to contribute to the lay teacher's feelings of inferiority and inadequacy, causing them to be less educationally productive than their less psychologically hampered religious colleagues.

While Riegert's views are plausible speculations, they should not be considered more than this without objective evidence, which he fails to report. Other studies, previously cited, report that lay teachers are, in fact, seeking professional equality in their role as faculty members in sister-oriented teaching staffs. It seems equally plausible to speculate that the sister teachers have been inclined to encourage lay teacher dependency.

A 1963 study of Connecticut schools by O'Keefe revealed cooperation and harmony between the religious and lay teachers. A large number of the women in these elementary schools were former public school teachers. Men teachers tended to leave the Catholic schools after five or ten years of experience. Low salaries, lack of benefits, and lack of security were advanced as the main reasons why more Catholic teachers do not teach in Catholic schools.

Sister Teresita Partin\textsuperscript{46} quite recently studied lay teachers in Catholic elementary schools of the Galveston-Houston Diocese. From her study was developed a handbook of policies for lay teachers. Questions from 251 lay teachers found the majority of lay teachers of the diocese were married women under forty years of age. Somewhat less than half reported having completed ninety or more semester hours of college training, and about a third of the total held Texas teaching certificates. The majority had less than five years teaching experience and were utilized in the first four grades. About half of the responding lay teachers said they were continuing their education through summer school or part-time college class attendance. Only about half taught religion classes. About ninety per cent reported receiving annual salaries under three thousand dollars. Very few lay teachers reported either regular salary increases or provision for fringe benefits, including social security. Only fifty of the 251 teachers involved reported having written contracts. Despite economic limitations, the great majority of the teachers expressed satisfaction with their teaching positions and felt that they were working harmoniously and with equal privileges with the religious teachers in academic matters. The findings of this survey indica-

ted that an increase in salary, provision for sick and retirement benefits, a system of tenure, and a program for completion of college work would contribute to the improvement of the status of the elementary lay teachers of the diocese.\textsuperscript{47}

Sister Teresita, as a preliminary to preparing a diocesan handbook for lay teachers for use in the Galveston-Houston diocese, also surveyed a small sample of other diocesan systems regarding a variety of lay teacher policies in effect. The results indicated a trend toward the establishment of centralized diocesan policies on the conditions of service of Catholic school lay teachers.\textsuperscript{48} Recommendations made by Sister Teresita included: improved lay teacher recruitment planning and direction; a diocesan office established to receive lay teacher applicants; special local Catholic college programs established to accelerate training of lay teachers toward the standard of bachelor's degree status and regular state teacher certification; and improvements of salary and fringe benefits to lay teachers, with some plan to subsidize the salaries of lay teachers in the poorer parishes.\textsuperscript{49}

Catholic education (sponsored by the University of Notre Dame, financed by the Carnegie Corporation, and actively supported by the National Catholic Welfare Conference and the National Catholic Educational Association) is involved with intensive or "depth" studies of thirteen representative dioceses across the country. Preliminary findings include, in addition to the increasing rate of lay teachers in Catholic schools: (1) a significant number of non-Catholics are being hired; (2) a large number of otherwise qualified teachers are being employed who have received their undergraduate training from institutions which do not propose a Catholic educational philosophy; (3) a significant number of unqualified people are being employed to teach in Catholic schools, and more of these are in the elementary schools, but enough are in the secondary schools to be rated as more than significant; (4) the training and quality of the lay teacher at work is primarily related to the effectiveness of the controls exercised by the Diocesan Office of Education; (5) the accepted status of the lay teacher in his specific work situation is directly related to his effectiveness; (6) the salary payments to lay teachers affect the quality of teacher candidates and their terms of teaching; and (7) the security of the lay teacher in terms of regular financial improvement and retirement provision also influences the quality of candidates and their terms of teaching.

Evidence of changing and improving conditions and standards of service for lay teachers have recently been reported.
These include diocesan pension plans developed in Catholic school systems in New York and Newark;\textsuperscript{51} steps taken to centralize lay teacher recruitment;\textsuperscript{52} hiring and licensing through diocesan education offices;\textsuperscript{53} and salary improvements.\textsuperscript{54} To date, these published reports have been rather fragmentary and lacking in detail.

The literature on lay teacher involvement in Catholic schools is growing, and parallels the general concern of Catholic educators and parents alike for maintaining Catholic schools in sufficient quantity and quality to meet the educational and spiritual needs of Catholic children throughout the country. The pendulum of attitudes toward lay teacher employment in Catholic schools has swung from reluctant acquiescence in the 1930's to rather enthusiastic acceptance in the 1960's.

While, in general, these studies and articles often point with pride to the good morale and apostolic devotion of Catholic lay teachers, who frequently derive many nonfinancial compensations in Catholic school teaching, they also commonly cite serious problems involving lay teacher shortages related to inadequate...
equacies of salary, contractual status, fringe benefits, and the resulting preponderance of insufficiently trained lay staff. Lack of advancement opportunities reduces the number of men teachers retained, as well as the number of women career teachers attracted. The growing needs and fundamental importance of the lay teacher have been recognized. But, now, more concern is being shown toward comprehensive or general conditions under which the most capable staff can be attracted and retained as teachers of Catholic youth.
CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data are analyzed in terms of the frequency and type of administrative control of practices, with attention to the relationships among the findings in regard to (1) size of school system by pupil population, (2) number of lay teachers under employment, and (3) geographical size of diocese. Table V (page 45) gives the statistics in these three areas for each separate diocese or school system.

Topics will generally follow the order of their appearance in the questionnaire (see Appendix I). Authorities in the field of public school personnel practices are cited where their comments bear upon present findings. Comparisons are made with recommended personnel practices in public school administration, and with the National Education Association survey of personnel practices in urban public school districts.¹ In the course of the chapter—to distinguish between related findings of the NEA investigation and those of the present study—the term districts will apply to the public school study, and the term systems will be

¹ NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School system</th>
<th>Number of pupils</th>
<th>Number of lay teachers</th>
<th>Number of square miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>118,876</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>2,465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>180,641</td>
<td>1,002</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>80,404</td>
<td>991</td>
<td>6,357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>289,721</td>
<td>2,455</td>
<td>1,411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>76,976</td>
<td>887</td>
<td>8,543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>112,000</td>
<td>1,113</td>
<td>3,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>158,647</td>
<td>1,315</td>
<td>5,374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>32,903</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>17,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6,154</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22,354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>28,795</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>26,847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>45,548</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>10,851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>41,823</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>2,288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>33,460</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>13,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>30,956</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>4,218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>40,529</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>10,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>985</td>
<td>4,758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>137,203</td>
<td>1,307</td>
<td>541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>31,375</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>7,577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>174,260</td>
<td>1,291</td>
<td>4,717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>29,104</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>14,051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>212,267</td>
<td>1,083</td>
<td>2,183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>109,998</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>4,092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>47,142</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>7,107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>75,939</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>1,222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>26,179</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>30,245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>75,385</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>6,187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>45,004</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>2,325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>46,915</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>8,222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>63,169</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>3,777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>46,341</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>2,104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>36,980</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>3,404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,534,699</td>
<td>21,242</td>
<td>238,335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
used in connection with the diocesan Catholic schools of the present study.

Selection Procedures

Part I of the questionnaire consisted of nine questions asking school systems to report which practices were in current use in evaluating and selecting applicants for teaching positions.

According to Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, personnel selection is "one of the most important responsibilities of the administrative staff and the board of education."² They later state that each school system "should formulate and adopt some guiding principles for teacher selection and include them in the personnel policies of the school system."³

Among key principles recommended by educational authorities applicable to teacher selection are that "those persons who are the most competent to judge qualifications should have the responsibility for selecting teachers,"⁴ and that the procedures be systematic, cover desirable personal characteristics of employees and professional job requirements, and make use of a variety of


³ Ibid., 227.

⁴ Ward G. Reeder, Fundamentals of Public School Administration, New York, 1958, 90.
appraisal techniques.\textsuperscript{5}

The common procedures of appraisal of candidates, listed in order of frequency of use, are:

1. Personal interview with applicants
2. Information and opinion from persons named as references
3. Formal application blanks
4. Transcripts of college preparation
5. Proof of legal certification for positions sought
6. Verification of experience records reported by applicants
7. Observation of classroom work of applicant
8. Required physical examination of applicants
9. Required written examination
10. Other practices which might include: required chest X-ray, birth certificate, informal letter of application, oral examinations, and check with persons not given as references.\textsuperscript{6}

Catholic systems in the present study generally recognize the fundamental significance of teacher selection principles and practices, and demonstrate a use of a variety of appraisal techniques in choosing lay teachers and, also, they clearly show concern about the personal and professional characteristics of their lay teachers. There is, however, variability among dioceses in the degree of central office specialization in this aspect of personnel administration.

\textbf{Written Examination}

Moore and Walters\textsuperscript{7} have found that the use of written

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textsuperscript{5} Elsbree and Reutter, \textit{Personnel Administration}, 12-13.
  \item \textsuperscript{6} Moore and Walters, \textit{Personnel Administration}, 203.
  \item \textsuperscript{7} Ibid., 205.
\end{itemize}
examinations as a requirement in teacher selection is not extensively used outside of the largest cities. The present findings support this conclusion. Only one school system (3.2 per cent) of the thirty-one responding in the present study reported the use of a written examination as a selection device for choosing lay teachers. In this single instance, the examination is prepared within the diocese and not by an outside agency. Content involves English, mathematics, history, and religion.

This usage is similar to that of the urban public school districts survey report of 1.4 per cent of the districts as a whole (another 1.4 per cent encouraged but did not require applicants to take written examinations for teaching positions). The frequency of the practice rose to 69.6 per cent in the largest districts. Most commonly used were the National Teacher Examinations. Wells' study of seventeen large public school districts found that five cities utilized the National Teacher Examinations, while seven others administered their own tests. A more common use of these examinations is made by state departments of education for certification purposes, which may be considered part of the selection process--though not at the local level--where cer-


Certification is a basic requirement. (Certification on the basis of college credits is preferred by many. Objections to written examinations concern the possibility of encouraging uniformity in teacher-education curricula and possible misuse of the instrument.)

The practice of issuing state certificates solely on the basis of an examination has been almost completely abandoned. Where used, written examinations are not designed to supplant other sources of information, but rather to furnish supplementary measures of academic and cultural attainments based on the performance of a large group of teachers.

Oral Personal Interview

"Probably the best means of securing information about a prospective teacher is the personal interview." Summarizing their own views as well as other authorities, Moore and Walters believe that the interview provides:

1. An opportunity for a general appraisal of the candidate's personality
2. An opportunity to gain some insight into the candidate's

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10 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 206.
12 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 225.
13 Ibid., 224.
educational philosophy and professional outlook

3. An opportunity to evaluate the candidate's voice and physical characteristics
4. An opportunity to learn of the candidate's ambitions and plans for the future
5. An opportunity to get information on the candidate's education and experience

Table VI (page 51) summarizes the responses regarding the use of the oral personal interview in selecting lay teacher applicants in the Catholic elementary school systems surveyed. It is to be noted that every school system recommended utilization of this technique. Nearly three-fourths (74.2 per cent) require an interview. Variation occurs in the degree of centralization and the degree of directiveness exercised by the authorities of the school systems in "requiring" or merely "suggesting" this method. More than a third of the total group (38.7 per cent) maintain close centralized control over applicant interviews and specify that they be held in the central office. Regardless of the centralization of interviews, one would agree with Grieder, and also Reeder, that the principal should have a role in the interviewing process of all candidates for positions in his school.

Extensive use of personal interviews was similarly found in the public school survey. Virtually all (99.9 per cent) urban school districts held personal interviews with candidates for

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14 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 206.
15 Public School Administration, 224.
16 Fundamentals of Public School Administration, 104.
teaching positions. In more than three-quarters of the districts (79.6 per cent), applicants were interviewed by more than one person. The latter procedure was common in districts having a high expenditure per pupil level.\textsuperscript{17} This practice is advocated by

TABLE VI

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS USING ORAL PERSONAL INTERVIEWS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oral personal interview</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggested</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggested</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both central office and local school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggested</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} All four require an interview conducted from the local school, and suggest another from the central office.

\textsuperscript{17} NEA, \textit{Personnel Administration}, 1961-62, 27.
Grieder\textsuperscript{18} as one which provides a composite judgment on the applicant's fitness for employment.

Wells\textsuperscript{19} found the interview to be the second most common selection technique (application blank was first) reported by sixteen of the seventeen large school districts in her investigation. Eleven of these sixteen follow a prepared interview blank to aid the oral examiners and reduce subjectivity. On these blanks the most common areas judged were voice, speech and appearance, personal fitness for the position, training, experience, and manner and bearing.

One Catholic school system enclosed a sample interview blank sheet used in the central office interviews. Besides space for the name, address, and phone of the applicant, and the date, it covered such areas as: applicant's training for teaching; personal family duties that might affect teaching; evaluation of personality, appearance, and use of language; credentials on file, including transcripts and references. (Some of the standard application blanks for lay teacher candidates provide space for an interviewer's comments. One-fourth of the twenty-seven sample application blanks received are so designed.)

Qualifications considered essential for rating during the interview were enumerated by fourteen of the school adminis-

\textsuperscript{18} Public School Administration, 224.

\textsuperscript{19} Selecting Teachers in Large Cities, 80-85.
trators. Those items reported by two or more respondents include the following, in order of frequency of mention: practical Catholicity, morals and character; state teaching certification requirements; professional training; knowledge of classroom procedures; good speech qualities; personal appearance; and scholastic ability.

One or more of the following qualities were designated by other superintendents: common sense, intelligence, ability to work with others, dedication, justice, honesty, emotional stability, poise, reasonably good physical and mental health, courtesy, spirit of cooperation, personality, attitude, interest, Catholic education, eagerness to be in and stay in the system. The five general qualifications for teachers described by Moehlman (vitality, emotional stability, intelligence, social qualities, and training) can all be found among these responses.

With the exception of "Catholic education," all the listed characteristics or traits sought in lay teacher applicants might well apply to any school system's standards for teacher selection and to Moore and Walter's previously cited uses of the interview (above, pages 49-50). In the case of Catholic education,

20 Meeting state teaching certification requirements is a sine qua non of those Catholic school systems where state legal requirements cover both public and private school teachers.

the practical nature of this is evident.

The central office interview requirement was more prevalent in larger school systems—those with large numbers of pupils and lay teachers. Required interviews at the local school level were more frequently reported by the smaller systems. Dioceses covering more extensive territories were more likely to specify individual school interviews.

Individual schools often utilize the interview to judge how well an applicant will fit into the local situation. A common hiring procedure in some dioceses is for the sister principal to evaluate the written information about an applicant (along with, perhaps, an interview) and then, if satisfied, to submit a summary of the credentials to the pastor (where the final decision often rests). If the pastor considers the applicant satisfactory, the contract may be signed at the conclusion of the interview he conducts with the candidate. It may be during the pastor's interview that the duties, schedule, and general role of the lay teacher in the parish school are described as well as the salary and related benefits. "Professional" utilization of the interview on the local level is unlikely where there is limited professional training of the principal and/or pastor and, particularly, when the choice of applicants is small and the need for lay teachers great.

Marked lay teacher shortages and slow development of diocesan-wide school administration (staff, organization, and authority) similarly hamper the refinement of interviewing techniques on the central
office level.

Written References

In the investigation of a candidate's qualifications, the written reference provides the opinion of the person contacted concerning a prospective teacher.\textsuperscript{22} Forms vary with different schools but usually ask for a rating of the applicant as to "character, teaching ability, personality, appearance, attitude toward children, use of English, physical fitness, and other aspects of personality and professional qualities."\textsuperscript{23} In the public schools, administrative officials commonly collect information and opinions from persons named as references. One example of such a policy states: "The teacher selected should be one whose character is vouched for by persons who know him well and whose reputation for integrity can be checked by the superintendent and the staff."\textsuperscript{24}

In the present study, the use of written references was reported by 87.1 per cent of the school systems. Table VII (page 56) indicates that almost two-thirds (64.5 per cent) of the sample handle the procedure through their central office. The required centralized use of this selection technique is somewhat (25.8 per

\textsuperscript{22} Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, \textit{Public School Administration}, 221-222.

\textsuperscript{23} Ibid.

\textsuperscript{24} Weber, \textit{Personnel Problems}, 40.
more widespread than the use of personal interviews of candidates. None of the eleven largest systems in terms of elementary pupil population failed to report this practice; only two of these do not check the references centrally. Increased size is not consistently a factor here beyond the very largest systems. (Twenty of the twenty-seven sample application blanks received include space for listing "personal" references, nineteen for listing "professional" references, and seven for reference from the applicant's pastor.)

**TABLE VII**

**NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS USING WRITTEN REFERENCES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Require written references</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both central office and local school</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the public school districts, use of written references in selecting candidates for teaching positions was also very
common (93.6 per cent) and second to that of the personal inter-
view. 25

Acceptable sources of written references include the fol-
lowing, as reported by nineteen school systems (61.3 per cent) in
decreasing frequency of mention: former employers--including
teaching supervisors, principals, and superintendents; pastors or
other priests or religious; former teachers and professors; col-
lege counselors; teaching associates; professional people; respon-
sible members of the community; and neighbors.

The main use of references reported was to check moral
character (and practical Catholicity) and professional background
(professional experience and training). A typical pattern of
handling references is to seek one character reference and one
professional reference--the character reference from a priest,
preferably the pastor; and the professional reference from the
former employer and/or college teachers. Character references are
sometimes used negatively to screen out undesirable candidates.
This practice is common when references are centrally verified.
Local schools make use of them particularly when the applicant is
a stranger to the pastor and the principal.

References tend to be requested routinely, but follow-up
and analysis of these references is not consistent, except where
there is uncertainty about the fitness of the applicant. Varia-

tion within dioceses is apt to be particularly wide where little centralization of hiring procedures for lay teachers has developed. One very large system reported that written references are not always checked, "but always if any doubt regarding the candidate exists." Another administrator said candidly: "Our application blank calls for references, though we do not follow up the references given."

Written references, in the writer's opinion, are properly received with a degree of caution. In seeking a teaching position, or any other employment for that matter, a prospective employee would ordinarily elect to list or secure references from individuals most likely to present a favorable image. However, where written references are secured confidentially from all of the applicant's previous employers, particularly when answers to specific questions are sought, greater objectivity is probable.

Evaluation of College Credits

An official transcript of credits reveals the professional preparation of the candidate, and furnishes some clue to the ability of the teacher (from a history of courses and grades) and his desirability or fitness for the position.

Table VIII (Page 59) shows that 80.6 per cent of the present sample report evaluating college credentials of their lay teacher applicants. Well over half (61.3 per cent) of the systems conduct this procedure in the central office. The analysis in
terms of pupil population and number of lay teachers showed greater utilization of this practice by many of the smaller systems and by nearly all of the largest systems. Those who did not report this method were mainly large-area dioceses.

TABLE VIII
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS EVALUATING COLLEGE CREDITS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluation of college credits</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both central office and local school</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Checking college credits is an expected procedure—simply to verify the fundamental qualifications of a teacher applicant. In addition, however, requirements of state school codes and also salary schedule pay differentials sometimes become directly involved or hinge upon the evaluation of these credits. Certification of public school teachers is commonly based, at least in part, on college credits. Local public school districts may set standards (educational and/or experience requirements)
higher than the state requires; they may also reject a candidate who has met state certification requirements.

Transcripts of college preparation were required in 81.1 per cent of the NEA survey of public school districts, increasing in frequency as school district size increased.27

Twenty-one (67.7 per cent) diocesan superintendents responded to the write-in item regarding standards (grades and/or courses) required in relation to college credits. Their responses may be summarized as follows:

1. Eight systems indicated that a bachelor's degree was a basic requirement; one specified that this degree be in the field of education and three qualified their reply to the effect that really less would, in need, be acceptable.

2. Seven systems reported two years of college or sixty semester hours of credit acceptable.

3. Six systems report courses in education methods required; but only two of these indicate number of credit hours required (three and six), not the specific courses.

4. Six systems require at least a "C" average on the applicant's college record or "good academic standing."

5. Four school systems refer to state requirements as their own standards, since these requirements in their state are binding

26 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 207-208

upon public and parochial schools as well.

6. Other "standards" mentioned were approval by superintendent, and background in religious instruction from Catholic elementary or high school training or from special training courses.

Analysis of the responses on college credit requirements reveals variations from diocese to diocese, variations within dioceses, and, at times, departures from ideal or desirable standards of a school or central office. Dioceses not covered by state law or regulation tend, because of teacher shortages, to be flexible in course requirements. Typically, preferred standards for lay teacher candidates include a bachelor's degree with courses in education. In need, this may be reduced to a minimum requirement of two years of college. Courses in methods—especially reading and arithmetic—are frequently mentioned as desirable.

It is important here to point out that many school systems in the present study admit weakness of their standards in failing to require a bachelor's degree of all applicants. Many systems, and this is very common, request sub-bachelor's degree teachers hired to agree to complete their college work—in the meanwhile granting them a temporary or "emergency" diocesan teaching license or permit. The view of many school systems, as became apparent from an examination of their policy statements and questionnaire responses, is epitomized in the words of one of the sample policy books:

The ideally trained teacher is one who has a liberal
arts education, professional training, and practice teaching. This is our standard. Some day we hope to be able to meet it. Until then we accept a minimum standard of two years of college with education courses or a college degree without professional courses. Teachers who have only the minimum requirements are expected to continue their education until all requirements are fulfilled. These standards apply to religious and lay teachers.

The problem is actually quite comparable in public schools. Variations from state to state and from region to region similarly arise because of differences in state financial resources, and the supply of and demand for teachers. Moreover, requirements are not necessarily stable, nor are certification requirements rigidly enforced. In the sixteen most populous states, according to Conant, escape clauses make it relatively simple for a local school district to circumvent these requirements, with the result that large numbers of people are teaching in public school classrooms who do not meet the state's current minimum requirements for provisional, much less permanent, certification. More on this problem of certification and licensing will be reviewed later in this chapter, where relevant items in Part II of the questionnaire are discussed.

Application Blank

A formal application blank is a means of getting infor-


29 Ibid., 51.
information about the candidates in a concise and uniform manner. This
device is used by most school administrators to secure informa-
tion pertaining to candidates for teaching positions. "There are
about as many different kinds of application blanks used as there
are different school systems, each administrator having his opin-
ion as to the kinds of information which the blank should re-
quest." The findings of the present study confirm this state-
ment of Grieder. For example, there were no duplications in for-
mat of the twenty-seven application blanks received in the present
survey, although there were numerous points of similarity in in-
formation requested of candidates. The most frequently requested
information by the majority of the responding Catholic school sys-
tems, in descending order of frequency, were: general information
(name, address, phone, etc.); teaching experience; college back-
ground information; family status; date of birth; high school and
grade school background; grade level of teaching preferred; per-
sonal references; professional references; teaching certificate or
license information; college major and minor; and parish. Less
frequent items seem to reflect particular concerns of individual
systems, such as: car ownership; student teaching experience; ant-
ticipated duration of employment; interest in private tutoring;

30 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel. Public School
Administration, 221.

31 Ibid.
and signature of the pastor.

An examination of Table IX reveals that 90.3 per cent of the school systems studied report the use of a standard application blank, and that all but two of these systems (83.9 per cent of the total group) review this blank in the central office. Both of these exceptions are large-area dioceses. The application blank as a selection device is the one most commonly reported in use by the school systems of this study. The three that did not report this practice were small pupil-population school systems.

TABLE IX

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS USING APPLICATION BLANKS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review application blank</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both central office and local school</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use of a formal application blank in the public school districts was the third most frequently used selection practice, reported by 88.6 per cent of the districts—which is comparable to
usage in the diocesan systems studied. As was typical of most of the selection practices of the public school survey, the frequency tended to decrease as school district size decreased. 32

A further discussion in more depth of application blanks received is presented in Chapter IV.

Health Examination

School systems were asked to indicate whether they require a health examination of lay teacher candidates and, if so, whether this is checked in the central office, the local school, or both. In Table X, it can be seen that more than a third of the

TABLE X

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS REQUIRING HEALTH EXAMINATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Require health examination</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both central office and local school</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>64.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

school systems (eleven, or 35.5 per cent) reported requiring health examinations, and of these only six check on these examinations through their central office. Nearly two-thirds (64.5 per cent) of the school systems in the survey did not report this practice. However, three of these do make an inquiry about the applicant's health status on their application blank. Three others of the six application blanks containing a reference to the health of an applicant are among those who listed this practice as a requirement.

One school system replied that "a health certificate is requested from each teacher applicant and is to be attached to the application form." Another commented: "If doubt exists, a doctor's certificate is requested." One system referred to periodic state required tuberculosis X-ray examinations as their principal health requirement. (Public school officials in three states have responsibilities for insuring that persons having communicable tuberculosis are not employed in public or nonpublic schools.33 One state simply prohibits their employment in schools; the other two—one of which is represented above—require an X-ray every two or every three years.)

One of the school systems reporting a required health examination stated that it is required for state certification.

This was the only system in the sample among the six states that have a health certificate as part of their certification requirements and also certify private school teachers.\textsuperscript{34} For certification of private and/or public school teachers, over half of the states require a general health certificate.\textsuperscript{35}

The required health examination was more common in the smaller school systems of the present sample—those with a smaller pupil population and number of employed lay teachers. In the public school survey, the reverse was true—with the practice of a required health examination tending to decrease in frequency as school district size decreased. A major difference in practice occurred between large districts—which staff and specify examination by a board physician—and smaller districts, which specify examination by personal physician. About three-quarters (76.9 percent) of the total group of public school districts required a health examination,\textsuperscript{36} a notably greater proportion than the one-third incidence in the Catholic school systems studied. Differences between the public school districts and the Catholic school


\textsuperscript{35} NEA, Teacher and the Law, 20.

\textsuperscript{36} NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 29.
systems studied in the matter of required health examinations yielded the greatest disparity of all the selection techniques compared.

Grieder considers good health essential for effective teaching, that "children have a right to have teachers who are strong both physically and mentally." \(^{37}\) Good mental, physical, and emotional health are especially important when we consider the close contact most school employees have with large numbers of children. No person should be employed on a school staff without a complete physical examination. \(^{38}\)

The writer is in agreement with this demand, but also supports the contention of Moehlman that "too much emphasis is placed on the physical perfection of teachers instead of their vitality, a much broader and deeper quality." \(^{39}\) The writer would also call attention to Elsbree's principle that teachers should receive periodic health and X-ray examinations, \(^{40}\) rather than rely only on initial health evaluation of staff members.

Evidence of Practical Catholicity

One item in the questionnaire asked if evidence is re-

\(^{37}\) Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 218.

\(^{38}\) New York State Education Department, Personnel Management in Public Schools, University of State of New York, Albany, 1955, 22.

\(^{39}\) Moehlman, School Administration, 210.

\(^{40}\) Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 45.
quired that the applicant is a practicing Catholic and, if so, whether this evidence is checked in the central office or in the local school or in both. Table XI shows that almost two-thirds (64.5 per cent) reported this requirement. Nearly half of the systems in the survey (48.4 per cent) check the evidence in their central office. This centralized procedure appeared in most of the largest school systems and in many of the smallest, in terms of pupil population and number of lay teachers.

**TABLE XI**

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS REQUIRING EVIDENCE OF PRACTICAL CATHOLICITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review evidence of Catholicity</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both central office and local school</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eleven school systems (35.5 per cent) did not record a response to this item. However, four of these 41 inserted a com-

41 Application blanks submitted by three members of this group provide for the name of the applicant's "parish."
ment. One indicated that this information is derived from the inter-
terview; another reported that if a person is a Catholic, with
Catholic education, it is presumed the person is a practical Cath-
olic unless there is evidence to the contrary; one wrote that non-
Catholics are hired in necessity; the last replied that no re-
quirement has been made by the school office. The remaining seven
left the item blank.

Of seventeen systems listing acceptable sources of ev-
idence for the lay teacher candidate's religious practice, nearly
every one names the applicant's pastor or other clergy acquainted
with him. Four systems indicated they hire non-Catholics as well
as Catholics, with three of these qualifying the response with one
of the following comments:

"Occasionally non-Catholics are hired, but only by way of
exception. They do not, of course, teach religion."

"In emergencies, often qualified non-Catholics are accepted."

"If the teacher is a Catholic he must be one in good stand-
ing. We also have non-Catholics employed as lay teachers."

The fourth respondent reported simply: "Non-Catholics are also
employed." The finding that some Catholic systems permit the hi-
ring of non-Catholic lay teachers is in agreement with Neuwein's
previously cited progress report (above, page 41) on the Carnegie
study of Catholic education. (The policy book of one of the
school systems which require evidence of the applicant's practical
Catholicity has the following statement: "Non-Catholic lay teach-
ers are out of place in Catholic schools."
Judgments as to a candidate's practical Catholicity in the present survey come typically from references from the candidate's pastor or priest-acquaintances, as well as directly or indirectly through the interview process. Admittedly, there are problems inherent in measurement of an individual's religious motivation and practice. Nevertheless, there is need for some concrete basis for the screening of candidates. Examples of religious practice, ranging from those commanded by the Church (fulfilling Easter duty and regular attendance at Sunday Mass) to those which are optional (frequent reception of the Sacraments) furnish external criteria which tend to supply evidence of the religious spirit of a Catholic adult. More complete evaluation of the functional Catholicism of a teacher as it would relate to teaching is necessarily deferred until the teacher can be observed in a variety of teaching situations and relationships with the pupils. Wider use of character references, with specific inquiries concerning moral and religious conduct, could offer additional information in this area. Another possible consideration to aid this pre-service screening would be to devise a questionnaire-test of the individual's religious knowledge and attitudes.

There is variation within diocesan schools regarding the use of lay teachers as instructors in classes in religion. Actual religious instruction may be furnished by the pastor and/or his assistants, by the sisters and the pastor, or by sisters, priests, and lay teachers.
The writer believes that, ideally, lay teachers in Catholic grade schools should be not only Catholic but also superior examples of their faith, both in precept and in action, because of the influence of their example on their pupils. This idea is expressed by Grieder as applied to the individual public school teacher's philosophy of education not clashing too harshly with the prevailing philosophy of the school system. "If the administration has one concept of purpose in education and the teacher holds another, the pupil may be caught between the two conflicting forces." 42

Problems and Anticipated Improvements in Selection

Replies to the open-end questions on selection procedures were in regard to (1) current problems, and (2) anticipated changes and improvements in the next decade. This information offers a qualitative dimension to the foregoing quantitative data, since it serves to pinpoint some of the needs and hopes of several prominent school administrators. The comments seem especially meaningful when examined in their original form and are, therefore, reproduced in full in the appendix (see Appendix IV).

Problems mentioned by superintendents call attention to the scarcity of applicants—which in turn reduces the ideal use of proper selection procedures to rather broad or crude screening.

42 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 220.
of obvious incompetents. Dioceses with a large geographical radius frequently have great difficulty in attempting to centralize procedures of selection and must, therefore, rely on local people more than might otherwise be desirable.

The most recurring changes anticipated relate to increasing centralization of procedures in the selection of lay teachers. Such an anticipated increase was explicitly or implicitly stated by nearly half of the total group of respondents. There is a discernible tone of dissatisfaction with present methods of lay teacher selection, and implications that numerous lay teachers have been hired with insufficient preliminary evaluation. Local schools are often viewed as inconsistent in adhering to wise hiring procedures. One superintendent calls particular attention to the resistance of some pastors to heed diocesan regulations in the matter of hiring lay teachers. (The role and status of Catholic school superintendents is quite different from that in public schools. The main differences are in financial control and authority over schools. When the public school board of education makes regulations and requirements, it must also provide the funds necessary to carry out these regulations. In Catholic school systems, the regulations are made by the bishop, either directly or through the diocesan school board, or superintendent, but the pastor must raise the money. Thus a pastor may use as an excuse for not complying with many school regulations the fact that the
parish cannot afford it. The efficacy of diocesan educational directives therefore depends, to a great extent, upon the co-operation and good will of individual pastors and principals.) Here are the words of still another superintendent who emphasized this same point in a letter which accompanied his returned question-naire:

We can urge, propose, recommend, etc.—that these are things that should be done. Most of the pastors who are "schoolmen" will follow. However, what is done is not done by regulation from the diocesan office. It is done by letter, by visits, by talks to Home and School groups, etc.

This predicament has also been confirmed by Catholic educators in informal conversations with the writer.

This, then, appears to be a fundamental issue in Catholic school lay personnel employment practice, namely, realistically centralizing control and consistency of standards of employment of lay teachers in view of the traditional and long established local semi-autonomy of pastors who are, in fact, consistently regarded as the chief administrators of parish schools. The present success of Catholic school "systems," McCoy alleges, owes much to the frequently "heroic efforts" of priest-superintendents in the face of inadequately refined patterns of administration. One former public school superintendent and convert to Catholicism has observed that such a condition of divided author-

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43 McCoy, American School Administration, 119-121.
44 Ibid., 122.
ity functions without constant and serious friction in the conduct of Catholic parochial schools only "through fervent dedication of self" and a common motivation to carry on Christian education.

Tightening of existing central office teacher-selection procedures, increased staff in central offices, and the aid of employed teachers in screening candidates are other needs which are stressed by the responding superintendents. Some concern is also voiced about the usefulness of existing procedures which fail to prevent occasional hiring of incompetent teachers.

Summary

In evaluating and selecting applicants for teaching positions, the application blank was the most commonly reported selection device by Catholic school systems in this study. In descending order of frequency of use were written references, evaluation of college credentials, oral personal interview, evidence of applicant's practical Catholicity, and written examination. Use of these practices (excluding practical Catholicity) was comparable to that of public school districts in a recent National Education Association survey which reported these techniques in the following order of descending frequency: personal interviews, written references, application blank, college transcripts, and written examination. Requirement of a health examination prior to employment was far less prevalent in the Catholic school systems than in the public school districts.
Within the Catholic systems, variations in selection practices stemmed from factors of centralization and the degree of directiveness by the authorities of the school systems in "requiring" or merely "suggesting" the methods. Central office requirement or control of these practices tended to increase as pupil population and number of lay teachers employed increased. This was especially true of the use of written references, evaluating college credits, and checking evidence that the applicant is a practicing Catholic. The great majority of systems review the application blank in the central office. Health examinations, required by few of the systems, were more prevalent in the smaller systems when ranked by pupil population and number of lay teachers.

Differences in geographical size appeared to have considerable effect on the central regulation of these practices, and even the use of them in the very largest area dioceses. School systems covering more extensive territories were more likely to report practices regulated and/or executed on the local school level.

Two years of college training is a minimum standard required by many of the Catholic systems, and commonly sub-bachelor's degree teachers hired are given temporary or so-called "emergency" diocesan licenses and required to agree to complete their college work while teaching. There is some indication that Catholic systems are striving toward bachelor's degree status for all elementary teachers, though this ideal is far from realization at pres-
ent because of the difficulty in attracting qualified teachers.

Where there is greater centralization, many personnel administration problems are reduced through greater consistency and improved standards of hiring procedures. Local school autonomy of selection practices was more common in the more widely extended dioceses in geographical area. Practical limitations are evident—such as the distance an applicant would have to travel for in person central office evaluation such as a personal interview. More compact dioceses are thus more easily centralized and able to utilize a wider range of selection techniques under close central office supervision. The more widely dispersed dioceses, therefore, have increased special problems which may lead to inconsistent and/or insufficient preliminary evaluative screening of teacher applicants. The process is necessarily left to local school pastors and principals who may feel psychologically as well as geographically well-removed from central office attempts to govern or advise from afar on ideal selection practices. In these instances, the responsibility of screening and evaluating candidates is less likely to be in the hands of personnel specialists. Even where selection practices are fairly centralized, full use of desirable teacher selection or appraisal techniques are hampered all too frequently by inadequate numbers of trained central office staff and suitable office facilities. Public school systems many times share, according to Moore and Walters, in having failed to

Personnel Administration, 455.
develop and emphasize specialization in the personnel field as a prerequisite for service in this area of school administration.

Selectivity is also a function of supply, and lack of qualified lay teacher candidates may force the local school, in desperation, to hire the unqualified. A central problem in the selection of Catholic lay teachers is that of maintaining desirable selectivity standards in the face of shortages of available lay teachers. When applicants are available in greater numbers, it becomes more possible to refine selection techniques and standardize procedures to better control the quality of teachers hired and upgrade teacher training requirements.

A second problem of great concern is the reluctance of some parochial schools to follow established standards. The traditional autonomy of the parochial school, together with the vague interpretive role of the superintendent of diocesan schools, has militated against system-wide organization along the pattern of public school administration.

Some specific methods toward improving teacher selection are suggested by Grieder:

(1) placing less confidence in letters of recommendation;
(2) replacing the short, haphazard interview with well-planned expertly conducted individual and group interviews;
(3) using biographical information and transcripts of credits to determine appropriateness of background and experience;
(4) considering test data—particularly on knowledge and mental ability—as a screening device to identify applicants with extremely low scores; and (5) placing emphasis on inter-
views with individuals who know the candidate's past performance. 46

Securing teachers for the growing number of parochial school classrooms is so consuming a task for the majority of these school systems, however, that refining and improving methods of selection takes on a relative lack of urgency. The progress which has already been made toward more desirable and systematic selection procedures owes much to compromises between tradition and exigencies which transcend individual parish lines.

Selection problems do not, moreover, exist in isolation. They are clearly related to other matters—particularly recruitment results, which in turn hinge on favorable conditions of employment to attract and retain desirable candidates.

Recruitment Procedures

Teacher personnel problems begin with recruitment. It is not possible to confine hiring to screening the best from a number of applications on file in the administrator's office. Because of the mounting competition for the services of teachers, seeking additions or replacements for the school staff has become for the school administrator a task of advertising and selling, of searching and active pursuit.

The problem of recruiting desirable applicants for

46 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 226-227.
teaching positions is greatly simplified if conditions of employment are favorable from a competitive standpoint. The rate of teacher turnover reveals something of the working conditions in a school or school system. Factors which cause a large turnover of teachers each year must be investigated with an attempt to correct them, both for the sake of continuity of staff and to attract more capable candidates. A certain amount of turnover is inevitable, but the proportion can be reduced considerably if sub-standard conditions are remedied. The average yearly teacher turnover of approximately fifteen per cent\textsuperscript{47} gives some idea of what may be expected. The chief reason teachers leave their jobs (excluding marriage or family reasons) is the greater attractiveness of another job situation.\textsuperscript{48} Therefore, it becomes prudent to plan and provide for inducements to encourage teachers to remain longer in the school system.

Catholic schools, especially, have a growing problem of finding new teachers because of rapid expansion and because of the higher percentage of turnover than in the public schools. Higher turnover arises, in part, because of the greater proportion of women on the staff and, consequently, more numerous resignations

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{47} Ibid., 221.
\end{flushright}

\begin{flushright}
\end{flushright}
due to marriage and family reasons. Also, matters of salary and other general conditions of employment obviously have a marked influence, particularly where these features are pointedly more attractive in public schools.

Methods of Recruitment

There is no one method upon which administrators can rely to locate desirable teacher applicants. It is vital to make use of all possible methods. Moore and Walters classify practices in recruiting applicants for teaching positions into six groups:

1. use of teacher placement bureaus;
2. direct application by the candidates;
3. inquiries at conventions and similar gatherings;
4. cooperation between school systems;
5. published announcements of positions to be filled; and
6. other practices, such as obtaining names through members of the staff, direct recruitment on campuses of teacher-preparing institutions, and lists from county superintendent's office.

The first three items in Part II of the questionnaire sought information on the methods of locating and attracting applicants for teaching positions in parish schools. Two of the questions dealt with specific techniques (the use of college campus visits by school system personnel, and the circulation of brochures descriptive of the schools); the third asked for descriptions of other means of recruitment.

Table XII (page 82) shows that almost half of the


50 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 198-199.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Visits to college campuses</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertisements in local Catholic newspapers</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local recruitment by principals and pastors</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Circulation of brochures</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parish pulpit announcements</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lay teacher cadet scholarship programs directed to high school pupils and parishes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper (Catholic and/or secular) articles or advertisements</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contacts of central office personnel with local colleges</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parish bulletins</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referrals by parent groups</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal contacts of Newman Club chaplains with graduates of secular colleges</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applicant referral from central office to local school</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talks by central office personnel</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appeals to Catholic college graduates</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referrals by religious communities</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
thirty-one Catholic systems reported recruiting potential lay teacher candidates via college campus visits. This practice is reported by large and small systems alike in terms of number of pupils, number of lay teachers employed, and geographical area. A large number of additional systems report some other type of contact with local college students, including Newman Club chaplains. Only one-fourth reported the circulation of recruitment brochures. (The next chapter contains a description and analysis of several sample recruitment brochures obtained from the school systems in the present survey.)

The additional procedures reported by twenty-seven (87.1 per cent) of the superintendents are also listed in Table XII, in a descending order of frequency with which they were reported. Inspection of this table reveals that the most widely-used methods at present (other than college campus visits and circulation of brochures) are advertisements in local Catholic or secular newspapers, local recruitment on the initiative of local school pastors and principals, parish pulpit announcements or bulletin announcements, and scholarship programs. With the exception of teacher placement bureaus, the methods reported fall into the groups of recruitment practices classified by Moore and Walters (see above, page 81).

One school system in the present study warns pastors against actively recruiting for another parish's lay teachers. Such a prohibition agrees with Elsbree and Reutter's principle
that "care should be exercised in recruitment to avoid any action that might tend to encourage a prospective employee to default obligations to another employer." Freedom of initiative and enterprise of lay teachers beyond the employment period of their contracts, of course, would need to be preserved.

In the public schools surveyed by the NEA, the most common sources of potential applicants were placement bureaus of colleges and universities (94.4 per cent reported this practice). Voluntary applications of candidates (89.7 per cent) and recruitment tours to college campuses (80.4 per cent) were second and third, respectively, in frequency of use for the total group of urban districts. Recruitment practices tended to decrease in frequency as school district size decreased. Variations were also noted among districts with differing per-pupil expenditure levels.

The effect of available funds on recruitment operations was also evident in the Catholic school systems. Low-cost local procedures and word-of-mouth contacts were more frequent than systematic multi-method programs which would involve special personnel and expense.

The NEA findings from 1,228 public school districts 53

51 Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 11.

52 The quoted percentages of recruitment practices in urban public school districts are from NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 25-26.

53 Ibid.
revealed considerable use of "suggestions from the local teaching staff" (72.9 per cent reported this practice). While this recruitment method was not reported by the Catholic school superintendents surveyed, it could be a fruitful source of applicants, since the lay teachers themselves would be likely to have or meet acquaintances who might be interested in parochial school teaching employment. The same would be true of maintaining continuing contacts with former teachers who resigned because of marriage or maternity (reported by 34.7 per cent of the urban public school districts). Referrals by religious communities, reported by one of the Catholic school systems, is somewhat comparable to public school use of referrals by the local supervisory staff (63.9 per cent).

Cooperation with a teacher-training institution is also found a great deal in public school districts (66.7 per cent). Diocesan offices have a similar procedure in some of their contacts with local Catholic colleges, particularly when they offer scholarships in their recruitment brochures and cadet scholarship programs.

Public schools also make some use of state departments of education (25.4 per cent) and state teachers' associations (21.8 per cent) for names of available applicants; but these are unlikely sources for parochial schools. However, the public school practice of getting names from organizations and placement bureaus, or from commercial teacher agencies (44.0 per cent)
problems and Anticipated Improvements in Recruitment

Replies to the open-end questions on recruitment procedures were in regard to (1) current problems, (2) anticipated changes and improvements in the next decade, and (3) valuable features of present programs. These comments are quoted verbatim in the appendix (see Appendix V).

In the main, comments of superintendents regarding current recruitment problems deal with competition with the salaries and nonsalary benefits of local public school districts in attracting lay teachers. The inability of many parishes to pay higher salaries makes it difficult to attract applicants with the desired qualifications. Plans for improvements included increased centralization and the need to organize efforts (e.g., to establish an office for this one purpose, provide a recruiter who can give most of his time to this task), and introduction or greater use of scholarships. Centralized, systematized efforts are often hindered by lack of personnel.

A variety of features are cited by superintendents as

54 Ibid. (public school percentages)
particularly valuable in their own diocesan education system. These generally take the form of methods or elements found most useful in attracting teachers—such as help from local Catholic colleges, scholarship programs, and leads from public school administrators to contact teachers who are retiring. Assignments close to home, pleasant teaching conditions, discipline and control in Catholic schools as well as fine relations between religious and lay teachers are cited as big inducements, particularly to middle-aged women who are considering teaching employment.

Summary

Fifteen different methods of locating and attracting applicants for teaching positions were among the replies of the thirty-one school systems. Almost half (48.4 per cent) reported recruiting potential elementary lay teachers through visits to college campuses. This practice was reported by all varieties of school systems in terms of size and area. Other types of contacts with local colleges were reported by many systems, including Newman Club chaplains at secular colleges. The use of recruitment brochures was reported by only eight (25.8 per cent) of the systems. Other current methods of recruitment most widely used are advertisements in local Catholic and/or secular newspapers, local recruitment by pastors and principals, parish pulpit or bulletin announcements, and cadet teacher scholarship programs.

In the public school districts, use of recruitment pro-
cences tended to decrease in frequency as district size decreased. Variation also occurred with varying expenditure levels of these districts. The most common source of potential applicants reported was the placement bureaus of colleges and universities.

Every Catholic system reported some sort of recruitment practice in effect. Many excellent and probably fruitful methods included in Table XII (above, page 82) have lesser frequencies and are apparently not widely used. Some systems receive a large number of applicants, while the supply elsewhere is scarce and a program of recruitment imperative. Two of the twenty-seven systems reported an abundance of lay teacher candidates—one because of "Western migration," and the other because of the large number of local colleges as sources of supply. In school systems without an adequate supply of applicants, selection—in the words of one superintendent—is "reduced to simply eliminating obvious misfits."

A large percentage of Catholic college graduates who might otherwise join the faculties of parochial schools are attracted by the salaries of public schools. Consequently, the problem of finding potential teachers increases still further and emphasizes the need for planned, organized, year-round recruitment efforts beyond the local level. This same point has been made by Elsbree as one of his principles of staff personnel administration, when he says: "The search for capable personnel should be a continuing process conducted over a wide geographic area."55

55 Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 9.
Catholic school systems currently rely a great deal in their recruitment efforts in attracting young women who have not yet finished college, college-trained middle-aged married women with children grown, and pensioned public school teachers. While these are good sources for short-term lay teacher staffing, there is need to work more toward recruiting career lay teachers. Admittedly, salaries, fringe benefits, and recruitment costs enter into this. The choice of recruitment methods and contacts is further limited by the essential religious objectives in Catholic schools.

Recruitment procedures are rather neglected in comparison to selection practices, even among larger systems. Many dioceses are currently leaving lay teacher recruitment to the ingenuity and initiative of the local schools more than would be desirable. For principals and pastors, limited time and facilities (and probably limited contacts with those seeking or contemplating a career in teaching) reduces the chances of locating a greater number of candidates. A systematic and effective recruitment program is basically a selling job and requires special expense and staff to bear results, to say nothing of presenting competitively attractive features to prospective teachers. In view of the present difficulty in obtaining sufficient lay teachers, every avenue of possible value in increasing the number of applicants seems worth trying.
Employment Practices

Establishing appropriate principles and policies with respect to employment conditions is a necessary step for successful school administration to assure more effective teaching (and thereby develop more appropriate learning experiences for children). Efficiency and morale of school personnel is affected by various factors—physical, social, economic, emotional, as well as (in the case of teachers) instructional. It becomes vital to provide a setting which will enable the teacher to do his best work. Also, school systems must aim to encourage teachers to remain in the system a long time, because turnover is harmful to the school program. As Moehlman has stated: "Long-range institutional planning and adequate salaries and working conditions will do more to make teaching attractive to more capable people than anything else."

School systems in the present study were asked questions regarding policies and practices in completing the appointment of new lay teachers and in retaining those already under employment. Selected employment practices and policies include: orientation programs, state requirements for loyalty oaths and certification, diocesan licensing, salary schedules, contracts, diocesan lay teacher-religious teacher ratios, the use of policies and procedures books, and nonsalary or "fringe" benefits.

56 Moehlman, School Administration, 207.
Orientation Programs

An effective plan of orientation helps newly-hired teachers to adjust to their new positions more rapidly and more successfully. The success or failure of making new adjustments and establishing new relationships may hinge on the systematized activities before and after the opening of school. An organized induction of new teachers benefits the school as well as the teacher, in enabling both to operate more efficiently to the educational advantage of the pupils enrolled. Whether newly-employed teachers are beginning their first year of teaching or are joining a new school system,

certain induction procedures are in order. Often these involve helping new people understand the terms and conditions of employment, become acquainted with the community, develop an understanding of the school system and the people in it, and adjust to the job. The process, which may begin even before employment, probably will not be completed until the end of the first year of service.57

The content and technique of this process will differ with the needs of the school and of the new teacher assigned there, but the programs will have the same goal--to insure the personal adjustment of the teacher to his individual job so that he may achieve his maximum efficiency as a teacher within the shortest possible time. Writers in the field of personnel administration generally assent to the importance and the value of orientation programs for

57 Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, Introduction to Educational Administration, Boston, 1962, 110.
newly-employed teachers. Sometimes, however, boards of education have been reluctant to establish and finance these programs. Parochial schools particularly need to consider the problem of orientation in view of the large numbers of new teachers coming into the systems each fall because of rapid school expansion and high rate of turnover. Moreover, new teachers in parochial schools require special assistance because of the specific religious objectives of Catholic education. "These objectives are so tremendous, and so difficult to attain," says Sister Jerome Corcoran, "that nothing can be left to chance." In response to the question on whether lay teachers participate in formal orientation programs, Table XIII (page 93) indicates that sixteen, or more than half (51.6 per cent) of the Catholic systems surveyed, reported this practice, with thirteen of them reporting such programs are organized centrally, and three reporting that they are arranged in local schools. Nearly half (48.4 per cent) of the systems made no report of orientation programs. Among the systems reporting a centralized orientation program for lay teachers, the four largest in pupil population are

58 e.g., "A comprehensive and flexible orientation program should be established to provide for the professional needs of new personnel with varying amounts of experience and degrees of responsibility."--Elsbree and Reutter, *Personnel Administration*, 21.

59 Corcoran, *Catholic School Principal*, 255.
included, and eleven of the fifteen highest in number of lay teachers employed. Orientation practices tended to decrease in frequency as diocesan geographical size increased. The seven largest area dioceses are not represented among those reporting a centrally arranged program, suggesting again that far-flung dioceses have problems of centralizing mass techniques because of practical problems of distance.

**TABLE XIII**

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS WITH ORIENTATION PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation program</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central office</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local school</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Orientation practices surveyed by the NEA questionnaire concerned the extent of preliminary information or "orientation to assignment" provided for new teachers--visits to school building and classroom, contacts with principal and supervisor, information on grade assignment and subjects. These practices were considered limited but significant. Their frequency was higher in smaller
than in larger school districts, but tended to be in effect in a larger proportion of high-expenditure districts. More than two-thirds (70.9 per cent) of the districts reported practices in orientation occurring at least some of the time.60

From information received on orientation programs from six of the Catholic school systems having centrally conducted programs, it can be said that they comprise two general types: Catholic educational philosophy and/or preparation for the teaching of religion; and methods of teaching. These programs are frequently held in local colleges utilizing the regular college staff or other specialists. They are held in summer before the opening of the school year as well as during the regular school year, often over a period of weeks or months. In a few instances, they are considered as preliminary and necessary for eligibility to obtain teaching positions. One school system exempts only those with prior teaching experience as having the equivalent of the required methods orientation course. Others differ on how mandatory the sessions are.

These mass and minimal diocesan orientation programs, being centralized and removed from the individual school scene where the new teacher will be working, seem designed more to supplement the new lay teacher's training and background in teaching methods and Catholic educational philosophy than to minimize in-

60 NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 35-36.
formation needs on day-to-day aspects of his new assignment in a given school. Standing alone, such orientation programs would perhaps be less satisfying and less realistic than those associated more closely with the teacher's actual school and grade assignment. Local school orientation procedures become more personal and less encumbered by the large group lecture or discussion meetings characteristic of system-wide orientation meetings such as are typical in the reporting Catholic school systems. There is evidence that some mass induction techniques can be of value, however, according to Amar's study of public school induction methods. Despite the special requirements of an individual's orientation to teaching, many problems are common to most beginning teachers. Teachers themselves generally prefer help with practical problems to discussions of theory and philosophy.

In comparing reported orientation programs in the present survey to Amar's conclusions, there is a parallel in relation to three of the four main agencies which he cites as being most effectively involved in administering an induction program in a central system. He cites (1) the central office administrative

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62 Ibid.

63 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 220.

64 Induction Programs, 138-150.
and supervisory staff, (2) the local teacher-training institution, (3) the district office, and (4) the local school-community. Currently in Catholic diocesan system organization, there is no intermediary district office between the local school and the central office, though in larger systems such district offices might prove advantageous. The findings of the present survey concur with Amar's recommendation that the central office be principally responsible for instituting policies and procedures and encouraging other agencies to give their support. Also, there is agreement to his point that the central office be responsible for most of the mass orientation techniques used. There is evidence, furthermore, that cooperative ties with teacher-training institutions, local Catholic colleges in the case of diocesan systems, are recognized as important in developing orientation programs (as well as vital in regard to recruitment and selection).

Since far-flung dioceses have difficulty arranging mass orientation programs, they could profitably develop and issue guidelines to assist local parish schools to consider basic and specific orientation practices of value. What is more valuable to the teacher is what goes on in the individual school.

While many of the above considerations in the technique of induction in public schools are goals appropriate to parochial schools, there is little resemblance between the typical organization for the improvement of teaching in large public school districts and in the typical diocesan school system. "Neither a com-
parable number of supervisors, nor equal clarity of organizational responsibility, nor the same degree of integration of supervisors within the administrative framework is generally found." In particular, "well defined" levels of authority and areas of responsibility recommended by Amar are not to be found in current patterns of Catholic school administration. What often exists today in dioceses is an intermediate pattern between supervisory responsibility of a religious community and diocesan organization of supervisors (primarily advisory) controlled by the diocesan superintendent. This difference appears to be due to the still relatively under-developed central office supervisory relationships to the local schools as well as the current stress by dioceses to supplement the training qualifications and background of new teachers. Were diocesan systems not hiring such a large number of teachers at sub-bachelor's level of training, there would be less need to design programs in this manner. Also, it is important to point out that religious objectives fundamental in Catholic education demand an additional dimension be necessarily involved in orienting new teachers. Such considerations in the current status of diocesan lay teacher orientation programs is consonant with

65 McCoy, American School Administration, 167.
66 Induction Programs, 146.
Shockley's warning that methodology of teacher induction must be part of the total philosophy and machinery of operation which make the school system function.

Orientation and supervisory activities in the individual schools are not always organized on a diocesan basis, and are often hampered by the urgency of other problems as well as weaknesses in the administration of some elementary schools. Some principals have little or no time free from teaching, and some have little or no specific preparation in administration or supervision. Whether and how to conduct induction procedures are frequently left to the choice of the sister principal or the religious community.

By way of a specific example of guidelines for local public or parochial schools to follow with whatever adaptations might be useful, the writer would cite Wallace's procedures based on expressed needs of teachers themselves:

1. Procedures at the time of interview
   a. Specific information regarding teaching and building assign-
ments

b. Conference between the teacher and principal
c. Assignment of teacher only in area for which teacher is especially prepared
d. Help secure living conditions

2. Procedures after election and before opening of school

a. Orient teacher to school plant
b. Orientation conference for all new teachers
c. Additional help, if needed, in securing adequate housing
d. Supply new teachers with handbooks, guides, and bulletins explaining school policies

3. Procedures on the opening day of school

a. General faculty meeting to discuss and explain over-all school policies
b. Show new teachers where pupil personnel records are stored
c. Provide instruction in mechanics of pupil records, bookkeeping, etc.
d. Acquaint new teacher with special services of the school

4. Procedures to be employed early in the school year

a. Further information about pupil personnel records
b. Personal conferences between teacher and supervisory agents
c. Assistance program for acquainting new teacher with school's system for evaluating achievements
d. Additional visits to help the new teacher with problems as they occur
e. Individual instruction in the mechanics of school bookkeeping and record keeping
f. Information about community problems
g. Receptions by PTA or similar groups
h. Periodic bulletins explaining supervisory details
i. Visits by supervisory agents to help the teacher, not to evaluate the teacher

One additional and essential aspect of orientation practice is an evaluation program to determine whether the induction procedures have been effective in terms of the reactions of the new teachers. Some sort of evaluative instrument submitted to teachers for appraising the techniques used would provide data for improvement of succeeding programs. 70

Loyalty Oaths

One item in the questionnaire asked if lay teachers are required to sign a loyalty oath of allegiance to the United States. Only five (16.1 per cent) of the school systems reported requiring the signing of a loyalty oath from their lay teachers.

Loyalty requirements for public school teachers differ from state to state. Twenty-six states require a loyalty oath for a teaching certificate. 71 Thirty-three states, in all, require an

70 Weber, Personnel Problems, 70.
oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and in most states the state constitution as well. Some may include requirements such as a pledge to defend the Constitution, to teach specific theories of government, or to refrain from membership in subversive groups. Loyalty provisions have been enacted in addition to the oath laws in some states and in states that do not have the oath requirement. One example of such a provision is the requirement for teachers to testify when called before investigating committees. The latter concerns the question of the right of teachers to refuse to testify on the basis of the Fifth Amendment.\footnote{72}{NEA, Teacher and the Law, 20-26.}

In the NEA survey of urban public school districts, 68.9 per cent of the districts reported a loyalty oath requirement—most frequently in the West and Northeast—61.6 per cent by authority of state law.\footnote{73}{NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 29-30.}

The matter of loyalty oaths for school and other public employees has been a controversial subject for some years now on the national and state scene. State required oaths for public employment have stood up in the courts on the basis of the right and obligation of a state to legislate in the field of public safety and security. The courts weigh the rights of society against the rights of the individual. There is general judicial agreement
that the Constitution does not guarantee public employment and
that public employment is a privilege, not a right. If one ac-
cepts public employment, he must be willing to accept requirements
set down for the public good. On this basis, it has been judged
that a state may adopt reasonable methods for screening out dis-
loyal teachers without coming into conflict with the civil liber-
ties of the individual. Where state laws are silent on the re-
quirement of loyalty oaths, it has been found valid for a local
school board to require such an oath under the customary statutory
grant of power to local school boards to make "necessary rules and
regulations." 74

A total of thirteen states may require loyalty oaths of
private school teachers as well as public school teachers. 75 Ten
of these are states that certify all or some private school teach-
ers and require a loyalty oath for certification; one state spe-
cifies the oath requirement for private schools, though it does
not certify them, and includes the oath in their certification re-
quirements for public school teachers; the last two states require
an oath of allegiance from every teacher engaged in teaching.
Four of the five Catholic school systems reporting a loyalty oath

74 August W. Steinhilber, "Loyalty Oaths Before the

75 Foshay, Handbook of Education, 61; NEA, Summary of
Certification Requirements, 2; Beach and Will, The State and Non-
Public Schools, 29.
requirement of lay teachers are located in these two states. The last is in a state where it is necessary for certification, and where certification of all teachers is mandatory.

Loyalty requirements, in the writer's view, do not insure loyalty to our country. Nor do they guarantee that principles of American democracy will be either zealously espoused or taught by a particular teacher in a given school. However, they do provide some possible basis for legal action in removing a teacher who can be proven to have been disloyal or seriously to have undermined the loyalty of his or her pupils. Past cases indicate that the courts will uphold such dismissals. Whether these methods guarantee loyalty is not a legal question. The courts have declared that the state has the right to protect itself against subversive influence by means of oath and loyalty laws.

State Certification Requirements

Since public education is a state function, the state may prescribe qualifications for public school teachers with a view to protecting children from inferior teachers. And because education bears such a vital relation to public welfare, the state also has the power to issue legitimate minimum demands on private schools in the education of children who live within its borders. As Edwards puts it:

It has not been in the American tradition for the state to exercise any rigid control of private schools. There can be little doubt, however, that the state has the power to prescribe standards which the private schools must meet and to
provide agencies of inspection to see that the standards are met. 76

Each state differs in what it considers legitimate minimum demands to be made from private schools. In the matter of state teaching certificates, there is a trend toward bringing about state certification of all teachers by making it a requirement for school accreditation. 77 The laws of only five states provide for the certification of private school teachers; fifteen other state education departments certify at least some private school teachers. 78

In the present survey, two questions dealing with minimum state certification requirements sought information on (a) whether lay teacher candidates must meet minimum state certification requirements, (b) the number of teachers so certified, (c) the percentage of teachers so certified, (d) the classifications and requirements of temporary or emergency teacher employment, and (e) the percentage of teachers so classified.

As can be seen from Table XIV (page 105), about a fourth (25.8 per cent) of the systems meet exact state requirements, while nearly one-half of the systems require lay teachers to meet only approximate state minimum requirements. Of those meeting

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77 McCoy, *American School Administration*, 100-106.

exact state standards, most are located in states where private as well as public school teachers must be certified by law. Two of the eight meet these standards voluntarily.

**TABLE XIV**

**NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS USING MINIMUM STATE CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minimum state certification requirements</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exact</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>48.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>8a</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a All of these systems are located in states not requiring private schools to meet a minimum teacher certification standard.

Of the fifteen school systems approximating state teacher certification standards, five are located in states where no pertinent state law exists but where some private schools are covered by state education department regulation, and ten are in states where no state regulation or law for private schools is in

79 Ibid.
All of the systems not reporting minimum state requirements are in states which do not require private school teacher certification, either by law or state education department regulation.\(^{81}\)

All of the eighteen states in which the thirty-one diocesan school systems of the present study are located require a bachelor's degree for either a provisional or permanent elementary public school teacher's certificate. Temporary state certificates are typically available to applicants with about two years of college credits from, or accepted by, a teacher training institution. Permanent or provisional state teacher's certificates are available to applicants with a bachelor's degree from, or accepted by, a teacher training institution. A summary of the salient state certification requirements of these states is to be found in the appendix (see Appendix VI).

Of thirteen systems submitting percentages of lay teachers and religious teachers meeting exact or approximate state certification requirements, wide differences in interpretation of the term approximate by the responding superintendents makes comparisons between systems difficult. It is of particular interest to note that the proportion of religious teachers so qualified

\(^{80}\) Ibid.  
\(^{81}\) Ibid.
equaled or exceeded that of lay teachers for each system but one--and in that one, the difference was very small. This agrees with the finding of a current and intensive national study of Catholic education involving 218 elementary schools which reports that the sisters teaching in the elementary schools are better trained than the lay teachers in the same schools. While 56 percent of the sisters have bachelor's degrees or better, only 33 percent of the lay teachers have this same training level.82

Two reporting school systems fail to meet their state's legal minimum requirements which extend to private schools--in the case of lay teachers employed by twelve per cent and sixty-four per cent respectively, and in the case of religious teachers by three per cent and thirteen per cent respectively. (Others with this legal requirement reported one hundred per cent of their teaching staff so qualified.) However, these two systems are in the same state and actually may be considered as complying fully, in that their "deficiency" consists of teachers holding temporary or emergency state certificates. In their particular state, temporary certificates are issued to those who have completed fifty-six semester hours of at least general college education, provided that a teacher qualified for provisional certification cannot be secured by the employing superintendent.

The responding superintendents who indicated that their

teachers are meeting approximate state teacher certification standards gave various interpretations to the term "approximate." Some respondents compared diocesan basic requirements to those listed by their state as minimum essentials for temporary or emergency certificates, in contrast to state requirements for permanent certification. One administrator reported that each applicant's qualifications are measured against the need. Others described approximate as follows: "sixty college credits"; "sixty college credits plus six hours in education"; "must get [state certificate] in five years of employment"; "principals are expected to have teachers as close to a degree as possible"; and "minimum two years teacher training." Still others interpreted approximate more conservatively, such as the following: "bachelor's degree with thirty semester hours of professional work, including student teaching"; "B.A./B.S. with major in elementary education"; "bachelor's degree awarded by an approved college in teaching education curriculum"; and "we accept B.A. or equivalent."

The word approximate could not, except in a few of the fifteen school systems, be considered synonymous with the word equivalent. This mitigates the actual degree of voluntary conformity to state teacher certification laws.

Several diocesan superintendents report an endeavor to bring their teachers into conformity with state requirements on a voluntary basis, or at least establishing the general requirement of a bachelor's degree for all their teachers. There seems little
likelihood, however, of significantly upgrading qualification standards for parochial school teachers under the present conditions of inadequate salaries and teacher benefits and the overall teacher shortage.

A great majority of urban public school districts (87.6 per cent) accept the state minimum requirement for certification as the requirements for the school district; the rest set a higher standard. But of nearly a million teachers employed in these districts, an estimated 5.1 per cent are not fully certified. This figure rises to 8.9 per cent in the largest districts, and to 13.0 per cent in the same group when "temporary" as well as "probationary" teachers are counted. 83

There exists confused and inconsistent standards of state control of private schools, particularly in the area of teacher certification. Findings of the present study are in agreement with McCoy 84 who describes notable differences among states in demands made from private and religious schools, with practices varying from a virtually laissez-faire attitude to detailed prescriptions. Enforcement of prescriptive regulations also is variable.

While the laissez-faire or non-prescriptive relationship between an individual state and its private schools works to af-

83 NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 92; 98.
84 American School Administration, 105-106.
ford the private schools increased flexibility in hiring teaching staff members, it can also work to the educational disadvantage of the children enrolled, who are also citizens of the state, to the extent that such a liberal relationship permits private schools to employ inadequately trained and qualified teachers. To the present, Catholic schools have been most frequently affected by state regulations concerning accreditation, enforcement of compulsory education and minimum length of the school year, inclusion of American history and government in the curriculum, compliance with fire drill regulations, state school building codes, and immunization and vaccination regulations.85

In the writer's opinion, Catholic school teacher certification regulation by the state through the avenue of accreditation standards will provide long-term benefits to the quality of Catholic schools as well as the educational welfare of their pupils, though this will be at the expense of short-term hardships involved in finding and attracting more highly qualified teachers. Catholic school administrators certainly should strive to conform to all essential state standards and regulations applicable to their schools, while at the same time maintaining vigilance in keeping these state demands to a minimum so as to continue the rights of religious schools to exist. Without this latter effort, detailed prescriptive state regulations in matters of school ad-

85 Ibid., 106.
ministration and supervision could become oppressive, if not deadly.

Conant\textsuperscript{86} has declared that state certification policies in terms of actual course and credit specifications do not insure the public protection from individual incompetence. He advocates an end to the existing pattern of excessive dependence on state requirements. The content and quality of teacher preparation, he insists, are determined on the individual campus, no matter what the state may do. As a more satisfactory basis for state certification, he focuses on two critical points by which to test the quality of teacher preparation—adequate education, and opportunities for actual teaching under close guidance and supervision. Conant recommends that for certification purposes the state should require only (a) a bachelor's degree from a legitimate college or university; (b) high quality practice teaching; and (c) "... a specially endorsed teaching certificate from a college or university which, in issuing the official document, attests that the institution as a whole considers the person adequately prepared to teach in a designated field and grade level."\textsuperscript{87}

\textbf{Central Office Licensing}

In response to the question on whether lay teachers

\textsuperscript{86} \textit{Education of American Teachers}, 56-60.

\textsuperscript{87} \textit{Ibid.}, 210.
hired by schools in their dioceses must be licensed or given permits of approval from the central office to be eligible to teach, nearly half (45.2 per cent) responded affirmatively. The larger diocesan systems in number of pupils and in numbers of employed lay teachers were more likely to utilize a plan of lay teacher licensing than the smaller systems. Likewise, the more geographically compact school systems show this same trend. This, probably, is one of the clearest single indications of centralized administrative control by way of employment practices, and it appears important that nearly half of the systems studied reported this practice.

Dioceses vary in the extent of school office participation in hiring lay teachers. In some of the systems, requirement of a diocesan permit appears to be a means of clearing and approving the credentials of lay teachers before individual schools complete their hiring procedures. Other systems may specify that all applicants be directed to the central office before employment is considered or any interviewing is attempted. Elsewhere, a diocesan school certificate may be an official permit to teach in any parish school in the diocese. Such a certificate is issued, for example, to a properly qualified practicing Catholic, and may include different types of certificates such as are issued by states—permanent, provisional, and temporary. Diocesan certification in another system may require evidence of formal training in such areas as Christian Doctrine and Catholic philosophy of ed-
ucation (in addition to professional requirements in effect). One system offers special certificates for the teaching of religion, which may be issued to regularly employed teachers who have had specific courses in Catholic dogma, morals, liturgy, and church history.

Required diocesan central office approval of teachers employed in its schools, it would seem to the writer, is really an integral feature of truly centralized Catholic school systems. Reasons, previously cited as applicable in inhibiting centralized and standardized selection practices (particularly the traditional parish-unit pattern of administration), however, remain as significant obstacles.

**Salary Schedules**

A salary schedule outlines minimum and maximum salaries for school personnel, along with the amount of annual increases to be given. Two factors enter into establishing a pay scale for teachers: academic training and teaching experience. Separate schedules are usually provided, based upon designated levels of academic preparation and years of experience. Commonly used in public schools, such a plan has the advantage of providing equal pay for equal training and experience, and eliminates the task of bargaining with individual teachers over salaries. Elsbree and Reutter add that a salary policy "should be sufficiently clear so that candidates considering employment in the school system have
no difficulty in determining their precise placement from a perusal of the schedule." 88 A good salary schedule, according to an NEA study, will:

1. Provide better instruction for children
2. Improve the professional, social and economic status of teachers
3. Attract the most capable people into the teaching profession
4. Improve staff morale
5. Enable better financial planning by school boards
6. Improve the relationship of teachers, administrators, school board members, and community 89

One question in the present survey asked whether lay teachers are paid in accordance with a definite salary schedule and, if so, whether this schedule is required or merely suggested for use in the local schools. Table XV (page 115) recounts the responses of the thirty-one school systems. Over half (51.6 per cent) require a definite salary schedule to be followed by elementary schools within their jurisdiction. Six systems (19.4 per cent) report "suggested" salary schedules, bringing a total of twenty-two (71.0 per cent) systems that have adopted this practice as part of their lay teacher employment programs. Well over a fourth (29.0 per cent) of the systems did not report the existence of a salary schedule. Use of this practice appeared in all types of systems, but the larger systems in terms of number of pupils

88 Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 29.
89 National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, The Teachers' Salary Committee and Its Work, Washington, D.C., 1957, 17.
and lay teachers employed show a greater tendency to have adopted some type of salary schedule. This is also true of the more compact systems in terms of geographical area.

TABLE XV
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS USING A SALARY SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary schedule</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Required by central office</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggested by central office</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under the present parish-unit system, whereby lay teacher salaries are paid by the individual pastor, considerable local differences exist in the financial resources available for this purpose. Variations occur in the annual increments provided as well as in the salaries, sometimes creating unfavorable competition among the schools or parishes.

Parochial school administration compares unfavorably in use of formally developed teacher salary schedules to that of public schools. Here is one of the crucial areas in diocesan systems
needing improvement. The present inclination of a number of Catholic school systems to set up minimum suggested or required salary standards is a good beginning, perhaps, but is less than adequate in fulfilling the considered aims of salary schedule policy. Efforts needed in developing well-designed salary schedules should be related to attracting and retaining competent teachers. The basic problem here, of course, is simply that of financial ability of local Catholic schools to pay salaries competitive with tax-supported public systems.

An analysis and discussion of sample salary schedules received from the school systems cooperating in the present study appears in the next chapter.

Contracts

"In teaching, the contract is an agreement between a legally qualified teacher and a board of education for services to be rendered."\textsuperscript{90} Defining the terms of employment--the rights and responsibilities of school officials as well as of teachers--is essential for effective personnel management and for the general welfare of the school.

The retention of teachers may be governed by a number of plans. Some school systems employ or elect all teachers for no more than a year at a time. Others may adopt a different plan or

\textsuperscript{90} Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, \textit{Public School Administration}, 228.
utilize a combination of methods. The "legal method by which teachers are given security in position during efficient service" is called tenure. Tenure for public school teachers may be provided through state legislation. Such laws have been regarded by the courts as in the nature of contracts with individuals, as opposed to laws for the welfare of the schools. Amendments take place only after teachers have had an opportunity to express their opinion in legislative hearings.

The National Education Association recognizes two types of tenure legislation: continuing contracts (the spring-notification type), and permanent tenure after a probationary period. A continuing contract remains in force unless a teacher is notified by a specific date if his services are not desired for the following year. Teachers under permanent tenure cannot be dismissed without notice and statement of the reasons, along with the right to a hearing before the local educational authority. If dismissed they may appeal to a higher authority, such as the courts or the state school officials.

91 Moehlman, School Administration, 194.

92 Paul R. Mort and Donald H. Ross, Principles of School Administration, New York, 1957, 99-100; Lee O. Garber, "Teachers' Contracts Depend on State Statutes," School Law, LXII, October, 1958, 84-86.

93 NEA, Teacher and the Law, 30.

94 Ibid.
Tenure legislation and coverage for public school teachers varies from state to state. Only twenty states have tenure or tenure-type continuing contract laws for all public school teachers. All but three of the rest have some legislation concerning teachers' contracts and their duration. Some of these have tenure laws which are not state-wide and do not apply to all school districts. 95

In the present survey, questions were asked on the use of contracts—whether they are centrally regulated or at the option of the local school, whether the central office supplies acceptable or recommended contract forms to local schools, whether thirty-day cancellation options are suggested with new teachers, and whether there is a deadline for notifying teachers who are not to be retained the next year.

More than four-fifths (80.6 per cent) of the Catholic systems surveyed reported the use of written contracts. As Table XVI (page 119) shows, central education offices regulate their use in twenty-nine per cent of all the systems, while it is left to the option of local schools in half (51.6 per cent) of the sample. Six (19.4 per cent) do not report the use of written contracts. The variations by size of pupil enrollment or by number of lay teachers were not striking and did not show consistent trends, with one exception—the five systems employing the largest

95 Ibid.
number of lay teachers all report the practice at the option of the local school.

### TABLE XVI

**NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS USING WRITTEN CONTRACTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use written contracts</th>
<th>Number of school systems</th>
<th>Percentage of school systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centrally regulated</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option of local school</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Almost two-thirds (64.5 per cent) of the Catholic systems indicate that they are supplying recommended contract forms for their local schools' use in hiring lay teachers. This practice increased with an increase in the number of lay teachers, but was found among all but the largest size dioceses ranked according to geographical area.

Relatively few superintendents (16.1 per cent) in this questionnaire reply recommend a thirty-day cancellation option in contracts with new teachers, but nearly half (48.4 per cent) suggest dates by which a lay teacher should be notified if employment will not continue the following year. All of these occur in
spring months, usually April or May. This practice was most common among systems employing a large number of lay teachers and those employing the smallest number. However, an analysis of the features of twenty actually used or recommended sample contracts submitted by twenty of the systems revealed that cancellation clauses were printed into the contract forms in nine of the twenty forms. These forms were recommended for general use with lay teachers. In one, a thirty-day cancellation clause for both teacher and school to invoke in necessity was used; two had a cancellation clause for teachers to use with good reason; and six gave the school the option to dismiss with cause a teacher with a specified thirty or sixty-day notification. Such cancellation features are seen by the writer as tending to nullify much of the limited employment security value inherent in annual contracts. On the other hand, six of the twenty sample contracts were worded to indicate they could be used on a continuing basis with provisions to the effect that unless the teacher were notified, the features of the present contract would extend beyond the present year. (A more extended analysis of the twenty sample contract forms submitted will be taken up in Chapter IV.)

Most public school teachers in the NEA survey were reported on tenure, or as having a protective continuing contract, after a probationary period. This practice was reported by 65.5 per cent of the urban school districts, decreasing in frequency as school district size and expenditure level decreased. Regional
differences also were noticeable; the practice was most common in the Northeast and least common in the Southeast. Annual election or appointment (reported by 18.2 per cent of the districts) was increasingly prevalent as school district size and expenditure level decreased. The majority of the districts reporting this practice customarily have all their teachers sign contracts each year. Most of the remainder under annual appointment were newly-employed or probationary teachers. Use of the continuing contract, spring-notification type, was reported by 15.5 per cent of the districts. These 1961 figures show a ten per cent increase over 1951 findings in the proportion of urban public school districts that have tenure, and a twelve per cent decrease in those requiring spring-notification type contracts.

More than half of the districts indicate rarely dismissing or denying re-employment to a teacher who has been regularly employed in the schools for three years or more. The districts reporting dismissals were most frequently large districts, with the practice decreasing as school district size decreased.

The National Education Association favors permanent tenure for teachers, as do Elsbree and Reutter. The latter add that

98 NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 32.
a staff member should be given an opportunity to correct unsatisfactory aspects of teacher performance before instituting dismissal proceedings. 99 While there is a trend toward increased use of tenure, the spring-notification type of contract is favored by a number of administrators because of the difficulties connected with permanent tenure. 100 Such a contract enables boards of education to dismiss unsatisfactory teachers more easily, but it does not protect the teacher from unjust dismissal through arbitrary acts of the community or local authority.

Parochial school administrators also favor either an annual or spring-notification type of continuing contract in adopting contractual arrangements with lay teachers. While the annual or continuing contract does not afford the lay teacher the same protection as permanent tenure, it is apparently more compatible with current personnel administrative practices of Catholic schools in this time of rapid expansion and turnover in lay staffing. 101 McCoy, 102 however, predicts the voluntary extension of tenure rights to lay teachers as a necessary development if good teachers are to be secured on the competitive market. The like-

99 Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 51-52
100 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 236.
101 Corcoran, Catholic School Principal, 133-140.
102 American School Administration, 276-277.
lihood of severe problems (difficulties of dismissing a teacher, attempting to prove at a public hearing charges such as gross inefficiency or gross immorality, scandal and bad publicity) will be reduced, according to McCoy, if the decision to extend tenure privileges to a teacher has been made carefully and after systematic yearly appraisal of new teachers in their first three (certainly by the end of five) years of service.

On the other hand, priests and religious enjoy likely advantages as far as susceptibility to law suits is concerned, by reason of their religious status—which makes it less probable that a Catholic teacher would bring suit. Still further, certain provisions of canon law make it a serious religious offense to bring any priest into court as a defendant without permission from the bishop of the diocese (permission from Rome if the defendant is a bishop). Canon 120 states: "All lawsuits against clerics, both civil and criminal, must be brought into the ecclesiastical court, unless other provisions have been legitimately made for some countries."103 This canon also instructs the bishop not to refuse permission without serious reason, especially when a lay person is involved and every friendly endeavor has been made to effect a settlement between the parties. Even where permission is not granted or was not sought, one is required to inform the

Greater use of written lay teacher contracts is being promoted by writers in the field of Catholic education. Sister Mary Jerome recommends them as "an essential part of good working conditions" and cites "advantages both to the school and to the lay teacher," including greater staff stability and high morale.\textsuperscript{104} Brother Leo V. Ryan reminds administrators or pastors that a written contract has value not only in terms of improved employee morale, but in preventing misunderstandings or disagreements about the conditions or terms of employment.\textsuperscript{105} In answer to the objections of some who reject the idea of written contracts, he has stated:

The employment of suitable personnel for the job at hand is a basic business activity. The written contract is an evidence of the most professional approach to this business activity.\textsuperscript{106}

**Lay Teacher-Religious Teacher Ratios**

One question asked if any current regulation exists regarding ratios of lay teachers to religious teachers in the elementary schools and, if so, what the regulation is and why it seems necessary.

\textsuperscript{104} Corcoran, Catholic School Principal, 136-138.


\textsuperscript{106} Ibid., 64.
Well over one-fourth (29.0 per cent) of the systems reported maintaining prescribed desirable ratios of religious teachers to lay teachers, most commonly two or three religious teachers to one lay teacher. Some indicated that certain religious communities require the pastor to provide a certain ratio of lay teachers, e.g., one in eight. The most frequent reason for the regulation reported was economy—to get an equitable distribution of religious and lay teachers in order to distribute the cost burden of supporting increased lay staff. The ratio may be subject to re-adjustment, particularly to re-distribute teaching sisters from heavy commitments to older schools in order that newly-opened schools be proportionately staffed with religious.

As the current pronounced trend of increasing use of lay teachers in Catholic elementary schools continues, the writer believes, it will become necessarily more and more difficult to maintain religious-lay teacher ratios as they are now constituted. Indeed, the day—perhaps not too distant—is anticipated where lay teachers may predominate or comprise total Catholic elementary school faculties. Economic difficulties of meeting lay teacher salaries will tend to retard this development.

Policies and Procedures Books

Developing a handbook of policies (statements of goals or aims) and general regulations (governing conduct and procedures) aids administrators who must manage a large number of people, such
as in the operation of a school system. The importance of this tool becomes evident from the words of Grieder:

> Every school district, large or small, should operate under a code of written policies and rules. This is acknowledged as sound by all students of administration, recommended by every type of agency having relations with school boards, and indeed required by some accrediting bodies.¹⁰⁷

Among the advantages of having policies and regulations in written form are: (1) for acquainting new staff members with the organization, policies, and procedures in effect; (2) guidance for present services and future development; (3) continuity in administration; (4) improvement of general efficiency through understanding of the governing policies and procedures; and (5) improved community relations through distribution of these written codes to the public.¹⁰⁸ Staff participation in formulating personnel policies is commonly recommended by experts in school administration in order to promote the acceptance and success of the adopted policies.

Asked whether they maintain a book of current school system policies and procedures, three-fourths (74.2 per cent) of the thirty-one school systems responded affirmatively. These replies are rather evenly distributed throughout the ranked groupings of school systems. The year of most recent revision of the policy books collected ranged from 1953 to 1964, with fourteen re-

¹⁰⁷ Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 119-120.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid., 120-121.
vised during the past four years. These recent revisions were more prevalent in smaller school systems in pupil enrollment and number of employed lay teachers.

In general, these books vary but little in content. They commonly include a forward written by the ordinary of the diocese, giving his approbation to the policies and regulations. Very often the books begin with statements of the educational and spiritual aims of the Catholic school system. Usually, some space in early sections is devoted to explaining the organizational structure of the schools. This would include statements to the effect that the archbishop is head of the school system, with the superintendent or director of schools acting with a school board as his policy executor. Local pastors are typically described as heads of local school units, with their sister principals as special educational leaders and executors. Rights and obligations of teachers, parents, and pupils are commonly stressed in relation to school work and activities.

Specific administrative policies of the school system tend to comprise the main content of the handbooks. Frequently found subjects are: attendance, discipline, health and safety, faculty meetings, curriculum, textbooks, promotion and retention, personnel, classroom management, state education laws, co-curricular activities, spiritual activities, school records and reports, home and school cooperation, and instructional methods.

The appendices found in ten of the books contained
teacher certification regulations, pupil admission policies, textbook rental policies, marking or grading guidelines, subject teaching time allotment schedules, fire regulations, health laws, sample lesson plans, lay teacher standards, and various administrative report form samples in use by the school system.

The development of statements of policy for diocesan school administration varies because of differences in school organization from diocese to diocese, differences in the role of the superintendent, and difficulties over traditional patterns of authority. The office of the diocesan superintendent is of rather recent origin (smaller and far-flung dioceses may not have a superintendent at all). Consequently, its activities, functions, importance, and authority are more limited and less defined in some dioceses than in others.

Rules and regulations that specifically outline personnel policies relating to teachers in public school districts had been adopted by 80.9 per cent of the NEA sample. Several of these were reported under revision or awaiting completion. Districts

109 The line of authority in the parochial school system is sometimes confusing and difficult to grasp. The educational authority of a diocesan school system "flows down from the Bishop through the superintendent, who interprets the Bishop's directives to the Mother Superiors having schools in the diocese, and to pastors having schools. From these three sources--the superintendent, the religious superior, and the pastor--the Sister Principal receives directives for administering the school."--Corcoran, Catholic School Principal, 28. Italics not in the original.
small in population and low in expenditure level were least likely to have adopted rules and regulations. 110

The content and format of sixteen sample policy books made available to the writer will be further discussed in the following chapter, together with supplementary lay teacher written policies submitted by twelve school systems.

Nonsalary Benefits

Six questions sought information on lay teacher welfare benefits--including sick pay, retirement plan, hospitalization, and social security.

Table XVII (Page 130) summarizes the responses to questionnaire items nine through twelve in Part II. Because sick pay, hospitalization insurance, retirement or pension benefits, and social security plans are commonly considered in the area of so-called fringe benefits, these responses were grouped into a single chart to facilitate comparisons.

The U.S. Chamber of Commerce defines nonsalary or fringe benefits as

payments to or for an employee as wages for time not actually on the job and any related benefits given either as a service or product or cash payment which improves the employee's security and well-being. 111

The voluntary establishment of nonsalary benefits by a
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>School systems with benefit</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sick leave</td>
<td>Retirement plan</td>
<td>Hospitalization</td>
<td>Social security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrally regulated</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option of local school</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>54.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not reported</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
board of education is basically an expression of a sympathetic understanding of the fact that school employees are human and subject to the problems of other human beings. "A teacher cannot be happy and contented and, therefore, cannot do his best work under conditions which cause worry and anxiety." Lack of security is a predominant factor in creating worry and anxiety. To give maximum security and satisfaction, attention must be given to employment conditions which are of great concern to teachers. Among these are the policies and practices relating to health and retirement. These terms of employment offer more in the way of morale builders and demonstrations of humaneness than dollar value, and are vital to maximum efficiency and to attract and keep more competent people.

Many school systems--public as well as Catholic--have been slow to follow the lead of private industry, with which they are in constant competition on the labor market, in adding such benefits. Moreover, practices in these areas are not as standardized or available in Catholic schools as in public school employment, with additional variations in procedure and types of plans occurring among individual parishes.

Sick Leave. A reasonable sick leave policy, properly safeguarded against abuse, is one of the factors which will give a

112 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 234.
teacher a feeling of security by knowing that a few days of necessary absence will not be penalized by salary deductions. The pupil's interest also is safeguarded if teachers are encouraged to remain out of school when they are ill. With no sick leave policy in operation, illness may force a teacher to attend school when he is not able to function satisfactorily and, more importantly, may constitute a health hazard to the pupils if he suffers from a contagious disease.

In developing sick leave policies, Grieder\textsuperscript{113} indicates that the following should be specified: (1) the number of days per year for which salary will be paid to teachers because of illness; (2) provisions for accumulating unused time; and (3) procedure required of teachers for medical certification of extended illness. In addition, conditions for leaves of absence should be stated and provisions made for capable substitutes in the absence of regular teachers. "Sick leave," Grieder adds, "is seldom abused by teachers and is relatively inexpensive to the community, even when a long period of accumulation is permitted."\textsuperscript{114}

In many states, legislation sets the minimum amount of paid sick leave to which teachers are entitled. State provisions vary considerably, however, as to the amount of sick leave pre-

\textsuperscript{113} Ibid., 250-253.

\textsuperscript{114} Ibid., 251.
scribed. 115

Measures to keep at a minimum the absences due to illhealth would include a health examination of teachers to determinephysical fitness at the time of employment and at periodic inter­vals during employment, as well as healthful working conditions inthe schools. 116

From Table XVII (above, page 130), it may be seen thatover three-fourths (77.4 per cent) of the Catholic systems reportsome sort of sick leave pay benefits, either through a central off­ice regulation or by choice of an individual school. This com­pares rather unfavorably with the finding of 97.6 per cent in thepublic school survey. 117

Fourteen, or nearly half (45.2 per cent), of all thesystems in the present survey reported requiring, or at least rec­ommending, giving their lay teachers from four to ten sick leave days per year, with a median of 7.5 days (one reported 4 days; sixgive 5 days; and seven allow 10 days); while public school dis­tricts had a median of ten days ( a median of ten days was thefinding for each of the sub-groups in terms of size and expen­

116 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 304.
diture as well as, therefore, for the sample as a whole). Only four systems (12.9 per cent) listed maximum cumulative number of days—twenty-five, thirty, thirty, and ninety, respectively. A few systems not reporting cumulative features suggest annually paying teachers on a per diem basis for unused sick leave. Sick leave was cumulative in 86.3 per cent of the public school districts, with a median of sixty days; the group of largest districts had a maximum of 110 days (median).

With the increase in staff size, particularly in the number of lay teachers, it has become necessary for parochial schools to develop a written sick leave policy. Experience with the typically rare absence records of sisters, as well as financial obstacles, have led to sick leave policies less "generous" than those of public schools. Ten days a year maximum absence, with a thirty-day cumulative period, is a formula recommended by one prominent Catholic school administrator.

Elsbree and Reutter point to the importance of a sick leave provision by including it as one of their six principles of compensating personnel: "A reasonable annual period of paid sick leave should be provided on a cumulative basis."

118 Ibid., 49.
119 Ibid., 81-82.
120 Corcoran, Catholic School Principal, 130.
121 Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 33.
majority of the Catholic systems in the present study were found to provide sick leave benefits for their lay teacher employees, fewer systems have moved far as yet in the way of providing adequate cumulative features. A recommended sick leave policy is practical, however, only if the means of financing it can be arranged. This obstacle is particularly serious in parish schools. A good sick leave plan includes paying the salary of the absent teacher; in addition, it includes paying the salary of a competent substitute teacher. The latter provision seems essential if the sick leave policy is to be effective. Within parishes, some use has been made of unpaid volunteer teachers. However, unless these volunteers are capable teachers themselves, the continuity of the children's education suffers. "The basic aim in utilizing substitute personnel is to continue instruction with the least possible disruption to the educational program." The quality of substitute service is not insignificant in maintaining a good sick leave policy.

Conclusions of Turner regarding administrative policies governing substitute teacher service seem relevant in planning to improve substitute service in diocesan school systems.

122 Ibid., 16.

Some of the conclusions which seem applicable include: maintaining an approved list of available substitutes in the central office; salaries of substitutes on the basis of a salary schedule, with benefits of tenure and sick leave for permanent substitutes; adequate orientation programs for substitute teachers (particularly for teachers who are unable to meet regular appointment standards); cooperative planning between regular teachers and substitutes (so that there will be a minimum of interruption in the instructional program); and employment of more full-time substitutes.

Public school policies have furnished the pattern for sick leave plans formulated by Catholic school systems or individual local schools. Adoption of these plans has been slow, however, despite the reduction in provisions. Some beginning attempt would seem better than none in providing an orderly and consistent method of granting sick leave with pay. The salutary effect that an established policy of paid sick leave has on the teacher, the pupil, and the school system far outweighs the added cost.

Retirement Plans. Efficient service from teachers also requires some provision for retirement. The question of security for old age, and for family and dependents, gives great concern. "Teachers' salaries are never large, and the average educator reaches retirement age with only meager savings."124 The pro-

124 Moehlman, School Administration, 395.
vision of adequate pensions or retirement pay relieves the teacher from anxiety and uncertainty about his economic future, and permits a dignified exit from active service.

The purpose of a retirement plan is to provide against insecurity in old age and during disability. Other objectives concern personnel—to eliminate superannuated and disabled employees, to aid recruitment in making the teaching profession more attractive to capable persons (who might otherwise seek employment in industry providing retirement protection), to retain those already under employment (for the same reason), and to improve employee morale by keeping avenues of advancement open.125 (The last objective is less applicable, at present, in Catholic school systems where religious usually hold the supervisory positions.)

Most retirement systems call for contributions by the employee and by the employer—the district or the state in the case of public school teachers—to produce funds which are necessary to provide retirement benefits. Management of these funds commonly includes investments, often legally regulated, which in turn produce a major source of the income supplementary to the contributions from members and employers.

For retired parochial school teachers, social security coverage provides some protection, but not enough. A retirement income which provides fifty per cent of average final salary is

125 Moore and Walters, Personnel Administration, 288.
generally considered to be an adequate and realistic proportion. Since parochial schools cannot draw from state funds, as can public schools, providing for retirement benefits supplementary to social security provisions means resorting to benefits purchased from private insurance companies, possibly with expenses shared by employer (pastor) and employee (lay teacher). Retirement plans with the diocese as underwriter require large-scale organization and membership in order to produce income from investments. Such plans are already in progress in at least two dioceses, and may well furnish models for others to follow.

Almost half (45.2 per cent) of the diocesan school systems studied reported retirement or pension plans. The majority of these systems follow local school options, however. Here, obviously, centralization has not made much headway, with over half of the systems reporting no pension or retirement plans whatever.

Public school teachers in all states are covered by a state or local retirement system. In all but Delaware, the teachers contribute to the cost of their retirement allowances. Types of benefits and contribution rates differ because of differences in benefit formulas and organization of school districts. Benefits of some public school districts are considered inadequate

126 NEA, Teacher and the Law, 80.
and in need of further improvement.\textsuperscript{127}

Retirement income supplementary to a state or city plan was reported by 8.2 per cent of the public school districts.\textsuperscript{128} Other policies on retirement in public schools frequently deal with compulsory retirement age. The NEA survey revealed that 81.1 per cent of the urban districts observe a compulsory retirement age—usually age sixty-five or seventy—with exceptions sometimes allowed in two-thirds of these districts.\textsuperscript{129} (It is of interest that one important current source of parochial school lay teachers—by report of diocesan superintendents surveyed in the present study—is that of retired public school teachers.)

Parochial schools are admittedly at a disadvantage in this area of retirement benefits because of the lack of supplementary funds that public schools have access to. Nevertheless, this provision will have to be included in order to compete with public schools for quality teachers, with the ultimate goal of promoting the efficiency of the schools. Also, in the opinion of the writer, Catholic schools have an obligation in justice and charity to seek to provide a respectable living for their retired lay teachers, especially those who have served faithfully over many years.


\textsuperscript{128} NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 81.

\textsuperscript{129} Ibid., 99; 81-82.
Hospitalization. The purpose of hospitalization insurance is to provide part or all of the hospital expenses incurred by the insured in the course of accident or illness. Insurance of this kind, according to Moore and Walters,\textsuperscript{130} tends to eliminate worry on the part of the employee, improves the employer-employee relationship, and gives a competitive advantage in the employment market. Elsbree and Reutter\textsuperscript{131} add other advantages of providing group health insurance in a personnel program—more economical premiums for the member, and coverage for individuals who might be considered poor risks by insurance companies.

In group hospitalization coverage, 90.3 per cent of the thirty-one school systems in the present survey report either centrally or locally regulated plans. In this area, however, centralization is even less evident than it is with sick leave pay. Typically, the central education office gives local parish schools the option of providing hospitalization insurance and of paying the costs, wholly or in part. The role of the central office up to now has been largely to require such plans in principle, or help advertise an approved group coverage plan.

In the NEA findings, more than three-quarters (78.5 per cent) of all the public school districts cooperate in providing hospitalization insurance. The cost of the insurance is paid by

\textsuperscript{130} Personnel Administration, 316.

\textsuperscript{131} Personnel Administration, 32.
the teacher alone in 75.9 per cent of those districts; the district pays part in 18.9 per cent, and all of it in only 5.2 per cent of the districts. Group service agencies (such as Blue Cross) and insurance companies were the most commonly reported underwriters of these insurance plans. Some school districts have indicated—in a November, 1960 NEA survey of 724 urban school districts—that they are considering an increase in nonwage benefits by making contributions to group insurance programs.

It should be pointed out that cooperation in group hospitalization for lay teachers on the part of parochial schools does not necessarily add cost to operating the schools. The cost involved depends on the proportion of the payments assumed by the employer. There is advantage to the lay teacher in simply being encouraged to obtain such insurance, even if it does subtract from his gross salary. Of course, school participation in the financing of the program is more favorable for the teachers than simply allowing or encouraging this benefit. Availability of hospitalization insurance, as a minimum, would seem essential for all parochial schools in their efforts to improve the welfare program for lay teachers. Local systems and parishes, ideally, should work toward payment of part or all of the costs of such programs for

132 NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 63; 67.

their employees. (As noted above, relatively few public school districts include the feature of partial or full payment of teacher hospitalization insurance costs.) As a beginning, the individual parish school can cooperate by collecting the premiums through payroll deductions.

Social Security. Benefit payments from social security are made when an employee retires, is disabled, or dies. The money to pay social security (or old-age, survivors, and disability insurance) benefits comes from the social security taxes. During working years, employees and their employers (other provisions are specified for self-employed people) pay social security taxes which go into trust funds. When earnings stop because of the worker's retirement in old age, disability, or death, payments are made from the funds to the worker and his dependents or to his survivors. The exact amount of the benefits payable depends on the individual's history of average earnings.\textsuperscript{134} Under the Social Security Act, the money collected can be used only to pay social security benefits and the costs of administering the program.\textsuperscript{135}

Before 1950, public employees covered by public retire-


\textsuperscript{135} At the present writing, the social security tax rate is 3 5/8 per cent each from employee and employer on earnings up to a maximum of $4,800 per year. An increase up to 4 5/8 per cent is scheduled for 1968 and after. (Ibid.)
ment plans (as were public school teachers in every state at that
time) were excluded, by law, from social security coverage. Dis-
putes over this legislation arose, particularly where local re-
tirement plans provided fewer benefits than social security.
Speculation about amendments included concern over dangers to the
rights and equities of those under existing retirement systems.\textsuperscript{136} Ultimately, in 1954, the Social Security Act was amended to permit
members of retirement systems to be covered by social security,
provided the majority of the members of a system voted in favor of
coverage.\textsuperscript{137} Several states have provided a divided system (and
are so named in the 1956 amendments) for their teachers--those
teachers voting for coverage, as well as future employees, were
covered; and those voting against coverage by social security were
not covered.\textsuperscript{138} Moreover, in some public school districts,
changes were made in retirement plans to reflect social security
coverage; in others, social security became fully supplemental to
the plan.\textsuperscript{139} In late 1961, the NEA reported about fifty per cent
of the nation's schoolteachers (some or all teachers in thirty-

\textsuperscript{136} Moore and Walters, \textit{Personnel Administration}, 140-
143.

\textsuperscript{137} NEA, \textit{Teacher and the Law}, 80; 84-85.

\textsuperscript{138} Ibid., 84-85.

eight states) to be covered by social security.140

Social security benefits are provided in all but two of the reporting systems of the present study (93.5 per cent), and represents the most widely adopted, as well as the most centrally regulated (45.2 per cent), nonsalary benefit of the four listed. The choice of whether to sponsor this program is still largely left (48.4 per cent) to the local school, however. These benefits are not generous, and they become even less so when computed on the basis of the low salary of a lay teacher. Moreover, an inadequate income during working years increases the need to plan for supplementary income after retirement. Inasmuch as these benefits are now available to nonprofit organizations, and inasmuch as retirement plans in parochial schools are infrequent, social security is an indispensable minimum retirement program which should not be omitted in any parish school.

Summary

Policies and practices concerning lay teachers under employment varied considerably between and within the Catholic school systems. Approximately half of the school systems reported the required use of orientation programs, salary schedules, and central office licensing of lay teachers. (Another 19.4 per cent "suggest" the use of salary schedules to local schools under their

Many of the orientation programs take place in local Catholic colleges and may be considered necessary for eligibility to obtain teaching positions. These programs take two typical forms: Catholic educational philosophy and/or preparation for the teaching of religion; and methods of teaching.

Only one-fourth (25.8 per cent) of the systems follow exact minimum state requirements for teacher certification; all but two of these are located in states where private as well as public school teachers must be certified by law. Another 48.4 per cent require lay teachers to meet approximate state minimum requirements. Many lay teachers under employment have less than a bachelor's degree and relatively few have a graduate degree. Difficulty in attracting qualified teachers forces systems to resort to sub-standard temporary or emergency teachers.

About one in four (29.0 per cent) systems maintain prescribed ratios of lay teachers to religious teachers--the most common being two or three religious to one lay teacher--as a way of equalizing or spreading lay teachers throughout the school system and distributing the cost burden of supporting increased lay staff.

Three-fourths (74.2 per cent) of the systems maintain policies and procedures books for use by pastors and principals. The large school systems in number of pupils and lay teachers, and the more geographically compact systems, were found to lead in the required or suggested use of most of these employ-
ment practices. The use of written contracts was a notable exception. The five systems employing the largest number of lay teachers reported use of contracts at the discretion of the local school, although two-thirds (64.5 per cent) reported supplying recommended contract forms.

Orientation programs (70.9 per cent) and annual signing of contracts (18.2 per cent) in the public school districts were more common in smaller districts; teachers in larger districts are commonly on tenure after a probationary period. More than three-fourths (80.9 per cent) reported adopting rules and regulations outlining personnel policies.

Lay teacher welfare benefits—sick pay, pension, hospitalization, and social security—are largely left to the option of individual schools. Central regulation of these practices was highest with social security (45.2 per cent), followed by sick pay (38.7 per cent) and hospitalization (35.5 per cent), and lowest with retirement benefits (12.9 per cent). When available under centralized regulation and/or local option, these percentages rise to the following: social security benefits, 93.5 per cent; hospitalization coverage, 90.3 per cent; sick pay benefits, 77.4 per cent; and retirement or pension plans, 45.2 per cent. (These latter percentages need to be qualified to the extent that local option in a school system in a given practice does not necessarily indicate the true or actual utilization within a system, parish by parish.)
There was no discernible pattern in terms of size of the diocesan systems in regard to which of these four nonsalary benefits are adopted or how (centrally or locally) they are regulated, other than that these benefits were infrequently reported in the widely-dispersed dioceses. All the systems reported one or more of these benefits; nearly three-fourths (74.2 per cent) offer three or more; almost half (45.2 per cent) have all four.

Variations also occur within school systems. A few systems have all benefits provided under central control; more have them at the option of the local school; and still more use a combination of the two types of regulation.

In the public school districts, provision of benefits is similarly unrelated to size of school district, region, or expenditure level. Sick pay (97.6 per cent) and hospitalization (78.5 per cent) were commonly reported, but there are inconsistencies in providing other fringe benefits. Cumulative sick leave was commonplace (86.3 per cent) in the public schools, with a median of sixty days per year; whereas comparatively few of the Catholic systems (12.9 per cent) reported this practice. Median number of sick leave days per year in public school districts was ten; the median in the Catholic school systems of the present study was 7.5 in those systems (45.2 per cent) requiring or recommending this practice.

Several Catholic systems are paying all or part of the cost of hospitalization coverage for their employees. Public
school districts reported paying part of such costs in 18.9 per cent of the districts, and all of the cost in only 5.2 per cent of the districts.

The slow development in the adoption of fringe benefits among parochial schools (along with inadequate salaries) creates a series of problems. Among them, the more crucial ones are lack of qualified applicants, hiring of the unqualified, and high rate of teacher turnover. Financial problems remain the major obstacle to initiating many improvements. In Catholic systems, expenditure levels vary with the prosperity of individual parishes and the attitude of the pastor. In public school districts, expenditure levels are centralized. This not only influences salaries of teachers but purchases of school equipment.

Public schools are more consistent in employment practices within districts than are Catholic schools within dioceses. The less structured diocesan systems contrasted with the more uniform public school districts emphasizes the shortcomings of divided authority in Catholic school administration, and points to the need for greater centralization and for strengthening of the role of the superintendent and/or school board. The traditional pattern of pastor as administrative head of the school is no longer adequate because of the expansion and growing complexity of Catholic schools, and the consequent need for trained educational leadership and large-scale planning. Relevant to this point is the strong statement by Father McCluskey:
The parochial school as an independent, parish-controlled and parish-financed operation is an anachronism. For the greater good all parochial schools should become diocesan schools. This will mean, of course, that pastors will have to yield control over their schools. We speak loosely of a Catholic school "system," but only a few dioceses approach education systematically.141

As the need for qualified lay teachers in Catholic elementary schools becomes more pressing, competition for their services with public schools will increase. This competitive activity requires a review of employment conditions in efforts to improve the school staffing program. Greater employment security of parochial school lay teachers would make teaching in Catholic schools a more desirable career, and would facilitate efforts to secure, screen, and retain lay teachers.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF CONTENT OF SAMPLE PERSONNEL MATERIALS

The final section of the questionnaire contained a request for sample copies of selected personnel materials such as lay teacher application blanks and/or interview blanks, recruitment brochures, suggested or required contracts, policies and procedures books, current written lay teacher policies if more complete than contained in the general policies and procedures book and, finally, suggested or required salary schedules for lay teachers. Table XVIII (page 151) contains data on the returns from these requests—which form the basis of the present chapter.

An inspection of this table reveals that the most commonly available item was the application blank. Nearly two-thirds of the systems sent sample contracts, and about half of the systems sent policy books and some form of suggested or required salary schedule. In descending order of return were: twenty-seven application blanks (87.1 per cent); twenty contracts (64.5 per cent); sixteen policy books (51.6 per cent); fifteen salary schedules (48.4 per cent); twelve additional written lay teacher policies (38.7 per cent); and five recruitment brochures (16.1 per
### TABLE XVIII

**NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS SUPPLYING SAMPLE LAY TEACHER PERSONNEL MATERIALS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Application blank</th>
<th>Recruitment brochure</th>
<th>Contract</th>
<th>Policy book</th>
<th>Additional written policies</th>
<th>Salary schedule</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enclosed</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>87.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>64.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No need for use of this</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need--not yet developed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply exhausted</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**                                      | 31     | 100.0    | 31     | 100.0    | 31     | 99.9     | 31     | 100.0    | 31     | 100.0    | 31     | 100.0    |

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a Only one system sent a sample interview blank.

b "Never considered"

c "Each school has a different idea."

d One system sent "selections" and two reported their books under revision.

e Two quoted minimum salary; one sent high school schedule; two are drafting a new schedule.
This page continues from the previous page. The text discusses the need for recruitment brochures and supplementary lay teacher policies. It also mentions application blanks and their frequency.

**Application Blanks**

It may be recalled from Chapter III that the use of the application blank was one of the most commonly reported selection techniques—used by all but three of the thirty-one school systems. Twenty-seven systems submitted sample forms. Examination of the items in this group of sample application forms provides a general index of the areas of greatest interest and concern to Catholic school authorities who must evaluate and screen applicants for teaching positions. Table XIX lists the elements found in an analysis of the twenty-seven sample blanks in descending order of frequency.

**TABLE XIX**

**FREQUENCY OF VARIOUS APPLICATION BLANK ELEMENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General information (name, address, phone, etc.)</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College background information</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family status</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of birth</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school and grade school background</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade level of teaching preferred</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal references</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional references</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching certificate or license information</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College major and minor</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parish</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
About a third of the above items—with frequencies high enough to indicate their occurrence in the majority of the twenty-seven application blank samples—deal mainly with the lay teacher applicant's educational background and teaching qualifications. Questions inquiring into citizenship status and military service history were rare. Parish affiliation was a common inquiry in the majority of systems, but by no means the great majority.

It is recognized that omission of a certain area of inquiry on the application form does not necessarily imply that no
inquiry is ever made. As in other fields of personnel administration, having an applicant fill out a formal application blank is typically an initial screening process, and often a formality which furnishes basic information for the records, as a prelude to more refined evaluation and selection.

Perhaps a word is in order about the format of the sample application blanks. The great majority (twenty-five of twenty-seven) use standard size 8½ by 11 inch sheets. One is smaller (5½ by 8 inches) and one is larger (8½ by 13 inches). Three systems use a four-page booklet style which devotes three pages to information items. While most utilize the single white 8½ by 11 sheet, a number have items on both sides of the sheet; two systems have a stapled two-sheet form, and two systems employ green paper. Nineteen of the blanks are professionally printed, seven are duplicated by mimeograph and one by a liquid duplicator. One application blank is printed on a stiff 8½ by 11 card which doubles as a personnel file card.

Of the four school systems not submitting application blanks, three reported no need for them and the fourth indicated need but added that a central office form has not been developed. All four of these systems ranked in the bottom third of the thirty-one in number of lay teachers employed; three were widely dispersed dioceses in terms of square miles of jurisdiction. These factors--small number of lay teachers and far-flung boundaries--lessen the urgency for a school system to develop centralized pro-
It is perhaps of some interest to examine the sample application blanks received in relation to their potential use as projective personality appraisal tools according to the Worthington method, which has been used and is being used to improve employee selection procedures in business and industry.

Worthington developed a form described and discussed in his doctoral dissertation in 1951. This form is very similar in appearance and content to application blank forms in general use, and is called a "Personal History." In a four-page form, it covers biographical data about family status, education, health, interests, military service, business experience, and aims and plans for the future. It can be utilized for individuals already under employment as well as for selecting future employees. Because of its format, it does not give the impression of being a "test."

The design of items on the form, by virtue of certain unstructuredness, places emphasis on the opportunity for varied personalized responses. For example, the name of the applicant may be designated in a number of styles according to the "needs" of the respondent. Throughout the form, he might elect to complete each item meticulously or choose to leave blanks. Some items are deliberately ambiguous as to whether they should be

marked with a check, answered simply yes or no or with additional
detail. To encourage attitudinal responses, open-end questions
are used freely, such as: "What did you like about the work [of
the previous employment]?"; "What did you dislike?"; "Reasons for
leaving?"; or, "What are your plans for the future?"

Worthington stresses the need to consider a variety of
clues from the form, no one of which may be at all significant.
These clues constitute "pegs" upon which to begin weaving a pic-
ture of the total individual, while also utilizing information in
addition to that of the Personal History. "Each item is scored in
terms of what it may reveal about the individual's feeling about
himself, his behavior, and his ways of relating himself to other
people and job situations."² Scoring and interpretation are built
up from the "facts" of the specific responses as related to em-
pirical observations of known typical or common ways of responding
to an item by large numbers of previous respondents. Deductions
and tentative inferences are made in regard to each response, and
preliminary assumptions are confirmed or refuted by the total pat-
tern of responses or, more frequently, by simultaneous considera-
tion of related evidence. (Blind analyses of Personal History re-
sponses have also been used successfully to validate their useful-
ness, such as in improving the selection of salesmen, executives,
and other types of personnel.)

Unstructured elements wherein an applicant has the opportunity to respond in his own way without highly structured or specific directions were observed in ten of the twenty-seven sample application blanks provided by Catholic school systems in the present survey—e.g., no definite instructions for recording name or date or title (Mr., Mrs., or Miss); items headed "teaching experience," "extra-curricular activities," and "references," without specifying the type of information sought; general questions asking for descriptions of "family status" and "plans for further education."

Six of the application blanks with unstructured elements also contained open-end questions, while none of the highly structured or directive blanks did. Open-end questions not only yield information on attitudes, but provide a sample of writing, composition, and grammar skills. Some of the questions appear to be designed to reveal something of a candidate's professional training and/or educational philosophy, as in the following examples:

"In a few sentences, explain why you want to teach in a Catholic school."

"What characteristics would you judge desirable in a teacher?"

"What are some basic factors in good teaching method in any classroom?"

"Which elementary school grades would you prefer to teach? Explain in seventy-five words or more on the reverse side."
"Further information which might assist in arriving at a true estimate of your qualifications."

"Describe other experiences outside teaching."

"In the following space you may state additional information concerning your interests, hobbies, experiences, and training."

"Reason for leaving last position?"

Only one school system's application blank specified use of pencil as does the Worthington Personal History, on the theory that numerous erasures are an index to an individual's level of tension or anxiety. Only three systems had a blank of comparable length to the four-page Personal History booklet type. 3

The comparison of the sample application blanks with the Worthington method of designing these devices demonstrates, in the opinion of the writer, possible further potential these blanks or adaptations might have in future use in improving the selection of Catholic lay teachers. While any application blank might be judged as providing some opportunity for a respondent to project his personality, attitudes and feelings, the design of the items is the significant key to maximize and prompt individual, personal or idiosyncratic types of responses. Also essential as a basis of comparison are "norms" or sufficient data as to how most applicants

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3 A personal communication between the writer and a staff member of Worthington-Hurst Associates indicated that this length is a compromise over longer forms. Six-page forms have been found to raise significantly resistance and yield sparser information.
Proper handling of such interpretations necessarily involves experience and training, and could not be delegated to novices or those who are not professionally trained in areas which relate to personnel selection. In view of the widespread use of the application blank as a screening device in the selection of lay teachers, the study of methods which might substantially increase its value and usefulness for this purpose seems well worthwhile. More involved projective techniques such as the Rorschach test have been suggested for use in teacher selection for appraising the personality of the prospective teacher and to predict his relative capacity to resolve stresses.4 However, such tools have had little practical usefulness because of the clinical training necessarily involved, time-consuming administration and scoring, as well as dangers of indiscriminate use.5

**Recruitment Brochures**

A recruitment brochure is a circular of information describing teaching opportunities in a school system for the purpose of attracting teachers. Such circulars are ordinarily distributed


to college departments of education, college placement offices, college counselors, or to other individuals or groups who might have contact with potential teachers.

Eight systems in the present survey reported use of lay teacher recruitment brochures, and five of these sent sample copies. Obviously, this particular recruitment device certainly cannot be called popular at present. The five received are from the larger systems ranked in terms of number of lay teachers employed, and in dioceses with a smaller geographical radius. This device would seemingly be particularly useful in dioceses covering large areas, provided there was some degree of uniformity among individual schools on which to base brochure information. The lack of centralization in systems covering a large geographical area no doubt reduces attempts to develop such a brochure. Nearly one-half of all the systems reported no need for this recruitment procedure, when it probably would be more accurate to say no need exists under present lack of centralization.

The five brochures submitted vary widely in physical appearance and content. All are professionally printed on heavy grades of paper. They appear to be carefully and imaginatively designed, with special attention to cover illustrations or photographs and headline-type appeals which at the same time label and arouse interest in the contents. Their design and manner of appeal are not unlike many of the posters, advertisements and circul-
to charitable organizations. A description of each of the samples illustrates how these devices may vary.

1. A single 8½ by 11 inch sheet, pale green gloss paper, folded in half to form a 5½ by 8½ four-page leaflet; dark green print; no pictures or illustrations. Issued jointly by the office of the diocesan superintendent of schools and a local Catholic college, the cover page invites the reader "... to Consider the Classroom Apostolate ..."; the remaining three pages are devoted to a description of the diocesan training program offered to high school girls, qualifications necessary, and instructions on how to apply.

2. Six graduated pages, three colors of paper, black printing; overall size 5½ by 8½ inches; illustrations on front and back covers and opposite every page of print. (This school system also enclosed an abbreviated poster-type appeal, 5½ by 8½, illustrated sheet, two-toned pink paper, black print, offering free college scholarships to qualified women between the ages of eighteen and forty-five.) The booklet is titled "Invitation to Catholic Lay Teaching," and is directed primarily to college women to consider as a pre-marriage career. Pages describe the history and rapid growth of the diocese, the increase in the number of parochial schools, spiritual enrichment which can come from the teaching profession, and statistics of increased elementary school enrollments. The brochure closes with an appeal to contemplate and seek further information about this
3. Single 8½ by 11 inch sheet, white paper with two-toned brown borders; brown printing on both sides; folds in thirds down to 3½ by 8½ inches; no illustrations or pictures. The subject of the pamphlet is the "Teaching Scholarship Program," directed to high school girls. The contents describe how the plan operates those eligible, and how to apply, with a suggestion to take the pamphlet home and discuss it with parents.

4. Large sheet, 18 by 25 inches, folds map-like down to 9 by 3½ inches for mailing (contains paid postage permit, return address, and space for addressee); one side: seventeen photographs of school activities and facilities; reverse side: full map of metropolitan school system plus miscellaneous facts, figures, regulations, etc.; green (captions) and black print. This circular appears to be more of a general information and introduction to the diocesan schools, especially suitable for parents of newly registered school children.

5. Size 8½ by 22 inches, folds in half down to four-page leaflet, further folds in thirds to 3½ by 8½ inches for stacking and distribution; four photographs, one chart (salary schedule). This example is directed to women with a bachelor's degree, or at least sixty hours of college credit, describing the attractions and advantages of teaching in diocesan Catholic schools. Requirements, orientation programs, and tuition aids of the diocesan program for lay teachers are discussed.
It is interesting to note that these brochures have certain features in common—in stressing the present need for lay teachers and in enumerating advantages of this career. Four of the brochures offer college scholarship assistance to applicants. While this is an attractive feature to many, no doubt it mainly attempts to get short-term fill-in sub-bachelor's degree teachers, many of whom marry or leave for public school placement once fully certified by the state. Also, four of the five show a definite cooperative linkage to a local Catholic college in terms of teacher training and reduced or free tuition. One brochure, though usable for lay teacher general orientation, appears geared primarily for pupil's parents.

Elsbree and Reutter\(^6\) cite several advantages of such a brochure—e.g., to heighten the interest of prospective candidates and to answer many of their questions—but caution that the information supplied must be "candid and pertinent" in regard to personal qualifications as well as technical requirements considered desirable in a teacher. Adequate information, according to these writers, facilitates selection and reduces turnover arising from lack of information or misinformation about the school system.

In the sample brochures, the information was usually specific and clear. The inclusion of available current salary schedules would be an improvement. (Such an inclusion was made in

\(^6\) Personnel Administration, 10.
one of the samples.) The brochures are attractively designed and range from the very simple and seemingly inexpensive to produce to those rather complex and costly in format. Imaginative circulars along this line would seem to be one of the first tasks where parochial school recruitment efforts are being made to organize on a diocesan-wide, centralized level.

Salary Schedules

A sound salary schedule is one of the most important features of good personnel policy in a school system, especially during times when schools find it difficult to attract and hold competent people in the teaching profession. Establishment of a definite salary scale is one of the basic steps toward placing teachers' salaries on a professional basis, and is beneficial to a school system as well as to its teachers. In terms of long-range planning, an attractive salary schedule can be economical—to the extent that it decreases teacher turnover and consequent loss of time, money, and efficiency necessary to seek and train replacements. Teachers benefit by being able to plan ahead in terms of expected income and, when there are provisions for salary increments geared to additional levels of professional preparation, by being encouraged to improve professionally.

In formulating a salary schedule, Elsbree and Reutter

7 Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 247.
remind the school administrator of the need to offer attractive salaries, since

In the final analysis quality of education is dependent on the quality of staff personnel, and the quality of staff personnel who can be attracted to a school system, and retained, is to a large measure contingent on the level of professional salaries offered. 8

Public Schools. Despite notable increases, earnings of public school teachers have not been considered adequate to compete with other occupations and to share fully in the rise of the level of national income. Increases in the amounts scheduled over the past several years have been offset by rising prices and taxes.

From 1950 to 1963, the Consumer's Price Index rose about 27%. The effect was to reduce the value of the apparent increases in the dollar amounts of salaries. However, substantial gains in purchasing power occurred, ranging from 29.3 to 52.6 per cent. When the . . . medians for Group I [urban school districts 500,000 and over in population] are averaged, the gain is 77.1 per cent, but in purchasing power, only 39.1 per cent. The corresponding average gains in Group II [urban school districts 100,000-499,999 in population] are 85.6 per cent in current dollars and 45.8 per cent in purchasing power. 9

Data on earnings in other professional occupations are sometimes utilized in evaluating the economic status of public school teachers. But only a few sources of data are available on a continuing basis, and comparisons are difficult to make. Work schedules, duties, responsibilities, leadership, and obligations

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8 Elsbree and Reutter, Personnel Administration, 31.

differ endlessly even when similar training is required for the professions being compared. Comparison with average annual salaries for selected professions (accountants, auditors, attorneys, chemists, and engineers) reported by U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reveal that these have been and are considerably above those of teachers in every case.  

Gains in minimum salaries have been slightly greater than in maximum salaries because of the emphasis on competition in recruiting the young college graduate. The failure to raise maximum salaries proportionately has tended to lower the teacher's economic status in relation to other professions, since both minimum and maximum salaries are still lower than those of most other professions.  

Another difference of significance is that of public school teachers being governmental employees, whereas other professions to which teaching is sometimes compared are in private employment. This difference frequently involves limitations placed on the rights of public employees, such as the right to bargain collectively for better working conditions—which has long been enjoyed by private workers. The right of government to prohibit public employees from joining unions or labor associations

10 Ibid., 51-52.

is similar to other restrictions which may be legislated in the name of public safety and security. Two features of collective bargaining, as it is practiced in private employment, are particularly unacceptable: legally to grant teachers or public employees the closed or union shop, and the right to strike. 12

An excellent article by Seitz on the current legal status of public school teachers and collective bargaining notes that a few state statutes forbid labor organization of public employees; but he speculates that future litigation may well be able to establish that such statutes prohibiting the joining of unions are "offensive to the United States Constitution First Amendment protection to freedom to assemble." 13 With a few exceptions in the field of public employment, the right to organize and bargain collectively is not protected by statute as it is quite extensively in private employment. The importance of this difference is that there are almost no procedures spelled out in public employment for the determination of questions of representation or appropriate collective bargaining units, whereas in the private field federal and state statutes provide detailed procedures to be used in the solution of such matters. Also, in the private field, the


right to strike is generally recognized. The converse of this is true in the area of public employment.\textsuperscript{14}

While there are reasonable, related statutory limitations which apply in collective bargaining between public employees, Seitz contends that there is no reason to argue that all collective bargaining between governmental units and government employees is illegal.\textsuperscript{15} Some states are beginning to write statutes which make provisions for mediation of labor disputes involving public employees, including school boards and educational personnel.\textsuperscript{16} A school board (not so prohibited by law) may voluntarily wish to recognize and bargain collectively with associations or unions of school personnel, feeling that "good faith bargaining" is one of the best methods of keeping the school personnel realistically informed about vital problems concerning the operations and administration of the schools.\textsuperscript{17}

As the law stands at present, teachers may organize, though teachers' organizations and school boards may not agree to maintain the closed shop or the union shop. Teachers may not strike. Teachers and their organizations may negotiate with their employing boards, but the items bargained for must be within the

\textsuperscript{14} Ibid., 206.
\textsuperscript{15} Ibid., 211-212.
\textsuperscript{16} Ibid., 217.
\textsuperscript{17} Ibid., 222.
discretionary power of the school board to govern and may not violate state statutes. In collective bargaining, the critical point is not the type of teacher organization that is involved, but the kind of bargaining that is attempted. 18

(The matter of collective bargaining as it might apply to Catholic school employees is not truly comparable in that, technically, the employer of Catholic lay teachers is the individual school pastor rather than a school board, and because of this any bargaining done tends to be on an individual basis. When an individual teacher has a contract or salary grievance, this matter may often be mediated through the diocesan school office. A school office has some regulatory jurisdiction over the local school, but does not finance teachers' salaries. This method of handling grievances by appealing to a central church office is also the traditional, expected and required procedure in any dispute between a parishioner and the local pastor.)

Elsbree and Reutter 19 contend that the mere existence of a grievance procedure serves to improve substantially human relations and morale. They recommend that the series of steps to be followed in the resolution of complaints should be definite and clearly stated, kept to a minimum number, and begin at the level closest to the employee, with assurance of eventual solution. The

18 NEA, Teacher and the Law, 90.
19 Personnel Administration, 26.
aim of such a provision is to permit examination and solution of grievances in an orderly manner and to ameliorate conflicts as soon as they arise.

The need to make salary provisions high enough to attract and retain competent people has resulted in the development of guidelines for constructing salary schedules. In 1952, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards adopted such criteria, which dealt with the following areas: (1) establishment of a salary schedule by cooperation of school board, school administrators, and teachers; (2) comparable salaries for comparable preparation and experience; (3) beginning salary placement by preparation and experience; (4) minimum salaries; and (5) amounts of increments.20

A further development of salary schedule guides are the following principles, which appeared in 1957 out of studies by the Research Division of the National Education Association and which have been widely used in framing policies on teachers' salaries:

1. Minimum salaries should be high enough to attract well-educated, promising young people to the teaching profession.
2. Maximum salaries should be high enough to retain highly competent and professionally ambitious men and women in classroom teaching.
3. Equity of treatment of classroom teachers of like qualifications and experience is essential.
4. Annual increments should provide an orderly progress to

the maximum salary.

5. The salary schedule should offer professional stimulation through incentives in recognition of professional qualifications.

6. Salary schedules should be adjusted periodically, with due consideration for trends in earnings in other professions and for changes in the cost of living.

7. Salaries of professional school personnel other than classroom teachers should be scheduled in accordance with the principles that apply to classroom teachers, with suitable recognition of responsibilities and preparation for leadership.

8. There should be professional participation by classroom teachers in the development and administration of salary policies.  

Nearly all of the salary schedules in use today are of the single salary type, where salary class depends on the professional qualifications (amount of training plus years of experience of the teacher rather than grade level or assignment (characteristic of formerly-used position schedules).  

In addition to the general use of preparation and experience as bases for salary的不同ials, other considerations are sometimes used, such as: (a) extra pay for extra work; (b) 等-

21 NEA, Teachers' Salary Committee, 18.


23 Personnel Administration, 30.
pendency allowance; and (c) merit pay.

The practice of paying more than the regular salary to teachers with special duties and/or specific extra curricular assignments is common in larger school districts. Citing a 1958-59 NEA survey of school districts over 30,000 in population (which disclosed that 493 of 554 districts granted extra pay to teachers for extra duties), Rempel observed that such provisions are usually "tacked on" to regular salary schedules without analysis or objective appraisal of the additional duties for which extra pay is provided. From this investigation, Rempel advocates setting up definite criteria, through which duties could be systematically evaluated and appropriate quantitative measures applied; and he further recommends that extra pay for extra work be proportional to the regular salary on the schedule, or be related to some fixed base salary. The need for criteria to evaluate teacher duties is also recommended by Moore and Walters --as a means of distributing assignments and eliminating the "extra" label, however, not as a means of refining payments for extra services.

The writer is inclined toward the view that improved teacher salaries generally might obviate the apparent usefulness of extra pay provisions for particular teachers, that such pro-


25 Personnel Administration, 262-263.
visions have divisive dangers among school faculties, and that formulas for establishing such provisions, however carefully constructed, tend to be more complicated than practical or functional, as well as necessarily based in part on subjectivity in application.

The question of dependency allowances, which might be considered extra pay for equal work, is a controversial issue. This has to do with providing extra income based on the number of dependents supported by the teacher. Again, attractive salaries would go far to reduce the need to supplement income in order to make it adequate for a family as well as for an individual. While applying dependency allowances is relatively simple and objective, as opposed to extra pay for extra work allowances, there may be difficulties in winning the acceptance of the staff and the community.

Merit pay is another plan for supplementing a teacher's salary. This practice has been proposed on the theory that teachers with comparable experience, training, responsibilities, and assignment perform at various degrees of professional effectiveness and that these degrees, at least in the extremes, can be identified, and the highest rewarded financially. The rewards are made in various ways—through supermaximums, that is, through salaries higher than the maximums on the regular schedule; through bonuses; and through acceleration of the teacher's progress on the salary scale. 26

Many school systems have found out, the NEA reveals,

that merit pay plans have not been successful. Aside from the inadequacy of measures of teaching efficiency, such plans have created dissension and negative reactions among school staffs.27 Once more, efforts to improve professional service of teachers by salary policy points to offering salaries (that reward experience and advanced preparation) high enough to attract persons of professional ambition and promise, rather than through questionable or possibly spurious ratings of individual teachers.

Catholic Schools. Salary regulation in Catholic school systems operates on a rather primitive level when compared to public school advancements in this area. Since the hiring of lay teachers in large numbers is of relatively recent origin in parochial schools, "policies" regarding beginning salaries, annual increments, and levels of preparation are discussed little in comparison to the problems of how much the pastor can afford to pay the lay teachers and whether applicants can be found who possess more than two years of college training. Pastoral experience and parish budgets which formerly dealt with the "stipends" and vow of poverty of sisters are not applicable to a staff with numerous lay teachers. Some Catholics--sisters, priests, and parents alike--are accustomed to regarding teaching in Catholic schools as a noble and apostolic work, undertaken primarily out of high dedica-

tion. Efforts to come to terms with the economic facts of life have had some degree of success. However, severe financial limitations have impeded greater progress.

Policy books in diocesan systems typically devote little space to the matter of lay teacher salaries, to say nothing of furnishing detailed salary schedules. The concern, however, is uniform. It is recognized that lay teachers have, in the words of one manual, "greater personal living expenses than Sisters" and that salaries should be determined "accordingly." Systematic salary policies, however, are not widespread. For guides, attempts to establish a realistic salary scale look, on the one hand, to the principle of providing a living wage according to papal pronouncements and, on the other, to the explicit patterns of local public school salaries.

Most policy manuals leave the matter of salary to the decision of the pastor. Beyond the instruction to provide "at least" the recommended diocesan minimum salary (salaries in excess of the minimum specified are at the discretion of the pastor), increments are also often left to the employing pastor. One pol-

28 A recent study of policy books from public, private, and parochial school systems found that references relating to salaries were included in ninety per cent of the public school manuals examined, in eighty per cent of those from private school systems, and in only 28.4 per cent of the books from Catholic school systems. (Sister Mary Minolia Berres, S.S.N.D., An Analysis of Written School Policies for Public, Parochial, and Private School Systems in the Area of Administration, Unpublished Master's Thesis, De Paul University, Chicago, Illinois, 1963,110.)
icy book refers to the cost-of-living index and "uncertain conditions," and publishes a revised minimum salary annually in the spring, for use in the next school year. Two others direct the pastor to notify the ordinary where the burden of the diocesan schedule is too heavy for the income and resources of the parish.

About half (sixteen) of the thirty-one school systems in the present study reported the use of salary schedules; six others merely suggest their use. Fifteen systems submitted salary schedule information. Only eleven of these can be grouped for comparison; the remaining four merely state a minimum standard and give little detail regarding increments or preparation levels.

Ten of the fifteen systems reporting some form of salary scale employ 469 or more lay teachers—among the half of the thirty-one systems employing the larger number of lay teachers. As was true of the use of supplementary written lay teacher policies, dioceses that are widely dispersed geographically do not indicate use of a salary schedule. The conclusion again is that school systems employing larger numbers of lay teachers have more urgent need for such tools as salary schedules, while more geographically dispersed dioceses, though perhaps equally conscious of the value of such devices, have not adopted them. This is, of course, caused by widely differing problems of centralization arising because of the physical characteristics of certain school systems, especially those covering an extensive area.

Of the eleven comparable salary schedules under discus-
Six of the eleven salary schedules listed in Table XX are explicitly labeled by the issuing central office as "minimum." It is the general impression of the writer that this is similarly implied by the other school systems also. This tendency for school systems to specify minimum standards in structuring lay teacher salary scales, while a logical and necessary first step, can eventually lead to the problem of teachers gravitating to the better paying schools within the same system.

While all the schedules list pay differentials for the bachelor's degree level of training, significantly, ten of the eleven include salary categories below bachelor's degree preparation, and only three indicate salary provisions beyond bachelor's degree training. Intervals range from three to eleven, with annual increments in four systems varying in amount according to the teacher's training level. Annual increments range from a minimum of fifty dollars to a maximum of two hundred dollars. For teachers whose training is below the sixty to sixty-four college credit level, salaries are expectedly the lowest within a given system, when compared with higher levels of training. Of the five systems reporting schedules which incorporate this training level, the lowest reported initial annual salary is $2,200 and the highest reported $2,800. Typically, teachers so paid are retained on an
## TABLE XX
### SALARY SCHEDULES OF ELEVEN CATHOLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School system</th>
<th>Number of pay intervals</th>
<th>Annual increment</th>
<th>Minimum-maximum annual salary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Below 60-64 semester hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>60-64 semester hours up to bachelor's degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor's degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Master's degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>[6&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;]</td>
<td>$75; $100&lt;sup&gt;g&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>$3000-$3950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>$50</td>
<td>$2800-$3050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>3000- 3600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>[3 to 7&lt;sup&gt;e&lt;/sup&gt;]</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2200- 2700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>[7&lt;sup&gt;f&lt;/sup&gt;]</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2200- 2500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3000- 3600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>150; 200&lt;sup&gt;h&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>2850- 3300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3500- 4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3500- 4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3500- 4600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>60 to 100</td>
<td>2560- 2950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Scale explicitly labeled "minimum" by central office. Others here
TABLE XX (continued)

SALARY SCHEDULES OF ELEVEN CATHOLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS

are required.

b Suggested salary schedule.

c Based on diocesan office city. In this diocese, salary scales vary in the thirty cities and six counties.

d Three sets of intervals for three levels of preparation—sixty-plus credit hours, ninety-plus credit hours, and bachelor's degree.

e Three sets of intervals for three levels of preparation—"varies with credit hours," bachelor's degree, and master's degree.

f Less than bachelor's degree; bachelor's degree without state certificate; bachelor's degree or master's degree with state certificate.

g Lower amount of each pair for first two increments; higher amount for increments thereafter.

h Permanent certification (larger amount) vs. temporary certification.

i With state certificate.

j With experience.

k Doctor's degree.
emergency basis in lieu of available adequately trained teachers. The next level, that of sixty to sixty-four semester hours of training up to but not including the bachelor's degree, has a high starting salary of $3,500 and a low one of $2,500. At this latter training level, teachers are ordinarily employed on a temporary basis, as opposed to an emergency or permanent basis, and are usually expected to advance their education toward a bachelor's degree.

With a bachelor's degree, lay salaries climb to a minimum of $2,800 in one system to a minimum of $4,000 in another. With a master's degree, minimum salaries range from $3,200 and $3,800 to maximums of $4,200 and $4,900 per year. One school system includes a scale for those with doctoral degrees—$4,000 minimum to $5,100 maximum. Though some overlap of salaries from one level of training "lane" to another appears in most of the school systems, there is greater salary variation between school systems than within school systems in this regard. It is possible, for example, for a teacher with less than sixty to sixty-four credit hours of college training to be paid more in system #2 than one with a bachelor's degree in system #5. Similarly, the maximum salary for a level of training below the sixty to sixty-four semester hours in system #8 is equal to the minimum assigned for a master's degree plus a state certificate in system #5. In the latter case, these differences exemplify regional differences in salaries that might likewise be reflected in public school dis-
tricts similarly located. This regional variation would also help explain the discrepancy in the former instance. In addition, there sometimes is a differential salary within a given preparation level, based on whether the teacher has a state teaching certificate.

When the above salaries are examined in comparison with the current national average salaries for 925,027 elementary public school teachers (1963-64) of $5,797,29 they obviously fall far behind in terms of salary competitiveness. If the salaries in the Catholic elementary school systems in the present study are further compared with the minimum salaries for beginning public school teachers in thirty-two states (1963-64), a similar lag is evident. In 1963-64, the prescribed salary for a beginning teacher with a bachelor's degree was $4,200 or more in seven states, with a median of $3,773; in five states, beginning teachers with a master's degree must now be paid $4,500 or more and at least $4,200 in seven other states. The median of the statutory salaries in this category is $4,000.30

Table XXI (page 182) contains comparative data on the eight resident states of ten of the present study's Catholic school systems that report minimum suggested or required salaries


TABLE XXI

MINIMUM SALARIES FOR TEN CATHOLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND CORRESPONDING STATE LEGAL MINIMUM SALARIES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Minimum salary for bachelor's degree</th>
<th>Catholic school system</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beginning public school teacher*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$4,500</td>
<td>$3,600 [3,000]**</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4,500</td>
<td>3,500</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,200</td>
<td>3,300</td>
<td>78.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>3,500</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>3,600 [3,520]**</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>84.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>3,400 ***</td>
<td>94.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>3,400</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>88.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>$3,900</td>
<td>$3,450</td>
<td>85.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


** Double entry indicates two school systems in the same state.

*** "Suggested" salary minimum.
for teachers with bachelor's degrees. Examination of the table reveals that minimum annual salaries in each of the ten Catholic systems fall below the annual minimum fixed by law for public school teachers in their respective states, with differences ranging from $200 to $1,500 and a median differential of $450 per year. When these differences are examined in terms of percentages of annual salaries, they range from 66.6 per cent to 94.7 per cent of the public school minimum salaries, with a median difference of 85.9 per cent.

Because only two of the ten reporting systems included the classification of master's degree minimum salaries, these data along with comparable state minimums were not included in Table XXI. But again, in these two cases the minimums were below those of the public schools by $270 and $400 per year, respectively, with both under the median of the prescribed minimum salaries of thirty-two states by $400 and $800 per year.\footnote{31}{Ibid.}

An illustrative comparison in Table XXII (page 184) of the salary schedule of a diocesan school system with that of the local public school district gives a clear indication of the strain of salary competition placed on Catholic schools. It can be noted from this table that salaries of Catholic school teachers with a bachelor's degree range from sixty-five to sixty-eight per cent of those for public school teachers with a bachelor's degree.
**TABLE XXII**

SALARY SCHEDULES FOR TEACHERS IN PUBLIC AND CATHOLIC SCHOOLS IN A SINGLE CITY, 1963

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of service</th>
<th>Salary schedule for bachelor's degree</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public schools</td>
<td>Catholic schools*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$5,350</td>
<td>$3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5,600</td>
<td>3,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5,850</td>
<td>3,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6,100</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6,350</td>
<td>4,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6,600</td>
<td>4,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6,850</td>
<td>4,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>7,100</td>
<td>4,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>7,350</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Explicitly minimum
** Median
level of training.

The implications of these discrepancies obviously point to the need for equalizing or, as acknowledged by most, at least improving teacher pay schedules in the Catholic elementary school systems. It would seem that a priority task in such a project would be to give attention to the basic category of beginning teachers with a bachelor's degree, using as a fitting model or initial goal the state's legal minimum salary. In light of the pressures on public schools to raise salaries in competition with business and industry in recruiting college graduates, the gap between beginning salaries for Catholic school teachers and those for public school teachers becomes even more serious. On the basis of salaries, Catholic schools cannot compete for a proportionate share of these graduates, and will necessarily continue to revert to sub-bachelor's degree candidates.

Contracts

An analysis of twenty sample lay teacher contract forms submitted by the Catholic school systems participating in the present survey continues the earlier discussion and findings relating to contracts (above, pages 116-124). While only nine of the twenty-five systems that reported the use of written contracts regulate their use centrally, thirteen others indicated that they supply recommended forms to local schools--which is one significant area of central office leadership in personnel practice,
despite the fact that in these dioceses the actual use of contracts is optional with the local schools.

Table XXIII shows the type and frequency of items found in a cumulative analysis of each of the twenty sample contracts.

**TABLE XXIII**

**FREQUENCY OF VARIOUS CONTRACT ELEMENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name of teacher</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signature of teacher</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expiration date</td>
<td>18&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of salary installments</td>
<td>18&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of word &quot;contract&quot;</td>
<td>17&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of parish or school</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signature of pastor</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of city or county</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of diocese</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sick leave provisions</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisions for teacher dismissal</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of adherence to school rules</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of adherence to diocesan policies and/or regulations</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of state</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of pastor</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewal date</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special school regulations or duties</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for continuing contract beyond one year</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade level (high school or elementary)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of adherence to state laws</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitalization coverage</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision to appeal dismissal to school board or superintendent</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State certification requirement</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<sup>a</sup> Two provide for continuing plan in contract wording; four give annual coverage dates but mention continuing option.

<sup>b</sup> Word "agreement" used in other three contracts.
TABLE XXIII (continued)

FREQUENCY OF VARIOUS CONTRACT ELEMENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social security deductions</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for mutual consent cancellation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signature of principal</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadline for signing contract</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary schedule</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades or subjects to be taught</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal income tax</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of principal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Names of witnesses</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of loyalty to U.S. government</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of Christianity or good morals</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probationary period of one year or one semester</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of superintendent</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for continuing salary in event of emergency school closing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of keeping accurate records</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence of good health</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition of attendance at prescribed meetings</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisions for maternity leave</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for resignation (good reason) with thirty-day notice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signature of superintendent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for substitute in event of teacher illness:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at school expense</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at school expense only after sick leave exhausted</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for cancellation (school or teacher) with thirty-day notice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for extended term teaching in event of school closing (same annual salary)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for resignation (good reason) with sixty-day notice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can easily be noted by the extent of these tabulated features, contract details were quite varied. The only common elements found in all of the contracts were blanks for the name
of the employed teacher, the date, the salary, and the teacher's signature. Most are written for a one-year period, but six of the twenty contract forms contained wording common to continuing contracts to the effect that unless the teacher is contacted by a given spring date, the provisions will continue through the following year.

The great majority of the submitted contract forms specify the total annual or monthly salary amounts and number of installments to be paid to the teacher. The fact that seventeen of the twenty samples name the parish or school assigned and require the signature of the pastor (with just three also providing space for the signature of the principal) underlines the point that the pastor is generally the recognized administrator of the parochial school.

Table XXIV gives a frequency breakdown of the physical features of the sample contract forms received. An inspection of the table shows that the majority of the forms are professionally printed on an 8½ by 11 inch single page. In some cases, it was noted, school systems provide triplicate colored forms to designate copies for the pastor, the school, and the diocesan office.

Writers differ somewhat on the ingredients essential in a teacher contract, but there is virtual consensus on the rule of simplicity. Theoretically, any number of specific details could be written into a contract, but this tends to weaken the agreement and make it inflexible or unwieldy. For example, listing
such details as grade or subject to be taught could bind the
school to an undesirable stipulation which unforeseen circum-
stances might require changing. Only two of the twenty sample
contract forms, incidentally, are specific on this particular
point, though several contain such seemingly superfluous specifics

TABLE XXIV

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF NINETEEN SAMPLE CONTRACTS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionally printed</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mimeographed</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8½ by 11 inch paper</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 by 17 inch folded booklet style</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8½ by 13 inch paper</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 5/16 by 8½ inch paper</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8½ by 11 inch folded booklet style</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single sheet</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more pages</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single sheet, printed both sides</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The twentieth school system reproduces the recom-
mended contract form in its policy book.

as: use of prescribed textbooks (one school system); attending
prescribed meetings (two school systems); and keeping accurate
records and reports (two school systems). Generally, the pre-
ferred procedure in preparing contracts is not to enumerate de-
tails of the regular duties of teachers, particularly when they
are (or unless they are not) listed in the school policy manual--
to which the contract might properly refer in general terms.\textsuperscript{32} It is, of course, to be assumed that the teachers are adequately apprised of such policies. Fourteen of the sample contracts contain the condition that lay teachers abide by diocesan policies and regulations and/or school rules.

The question of what elements a good teacher contract should incorporate and yet remain brief and simple has been answered by various authors. Anderson, writing in 1927 and still quoted in current textbooks in school administration, says the best type of teacher's contract would include the following essentials:

1. Name of the school district
2. Name of the teacher
3. The agreement that he is to teach
4. Amount of salary
5. Time limit for acceptance of the offer
6. Signature of the authorized school officer or officers
7. Agreement to abide by the rules and regulations of the board
8. Signature of the teacher\textsuperscript{33}

More recent lists of essential elements\textsuperscript{34} incorporate

\textsuperscript{32} NEA, Teacher and the Law, 44; Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 229; Ryan, "Written Contracts for Lay Teachers," Catholic School Journal, LX, 64-65; Reeder, Public School Administration, 109.

\textsuperscript{33} E.W. Anderson, The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, 145, cited in Reeder, Public School Administration, 109.

\textsuperscript{34} NEA, Teacher and the Law, 42-44; Grieder, Pierce, and Rosenstengel, Public School Administration, 228; Ryan, "Written Contracts for Lay Teachers," Catholic School Journal, LX, 65.
most of Anderson's features, but add the need to specify the duration of service, the method of salary payment as well as the amount, and date services will begin rather than time limit for acceptance of the terms of the contract. Indications of the legal capacity of both parties, or of the teacher only, are sometimes added. Usually, however, naming or identifying the employer and the teacher is considered a sufficient indication of their legal capacity.

Edwards, a widely recognized national authority in school law, cites the following prerequisites of simple contracts which should not be overlooked by boards of education or parties dealing with them:

(1) legal capacity on the part of the contracting parties; (2) mutual assent of the contracting parties to the terms of the contract, or what is commonly known as a "meeting of minds"; (3) a valid consideration; (4) rights and liabilities sufficiently definite to be enforceable; and (5) agreement of such a nature as not to be prohibited by the statutes of common law. 35

There is considerable difference of opinion as to whether the contract should include a list of specific reasons for the dismissal of teachers. Some feel that such listings are usually too brief and too general to be effective. Others prefer to leave the matter to the decision of the courts should the occasion arise where the reasonableness of the causes for dismissal are questioned. Several state tenure laws do not include specific causes

for dismissal but declare, for example, that tenure teachers shall be dismissed "for cause," for "just cause," "for good and just cause," or "for good and sufficient cause." Charges given by a school board in "good faith" under these provisions have been upheld by the courts as satisfying the statutory requirement of cause for dismissal. On the other hand, in states where there are no tenure provisions (which would be more comparable to contractual arrangements in private schools), contracts are more likely to contain the reasons for which the contract may be terminated before its specified termination date.

The provisions for teacher dismissal which appeared in twelve of the sample contracts are of particular interest, and are reproduced in full in the appendix (see Appendix VII). Of the twelve statements, four do not specify reasons which warrant dismissal action, but refer to "grave cause," "good and sufficient cause," or "work of the teacher . . . not being performed . . . in a manner satisfactory." Eight other contracts list specific violations such as neglect of duty, incompetence, improper conduct, and persistent violation of rules. Except for terms which refer to loss of diocesan qualifications or "conduct not in keeping with the objectives of an American Catholic education," many of these

36 NBA, Teacher and the Law, 36.

37 Ibid.

38 Ibid., 44.
causes for dismissal could well have applied to a secular school contract in terms of content. Some are so general, however, that they allow the employer considerable discretion and reduce the security value of the contract for the teacher. For example, one contract provides for termination under "any condition that may arise that makes it financially disadvantageous to continue operations under current budget." (Thirteen or almost two-thirds of the contract forms received contain some kind of cancellation provisions which may be invoked under certain conditions--usually very generally stated--by either the teacher or the employing school. This type of provision seems practically to nullify the value a signed contract may have.)

In general, the sample contract forms in the present study of Catholic school systems conform to the basic essentials discussed previously. Most of the contracts are simple and brief, and comprise a single printed page. Some minor differences noted --where there are specifications beyond those generally considered fundamental--appear to be due to special needs or problems, some of which may have arisen from pertinent past experiences in the contractual developments of a given school system.

A further inspection of Table XXIII (above, pages 186-187) indicates that a description of sick leave benefits was found in the majority (twelve of twenty) of the samples submitted, while hospitalization and social security coverage appeared less often (four of twenty), and pensions and retirement benefits not at all.
Explicit mention of these fringe benefits in contractual terms did not correlate very highly with reports of fringe benefits actually provided by these same school systems. Like duties of teachers, these may well be stated in a separate handbook of school policies, but become essential to specify in a contract when they are not published elsewhere. The legal basis for this is explained by Edwards:

In order that a contract may meet the legal requirement that it be reduced to written form, it is not necessary that all provisions of the contract be contained in any single document. The terms of the contract may be letters, telegrams, and resolutions of the school board, provided the documents taken together constitute an entire agreement.39

The complex problems involved in teacher contracts in both Catholic and public school systems generally bear further investigation and study. Protection of the teacher's employment security, while allowing for dismissal of the patently incompetent, is one central difficulty in this area.

Policy Books

The value of written school policies for the guidance of school personnel and administrators is widely recognized among experts in school administration. Their usefulness in a school system stems from benefits of greater continuity and consistency, as well as fewer misunderstandings, by defining responsibilities and authority.

There were sixteen policies and procedures books re­ceived from the school systems cooperating in the present study, or approximately one from every two systems represented. Twenty-three of the thirty-one systems reported the use of these books. Some general comment and comparisons with studies of written school policies is useful in order to note outstanding differences, as well as comparative strengths and weaknesses.

Analyses of policy manuals usually focus on the internal elements of these devices—the policies themselves and the methods of implementation. However, some attention is often directed to the physical features of these books in terms of eye-appeal and convenience. The quantity of material in these handbooks, however, is not necessarily related to the size of the school system represented, since some manuals incorporate other material not usually considered essential in a policy book.

Of the sixteen sample policy books the writer received, the publication dates range from 1953 to 1964. All are in current use. All but one contain a table of contents, eleven have an index, and ten include appendices. Number of chapters ranged from four to sixteen, and four books have no specific chapter headings for the major divisions of the text. Twelve books have heavy but flexible colored covers—four are green, three gray, two blue, and one each is brown, red, or white. The remaining four have covers of the same type of paper used for the interior pages. All but one are professionally printed, and this exception is mimeographed.
Three use spiral binding, which makes for ease of handling and referral, because the book will readily lie flat to a selected open page. Five have loose-leaf style removable pages; these have the advantage of permitting insertions or deletions to keep the book up to date. Typical titles were: "Handbook of Policies"; "Handbook of School Policies and Practices"; and "Manual of Elementary School Policies and Regulations." Six of the titles indicated they pertained only to elementary schools.

The general manner of reproduction of the manuals in the present study corroborates the finding of Sister Mary Minolia's study of policy books from seventy public, parochial, and private schools.40 A preponderance of professionally printed books among Catholic school systems was verified. Interestingly, the method of reproduction of most public school manuals she examined was by office machine duplicator, as were the majority of policy books in a previous study, by Heller,41 of manuals from seventy Illinois school districts. Considerable variations in the other physical characteristics of such manuals were noted in Sister Mary Minolia's and Heller's studies, as well as in the present study. Manuals which are professionally printed present a more attractive appear-

40 Berres, Written School Policies, 35.

ance; duplicated versions, particularly loose-leaf types which permit inevitable additions or deletions, are more convenient and economical to reproduce.

The internal arrangement of policy books is often divided into two sections: general policies (statements of general purposes, objectives, authority), and rules and regulations (duties, conduct, specific directives that help put policy into practice). An examination of such books typically reveals a high degree of similarity in the general policy areas covered. The following common elements, which form a basis for comparison and which have been found applicable in studies of policy books, are those enumerated in Smith's study on policy development:

1. General Organization
2. The Board of Education
3. School Administration
4. Policies pertaining to Teachers
5. Policies pertaining to Pupils
6. Policies pertaining to the School Buildings
7. Policies pertaining to the Non-Teaching Employees

Other studies frequently add other policy areas to this list, such as Curriculum, Public Relations, Business Management, and Auxiliary Services. The common types of entries under these headings indicate elements which may be found under these categories:

1. General Organization
   Purpose or philosophy of education, educational
   hierarchy, organization of the board of education,
   legal basis, type of school district.

2. The Board of Education
   Election of members, officers, powers and duties,
   meetings, rules of order, committees, order of
   business.

3. School Administration
   Hierarchy of administrative staff, respective
   duties and responsibilities, relationships to
   school board and to others, requirements for
   appointment.

4. Policies pertaining to Teachers
   Requirements for employment, salary schedule,
   retirement, leaves of absence (sick leave,
   maternity leave, military leave, etc.), hours,
   health, holidays, attendance at professional
   meetings, dismissal, resignation, disciplinary
   procedures, clerical and recording duties

5. Policies pertaining to Pupils
   Entrance requirements, conduct, health and safety,
   promotion, attendance, suspension and expulsion,
   care and use of school property.

6. Policies pertaining to the School Buildings
   Use of buildings and facilities, fees, types of
   activities.

7. Policies pertaining to the Non-Teaching Employees
   Requirements for employment, duties, salary,
   leaves of absence, dismissal, vacations, retirement.43

While there are similarities in areas which are included, differ-
ences commonly arise in the scope and number, emphasis and class-
ification of these topics.

Inasmuch as the present study is concerned with the com-
parison of certain practices between Catholic and public schools,
some of the observations and findings of Heller and Sister Mary
Minolia are pertinent.

43 Heller, Written School Board Policies, 45.
The most obvious difference in policy areas of public, private, and parochial schools found in Sister Minolia's investigation concerned board of education policies—many of the manuals of Catholic schools do not contain any references to a school board.44 In the present study, only five manuals defined the organization and functions of the school board. Four others contained brief references to the school board, describing its relationship to the bishop as "consultive" or "advisory." (Not every diocese has a school board, regardless of size. The bishop appoints the board members, often eight to twelve in number, who are usually experienced pastors of the diocese, though some dioceses include lay people on the board. A diocesan school board functions as a policy-making group which serves in an advisory capacity to the bishop on school matters.45 This is in contrast to the boards of education in public school districts which are the legal authorities for establishing educational policies.)

The most striking difference revealed in Sister Mary Minolia's investigation supports a finding by Heller—the lack of an expressed philosophy of education in many public school handbooks. Less than half of the public school manuals (thirty per

45 Corcoran, Catholic School Principal, 46-48.
cent in Sister Mary Minolia's study, forty per cent in Heller's) include a definitely stated philosophy of education (whereas few Catholic school manuals fail to include this). This weakness in public school policy is inconsistent with current emphasis among educators on the need for a philosophy of education which sets forth the basic thinking of the school district. Heller found many of the statements of educational philosophy "vague" and lacking the essential consideration of the "nature of the educand." Sister Mary Minolia confirmed this observation. The religious schools in her study state their philosophy basing it upon some theory of man's nature and destiny. Many of the public schools on the other hand seem to be acting under constraint, as if striving for an ideal--yet not free to express it. The result in several instances gives the impression that to please a diversified public, there had to be resort to ambiguities.

Within a given school district, policies which could be considered inadequate often lead to inconsistency in other policy areas, since other general areas (e.g., curriculum) may be closely related to the ultimate principles of educational philosophy. Both of the above writers agree on the initial need for some theory of the essential nature of man in formulating the aims of education.

46 Berres, Written School Policies, 45.
47 Heller, Written School Board Policies, 47.
48 Ibid., 88.
49 Berres, Written School Policies, 53.
Problems of policy exist also in Catholic school systems. The expansion and increasing complexity of parochial schools has called attention not only to the need for trained educational leadership for local schools, but also to the growing demands for a clear statement of policies. Obstacles to such a statement are the varying viewpoints on the roles of Catholic school personnel. Diocesan handbooks "offer some direction, in that they sketch the relationships existing among the various personnel in the schools," but they are not regarded as sources for "recipes for successful administration" to aid the sister principal.\(^5^0\) In the words of Sister Mary Jerome:

> Yet every principal knows how little of operational policy there is in diocesan handbooks. The principal, as well as the pastor and teachers, would be immensely helped by a clearer statement of policy.\(^5^1\)

Similarly, Sister Mary Minolia observed that

> the public schools have a clearly delineated line of authority and show a pattern of similarity in administrative positions, including such matters as administrative positions authorized by the board of education, board-staff relationship, and channels of communication. In the parochial schools the general executive organization is not clearly seen. Scattered references to the pastor, the superintendent, and the ordinary of the diocese indicate school systems mainly diocesan in structure with the bishop as the highest and central authority, while the basic unit is the parish school nominally supervised by the pastor, but a principal functionally in charge.\(^5^2\)

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\(^5^0\) Corcoran, \textit{Catholic School Principal}, 27.

\(^5^1\) Ibid.

Problems arising from this vague flow of authority have been observed elsewhere in the present study, and are again evident in the varied directiveness of the sample policy books received. Some of these manuals are designed for use by teachers as well as administrators, while others are directed only to principals and pastors—as guides, aids, or for "enlightenment." One manual was specified only as a guide in the development of local school handbooks. Many of the procedures outlined in others are offered only as suggestions or as preferred practices.

Studies of public school policy books have revealed weaknesses stemming from vague educational philosophies; the clarity of Catholic philosophical principles provides a strong basis on which to build, but serious weaknesses are revealed in regard to the enforcement of policies and regulations. Both can result in inconsistencies and confusion. Both require, for a solution, well-planned, articulated policies.

Messages to and/or special mention of lay teachers occurred in thirteen of the present sample of sixteen policy books. Frequently, these references are rather general in character; but a recurring element is noticed, particularly in recently issued books, which urges that lay teachers be considered an integral part of the school system—with full rights to all the advantages and privileges of sister teachers. This includes attendance at faculty meetings, work in co-curricular activities and the like. Such reminders are probably necessary because lay teachers have
so often in the past been shut out of school policy decision-making discussions—often conducted during sister-faculty meetings in the convent. Policy books issued in the past three years contain more references to lay teacher fringe benefits, such as sick leave and hospitalization, than earlier books. In fact, such references do not appear at all in the books printed before 1960. It is interesting that several policy books of the mid-1950's have provisions for greater centralization in stipulating central office approval of teacher candidates, recommending use of contracts and in acknowledging salary scale inadequacies. One rather recently published policy book candidly states: "We have not been able to be very selective in our lay teachers, and have employed some who proved to be misfits."

Three books have descriptions of the special background needed by lay teachers in order to teach religion. Another book offers the suggestion that schools so organize that children will have a lay teacher only in alternate years. Most statements of policy apply equally to lay and religious teachers alike.

In general, these books are good-looking, well-written, and crystalize a wealth of practical experience in the efficient management of Catholic schools. Their specific failings in defining administrative leadership are interwoven with the traditional pastoral attitude as well as limitations imposed by the method of financial control of the schools.
Other Written Lay Teacher Policies

Basic social, economic, political, and technological developments which take place affect schools as well as other institutions in a culture. The response to these changing processes often culminates in educational policy. An example of such a change is the growth in child population in recent years. The subsequent increased enrollment in schools introduced an acute problem new to most Catholic school administrators—the rising number of lay teachers and resulting need to devise policies concerning them.

As was revealed in the previous discussion of school system policy books, references to lay teacher policies are often inadequate or totally absent. One of the items in the questionnaire sent to Catholic systems in the present study concerned the development and use of written lay teacher policies supplemental to lay teacher references in the policies and procedures book. Twelve school systems of the thirty-one enclosed such supplements. As Table XVIII (above, page 151) indicated, nineteen systems omitted such supplemental policy statements—eleven reported no need for them, six reported they are needed but not yet developed, one was out of stock, and one other replied that they had "never considered" the matter. The twelve samples represent a wide range of school systems in terms of number of lay teachers employed, eight of them coming from the top half of systems so ranked. When systems are ranked in geographical size, the six largest in area were
not among those supplying samples of additional written policies.

It is useful to examine more closely the types of policy supplements submitted. Supplementary written policies probably reflect current thinking and practice more than available policy books do, and those that stand the test of time will no doubt be eventually incorporated into future revisions of policy books.

Noticeable variations in the policies and regulations concerning lay teachers occur in the degree of explicitness and in the degree of central office control. Most statements of lay teacher policies are general and defer to the discretion of the pastor. Some may take several paragraphs to present information on a topic which was covered in a few sentences (or not at all) by another school system. The most frequent subjects concerned recruitment (particularly diocesan scholarships), hiring standards (or recommended procedures if local schools handle this matter), contracts and dismissal, salary, and duties of the lay teacher.

A number of school systems have issued supplementary lay teacher policies as part of orientation programs for lay teachers. Several distribute teacher training scholarship form letters of welcome to new lay teachers, rating forms for evaluation of new or probationary lay teachers by local principals, as well as forms for health certification, lists of specific types of diocesan licensing regulations for various types of teaching permits, and forms to aid local schools in compiling systematic teacher cumulative records of education and experience. There is also a grow-
ing trend to require or encourage local schools to provide so-called fringe benefits for its lay teachers—particularly hospitalization and sick pay benefits. Programs of retirement benefits are little in evidence among these policy statements. Of obvious concern is the salary problem. Little optimism is evident regarding the likelihood of competing with the salary scales of tax-supported public schools. Moreover, there are references to the difficulty of less financially affluent parishes maintaining a seventy or eighty per cent proportion of local public school salaries.

Another aspect of growing concern can be detected in the directives to local schools from central offices which stress the need to improve lay teacher selection procedures. To repeat an earlier observation, when applicants are scarce, a school system's central office and local schools cannot be as selective as would be desirable. Improvement of selectivity seems to hinge basically on improved recruitment results. And recruitment results seem, by consensus of Catholic school system superintendents, to depend a great deal on salary or materially worthwhile teacher-training scholarships and fellowships. Salaries offered to lay teachers depend mainly on the resources of local parishes, without recourse to additional financial aid or centralized subsidization. Determining the actual amount simply comes down to whatever the financial means of the parish will bear, plus the decision (and sometimes the idiosyncrasies) of the pastor. The more pastors must be
"on their own" in meeting such increasing financial burdens, the more difficult it becomes to centralize school personnel policies, because pastors can hardly be expected to follow policies that require expenditures beyond the means of their parish funds.

Beyond the scope of this study, but very important to it, is the ever-increasing problem of financing the ever-accelerating growth of Catholic schools. Appropriately, the most significant increase in expenditure has been, and will continue to be, salaries for lay teachers. Financing the parish school in the traditional decentralized administration of Catholic schools (in competition with tax-supported public schools) is less and less practical as the complexity of current problems forces greater centralization of school administration.

Various plans have been calculated to solve the problems of financing Catholic schools. All such thoughts and plans will necessarily involve the role of the layman. Increased tuition and closing down of some grades have been suggested, but these moves would decrease the availability of Catholic schooling. For those who favor this solution, or where dioceses are forced to abandon a section of formal Catholic schooling for the sake of economy, elimination of the first six grades is usually preferred to cuts in upper grades or high school--for Catholic education "to achieve maximum results." Many beginning parish schools typically elim-
inate kindergarten rooms to reduce the total building cost.

A proposal by Monsignor William E. McManus, Superintendent of Catholic Schools in the Archdiocese of Chicago, contains a plan to increase the financial resources of parishes by requesting all Catholic wage-earners—not only parents—to contribute a fixed yearly sum based on their annual income with due allowance for dependents and other standard deductions as permitted under our Federal income-tax laws. 54 Monsignor McManus finds a parallel in this proposal to public school support by all the people for the common good through tax levies. He sees Catholic schools as belonging to the whole Catholic community and, in justice rather than philanthropic charitable impulse, requiring the support of all Catholics in order to continue transmission of Catholic cultural heritage from one generation to another.

Diocesan-wide school financing through parish assessment is frequently offered as the solution to equalizing the financial burden of Catholic schools. The costs of diocesan school support would be borne by the parishes of a diocese through a tax or assessment of each parish, most probably by relative financial ability. Funds would then be apportioned and distributed through a central school finance office. Beginnings of such diocesan-wide school financing programs are to be seen in those dioceses assessing parish schools a small sum per pupil for the support of the

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office of the superintendent. 55

The problems of directing and financing Catholic grade schools, especially in poorer parishes, are increasingly demanding a solution. While diocesan-wide school subsidization may not be imminent, a first necessary step in this direction might be limited subsidization for selected parish schools which are unable to accommodate the rising costs of education, and where low income makes impractical either higher tuition rates or increased support from local parish funds.

Catholics and non-Catholics as well are mindful of the financial problems of Catholic education. Religious values and/or tax support burdens are among the most relevant considerations to both groups. Thus the tribulations of diocesan school systems have ramifications and reverberations that transcend the Catholic population. In any event, the continued and necessary vital moral force of Catholic education, in the writer's view, must not be allowed to flounder.

55 McCoy, American School Administration, 317.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In comparing the teacher employment practices of Catholic school systems with public school practices, two major differences stand out—a difference in authority and a difference in financial control. Interestingly enough, many—if not most—of the problems revealed in the analysis of diocesan personnel practices were related to these two elements.

The most fundamental difference between Catholic and public education lies in the source of control—public education is controlled by the public itself (the state), while diocesan schools are completely subject to the bishop's authority, by virtue of his divine office as chief teacher. Public school policy formulation and enactment, by law, rests with the board(s) of education, whereas Catholic school boards are consultative, rather than administrative, in nature—they may formulate policy, but the power to enact policy for Catholic schools remains with the bishop himself. The status of the diocesan school superintendent is also in contrast to the concept of a superintendent in public school systems. The amount of authority which a bishop delegates to his superintendent varies from diocese to diocese as does, therefore,
the extent of his duties and activities. The relationship of the diocesan superintendent to local schools is primarily interpretive, not authoritative.

In public school districts, the same authority (board of education) that makes the regulations provides the money to carry out these regulations. Diocesan regulations are made by the bishop, either directly or through the school board, or superintendent, but the problems of financing the local school rest with the pastor. Therefore, the financial resources of a parish may affect the extent of its cooperation with diocesan regulations.

Catholic school administration has been traditionally decentralized. Each parochial school has been semi-autonomous, with the pastor responsible only to the bishop in educational matters. However, the expansion and growing complexity of the parish school has increasingly demanded professionalization of school administration, and has led to an increased influence of Catholic school boards and superintendents.

Among the changing responsibilities in school administration brought about by the sharp increases in pupil enrollment in Catholic systems is the gigantic task of staffing the schools in the light of inadequate numbers of religious to handle the growing needs. The greater use of lay teachers has focused particular attention on teacher personnel problems and the competition with public schools in attracting and keeping capable teachers.
From the present study of Catholic elementary school lay
teacher employment practices, the major findings and conclusions
are given below by way of a general summation in terms of what are
believed by the writer to be significant strengths and weaknesses
in Catholic school lay teacher personnel administration.

Selection Procedures
1. Use of a wide variety of selection practices and devices in the
   Catholic school systems is comparable to that of public school
districts in a recent National Education Association survey.

2. A central problem in the selection of Catholic lay teachers is
   that of maintaining desirable selectivity standards where there
   is a paucity of applicants. A second problem of great concern
   is the reluctance of some parochial schools to follow estab­
   lished standards.

3. Two years of college training is a minimum standard required by
   many of the Catholic systems. Often, sub-bachelor's degree
   teachers hired are given temporary diocesan permits and re­
   quired to complete college work while teaching.

4. Health examinations are infrequently required, and in this was
   found the widest disparity between Catholic and public systems
   in selection practices.

5. Variations within the Catholic systems in selection practices
   stem from differences in centralization and degrees of direct­
   iveness by school system authorities.
6. Central office control of selection practices tended to increase with pupil population and number of lay teachers employed (especially written references, evaluating college credits, and checking practical Catholicity). Large-area school systems were more likely to report selection practices regulated and carried out on the local school level.

7. There is some indication that Catholic systems are striving toward bachelor's degree status for all elementary teachers. This ideal is far from realization at present because of the difficulty in attracting qualified teachers.

8. Where there is greater centralization, many personnel administration problems are reduced through greater consistency and improved standards of hiring procedures. Even where selection practices are fairly centralized, full use of desirable teacher selection or appraisal techniques are hampered all too often by inadequate numbers of trained central office staff and suitable office facilities.

Recruitment Procedures

1. Every Catholic system reported some sort of recruitment practice in effect. Dioceses, however, vary regarding the number and type of methods used, as well as in the organized planning, funds, and staff available for such programs.

2. Fifteen different methods of locating and attracting applicants for teaching positions were among the replies of the thirty-one
Catholic school systems. Current methods of recruitment in wide use include: visits to college campuses; advertisements in local Catholic and/or secular newspapers; local recruitment by pastors and principals; circulation of brochures; parish pulpit or bulletin announcements; and cadet teacher scholarship programs.

3. Recruitment efforts are too heavily geared to attracting short-term lay teachers, rather than toward recruiting career teachers.

4. Recruitment procedures are generally neglected in comparison to selection practices. Efforts to recruit potential teachers are seldom well-organized or systematic, and rely mostly on the ingenuity and initiative of the local schools.

Employment Practices

1. A program of lay teacher orientation was found in approximately half of the school systems (more frequently in the geographically compact dioceses), with a large majority of these being centrally organized. A number of these involve programs in Catholic educational philosophy and/or preparation for the teaching of religion, and teaching methods. Such programs work to supplement the training qualifications and background of new teachers at sub-bachelor's degree level of training, and incorporate fundamental religious objectives. Local school orientation to supply information on the day-to-day aspects of a
teacher's new assignment are left largely to the option of the local school. Central orientation programs are not consistently required where they are offered.

2. Many lay teachers under employment have less than a bachelor's degree, and relatively few have a graduate degree. Difficulty in attracting qualified teachers forces systems to resort to sub-standard temporary or emergency teachers. Several diocesan superintendents report an endeavor to bring their teachers into conformity with state requirements on a voluntary basis (since the majority of states do not require certification of private school teachers).

3. Lay teacher welfare benefits—sick pay, pension, hospitalization, and social security—are typically left to the option of individual schools. Central regulation of these practices was highest with social security (45.2 per cent of the systems), followed by sick pay (38.7 per cent) and hospitalization (35.5 per cent), and lowest with retirement benefits (12.9 per cent). These benefits were infrequently reported by widely-dispersed dioceses, but all the systems did report one or more in effect. Moreover, variations occur within school systems—a few with all benefits provided under central control, more having them at the option of the local school, and still more using a combination of the two types of regulation.

4. As a way of distributing the cost burden of supporting increased lay staff, about one in four systems maintains a pres-
scribed ratio of lay teachers to religious teachers—the most common being two or three religious teachers to one lay teacher.

5. Central office licensing of lay teachers, an important indicator of central administrative control, was reported in nearly half of the school systems, often as a means of clearing and approving the credentials of lay teachers secured by individual schools.

Personnel Materials

1. The application blank, which was the most widely-used lay teacher selection device, varied in design and content in each school system. The majority of items on the sample blanks analyzed deal mainly with the lay teacher applicant's educational background and teaching qualifications; individual differences reflecting particular concerns of individual school systems constituted other areas of inquiry. Comparison with the Worthington Personal History—which uses the application blank format as a projective instrument—illustrates a further potential use of this widespread screening device.

2. Only eight school systems reported use of lay teacher recruitment brochures, when such material could be helpful in facilitating selection and reducing turnover arising from lack of information or misinformation about a school system.

3. Salary schedules compare unfavorably to public school scales, both in terms of financial remuneration and formal development.
of structured or detailed plans. A definite salary schedule was required by only about half of the systems (51.6 per cent), with a few additional systems (19.4 per cent) "suggesting" their use. Schedules issued by diocesan offices are expressly, or by implication, a minimum standard. Increments, as well as initial salary, are at the discretion of the employing pastor where there is no central office salary regulation. Maximum salaries in Catholic systems reporting detailed schedules fall well below (for all levels of training) that of the national average salary for elementary public school teachers of $5,797; minimum salaries for bachelor's degree preparation also fall consistently below corresponding state legal minimum salaries for public school teachers (median 85.9 per cent of state salary). Current stress on sub-bachelor's degree training levels, which is not found in public school schedules, reflects the lack of more fully qualified applicants.

4. While more than four-fifths of the Catholic systems reported use of written contracts, the practice is regulated by central offices in only one-fourth of the systems, and left to local school option in more than half of the dioceses (including the five which employ the largest number of lay teachers). Nearly two-thirds of the diocesan offices supply recommended contract blanks to their local schools. Contract elements are quite varied, with the only common features in twenty sample contracts submitted being blanks for the date, teacher's name,
salary, and teacher's signature. Most of the forms submitted are simple and brief, and are confined to a single 8½ by 11 inch sheet—usually professionally printed. Though most conform to basic essentials, several contain superfluous specifics (better listed in a teachers' handbook or school policy book) contrary to the virtual consensus of writers that teachers' contracts be simple and provide for flexibility in teacher assignment. Many contain general nullifying cancellation clauses, thereby reducing their security value. Protection of the teacher's employment security, while allowing for dismissal of the patently incompetent, is a central difficulty.

5. Three-fourths (74.2 per cent) indicated maintaining a book of current school policies and procedures, with the majority revised in the past four years. These typically contain explicit approval by the local ordinary, educational and spiritual aims of the school system, explanation of the organization of the schools, and specific administrative policies of the school system. Differences stem from variations in school organization from diocese to diocese, and variance in the role of the superintendent and in the authority and directiveness of the central education office. All but one of the sixteen sample books received are professionally printed, unlike the usual office duplication disclosed in studies of public school policy books. More systems would profitably use the loose-leaf style removable pages, which have the advantage of permitting insertions
or deletions to keep the book current at minimum cost. Books vary in their prescriptiveness or intent as mainly suggested guidelines. Reference to lay teachers are rather general when they appear at all; more recent revisions contain more on their integral function as part of the faculty, and on the need for fringe benefits to supplement teacher salaries.

6. Written lay teacher policy statements supplementary to policy manuals are utilized by about two-fifths of the systems. These supplements tend to highlight recent recommended improvements in lay teacher policy. Again, they vary in content and in the degree of central office control. Most are stated very generally, with frequent deference to discretion of the local pastor. Frequent subjects concern recruitment, hiring standards, contracts, salary, and duties of the lay teacher. There is increasing stress on the importance of fringe benefits and the need to improve teacher selection procedures. A number of systems have issued supplementary policies as part of lay teacher orientation programs, often with attention to details of local administrative procedures.

In the course of the present investigation, it became evident that the most perplexing and prevailing problems of Catholic school administrators, in attempts to improve lay teacher employment conditions, concern salaries and welfare benefits. Coupled with variations in the degree of central education office control of personnel matters, financial limitations often consti-
tute a series of dilemmas.

In the dioceses studied, there is a trend toward greater administrative centralization of personnel practices with lay teachers. However, widely differing problems of centralization arise because of such inhibiting factors as widespread geographical boundaries, resistance of some pastors to central office regulation and direction, and inadequate central office staff and facilities. The central-versus-local rule of diocesan parochial schools is a fundamental issue still far from solution. Differing attitudes of bishops, diocesan superintendents, local pastors, and principals also underlie and complicate this centralization-local autonomy problem.

Lay teacher hiring standards are seldom as high as desired, or desirable in some cases, because of practical needs and limitations. The fact that demand for teachers so often outdistances supply of applicants reduces the inclination to make use of the more involved and elaborate selection techniques. And an inadequate supply of applicants often means hiring of the unqualified where selectivity may be reduced simply to eliminating obvious misfits.

The difficulty in attracting optimally qualified teachers forces systems to accept less adequately prepared temporary or emergency teachers. Sub-bachelor's degree teachers are often hired right out of college after their sophomore year. Available college trained women are usually those with lesser income re-
quirements—such as middle-aged married women with children grown, whose husbands are the primary family breadwinner, and retired public school teachers receiving public school system pensions.

Many of these lay teacher personnel problems are interrelated, and improvement in one will tend to improve others. For example, improved salaries and welfare benefits will aid recruitment; improved recruitment results allow greater selectivity; higher selection standards upgrade the quality of the teachers; and the quality of teachers determines whether or not the schools will be effectual in attaining the goals of education.

Evidence from the present study suggests that improvements in many of the areas of lay teacher personnel administration hinge on further refinement and development of diocesan administrative patterns. Inconsistencies in diocesan systems contrast with the more uniform public school districts, and emphasize the shortcomings of divided authority and the need for unified, systematic personnel programs in Catholic school administration. (That such a division of authority has worked without constant and serious friction has been attributed to the common higher aspirations and motivations of those concerned with carrying on Catholic education.) The growing competition for teachers will necessitate more and more emphasis on attractive working conditions and management of personnel. For this reason, specialized skills associated with personnel administration—such as the functions of recruitment, selection, and appraisal—will be vital. And greater
specialization will require reorganization of the administrative structure if Catholic schools are to get and retain competent teachers. Speaking to this very point, Conley states:

The strengthening of the central education office in every diocese is essential for the continued professionalization of Catholic education. An adequate control of minimum academic and professional requirements for each teacher, some type of financial equalization of school support, insistence on at least minimum requirements in equipment and teacher load, and a supervisory program for all the schools aimed at helping them achieve full potential require centralization and authority in a single office.¹

There is one major factor which impedes effective functioning of Catholic school superintendents and the development and coordination of a system-wide personnel policy—tradition. Expanding regulatory mechanisms of the diocesan central education office are of rather recent origin, and the pastoral attitude has not been one of dependence on a central authority for school directives. Obstacles to a strengthened position of the superintendent in diocesan school administration have been somewhat weakened as a result of responses to the increased complexity of the school problems which demand solution. Such responses which are beginning to be made in Catholic school systems concern the greater use of lay teachers, as well as a growing realization that the overall personnel needs of a school system must be viewed as of primary and fundamental importance. The role of the diocesan super-

intendent and his office is judged, by the writer, as crucial to effect the progressive alterations in the traditional patterning of Catholic parochial school administration. Failure to define appropriately the duties and responsibilities of the superintendent creates a "great weakness in the school administrative machinery," and makes it difficult for administrators to carry out educational programs. Specialized training and experience of a superintendent contribute to proficiency, but an added dimension of his having a broad perspective of the needs of the entire school system, rather than only to the needs of any one unit within that system, is also an essential qualification.

Despite certain current inadequacies and disadvantages in employment conditions, the morale of lay teachers has been found generally high. Pleasant teaching conditions, assignments close to home, and the discipline and control characteristic of Catholic schools are positive and appealing features. However, there is need to work toward programs that will develop career lay teachers (men as well as women), rather than short-term personnel. Lay teacher personnel administration practices should be formulated not only in terms of the pressing needs of the moment, but also with a longer view toward the years ahead when lay teachers may be expected to be needed and employed in greater numbers. Diocesan Catholic elementary school systems will, thus, more and

2 Weber, Personnel Problems, 63.
more need to resemble local public school districts in terms of administrative personnel organization and employment practices in order to maintain necessary lay staff in competition with public schools.

In an attempt to suggest solutions, and to capsulate the implications of present findings, the following recommendations are offered:

1. Increased salaries and welfare benefits to approach those of local public schools

   One practical criterion for raising teachers' salaries might be the respective state minimum legal salary for a beginning public school teacher with a bachelor's degree. Another would be at least eighty per cent of local public school district salaries for equal training and experience. Salary schedules in use need to be more definite and more closely emulate those of public school districts in format. Further centralization and standardization of lay teacher welfare benefits are indicated, particularly sick leave and retirement benefits.

2. Organized, active recruitment to meet the competition for the most capable teachers a school system can attract

   A recruitment program should be the general responsibility of a centralized special staff, in order to coordinate efforts and become more effective. Cooperation with potential future teachers, such as the cadet scholarships offered in some
dioceses, deserve continued and increased support. While re-
cruitment brochures are not very extensively used currently,
they appear to need more widespread trial or experimental use,
particularly to publicize the requirements necessary and to de-
scribe the scholarships, orientation programs, and refresher
courses available.

3. Centralization of screening processes to develop and insure
common qualification standards and consistent hiring procedures

Licensing of lay teachers through central office regula-
tion is a recommended fundamental step in centralizing lay
teacher selection procedures. Diocesan school systems should
work ultimately for a bachelor's degree minimum requirement for
all lay teachers. Those lacking in this level of training
should be expected to complete their degree work through part-
time college attendance, possibly with the financial assistance
of a diocesan scholarship program, as some school systems are
doing at present.

4. Stronger school board-superintendent pattern of diocesan admin-
istration following the general principles of public school
organization

The far-reaching extent of modern school administration
emphasizes the need for an experienced and specially trained
professional school executive. A school board, appointed by
the bishop for whom they would be formulating policy, is also
essential for effective school administration--to approve ad-
ministrative detail and to evaluate policies and practices reccommended by the superintendent. Since Catholic school boards are often composed of diocesan priests, this agency could be influential in structuring diocesan-wide leadership and in en-listing cooperation of individual pastors.

5. Diocesan-wide financing of Catholic schools

More complex school administration inevitably means greater expense, particularly where increased use of lay teachers heightens the burden of salaries and welfare benefits. Handicaps in the unequal distribution of financial resources among parishes have been evident in diocesan attempts to standardize lay teacher salary scales. To effect central planning, to permit implementation of policies, and to equalize the expenditure per pupil rates, the need for diocesan-wide financing programs is becoming more apparent. While the transition to system-wide school financing may not appear to lie within the immediate future, a first necessary step in this direction would be limited subsidization for selected parish schools whose financial resources make impractical either higher tuition rates or increased support from local parish funds.

6. Further study of diocesan lay teacher personnel practices

Research conducted during the present investigation has pointed to the need for study of aspects of current personnel administration related to but not included in the scope of the present study. Of value, for example, would be analysis and
appraisal studies of such features as (a) lay teacher inservice training programs, (b) supervisory aspects of lay staffing (qualifications and skills of religious community educational supervisors and principals), (c) substitute teacher service within Catholic diocesan systems, and (d) professional organization of lay teachers in parochial schools.

The upward trend in lay teacher employment is expected to continue, with the fastest growth yet to occur. Current problems of financial limitations and future needs to professionalize personnel administration are quite aptly summarized by McCoy, when he states:

As the need for good lay teachers in Catholic elementary and secondary schools grows more acute, competition for their services with public schools will increase. In this competition the experience and skill of a professional personnel administrator is as essential to the Catholic as to the public schools. This competitive activity must encompass the field of teacher recruitment, retention, dismissal and conditions of service. While the Catholic schools can draw with profit on the lessons being learned in Catholic colleges and universities which have earlier attacked similar problems, the professional equipment of the personnel administrator for these schools must include acquaintance with the techniques already developed by public school administrators. For conditions of life which the layman or laywoman must meet put severe limits on the sacrifices which the qualified teacher can make in the interests of a lay Catholic teaching apostolate, no matter how deep his religious motivation.  

3 McCoy, American School Administration, 274.
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D. MISCELLANEOUS


APPENDIX I

THE QUESTIONNAIRE
Lay Teacher Employment Practices Survey

Dear Monsignor:

This questionnaire regarding lay teacher employment is directed personally to superintendents and directors of the largest Catholic elementary school systems in the United States. Its purpose is to determine the current national status of practices and methods of recruiting, selecting and placing lay teachers in Catholic elementary schools. It is hoped that the respondent will take time to indicate personal opinions or cite problems where requested. Your personal attention in responding to this questionnaire would be appreciated by all of us who are involved in Catholic education. If you could return it with items requested in Part IV in the next ten days, it will be possible to get a summary report of results to you and complete the full study reasonably soon. Anonymity of individual superintendents and school systems will be preserved in the summary reports and in the full study.

Name of School System

Part I.
Please check each selection technique below used currently by your school system in employing lay teachers in your elementary schools. Where general technique is checked, also check appropriate subordinate item indicating where used.

1. Written examination
   a. prepared locally
   b. prepared by outside agency
   Subjects covered:

2. Oral Personal Interview
   a. required to be done in central office
   b. required to be done in local school
   c. suggested to be done in central office
   d. suggested to be done in local school
   Qualities considered essential:

3. Written References Required
   a. checked by central office
   b. checked by local school
   c. both a. and b.
   Sources acceptable:
4. Evaluation of College Credits
   a. done in central office
   b. done in local school
   c. both a. and b.
   Standards required (grades and/or courses in philosophy, religion or education, etc.):

5. Standard Application Blank
   a. reviewed in central office
   b. reviewed in local school
   c. both a. and b.

6. Health Examination Required
   a. checked in central office
   b. checked in local school
   c. both a. and b.

7. Evidence Applicant is Practicing Catholic Required
   a. checked in central office
   b. checked in local school
   c. both a. and b.
   Acceptable Source of Evidence:

8. Other Selection Techniques Used
   (please specify) Where Used?
   (central office or local school)

9. What changes would you anticipate to improve selection techniques now used as indicated above in the next decade?
Part II.

Please check each element below that is currently part of your lay teacher employment program. Where applicable, underline most accurate alternative wording listed within items checked.

Lay teacher candidates:

1. Are recruited via college campus visits by school system personnel.
2. Are recruited via circulation of brochures descriptive of your schools.
3. Are recruited via other means (please specify below).
4. Participate in formal orientation programs (centrally organized) (locally organized) (underline one)
5. Are required to sign loyalty oaths of allegiance to the United States.
6. Must meet «exact» (underline one) minimum state (approximate) certification requirements.
   Please list these State requirements below or enclose copy of them.
   a. What percentage (approximate) of your lay teachers are so certified?
   b. What percentage (approximate) of your religious teachers are so certified?

7. Are permitted temporary or emergency teacher employment classifications less than state requirements. Please list types of classifications and their requirements.
a. What percentage (approximate) of your lay teachers are so certified? ________
b. What percentage (approximate) of your religious teachers are so certified? ________

8. Must be licensed or approved by the central office

9. Receive sick leave pay benefits
   (centrally regulated) (underline one)
   (at option of local school) (underline one)
   If centrally regulated, how many days a year are given? _____
   Days cumulative to what number? _____
   Other procedures (please specify).

10. Receive pension or retirement benefits
    (centrally regulated) (underline one)
    (at option of local school) (underline one)

11. Receive group hospitalization benefits
    (centrally regulated) (underline one)
    (at option of local school) (underline one)

12. Receive social security benefits
    (centrally regulated) (underline one)
    (at option of local school) (underline one)

13. Are paid in accordance with a definite salary schedule
    (required by central office) (underline one)
    (suggested by central office) (underline one)
    Please send copy of schedule if #13 is checked.

14. Sign annual contracts
    (centrally regulated) (underline one)
    (at option of local school) (underline one)
a. Does the central office supply acceptable or recommended contract forms to local schools? _____ (yes or no)
b. Are 30 day cancellation options suggested with new teachers? _____ (yes or no)
c. By what date is a lay teacher to be notified if not to be employed the next year? ________
Part III.

1. Do you maintain a book of current school system policies and procedures for use by pastors and principals? (yes or no)
   Please give year of most recent revision.

2. Do you maintain a set of written policies regarding lay teacher employment in your schools more complete than appears in your current book of policies and procedures? (yes or no)
   (If "yes," please send a copy.)

3. Give total number of Catholic elementary schools in your school system.

4. Give total number of full time teachers currently employed in your elementary schools:
   _________ priests  _________ brothers  _________ sisters
   _________ laymen  _________ laywomen

5. Do you have any current regulation regarding ratios of lay teachers to religious teachers in your elementary schools? (yes or no)
   If so, what is the regulation and why does it seem necessary?

6. What comments do you have on the following?
   a. Current problems of lay teacher recruitment
   b. Current problems of lay teacher selection
   c. What special features exist in your school system in the area of lay teacher recruitment and selection that you find particularly valuable at present?
Part IV.
Would you return with this questionnaire or under separate cover the following items used in your schools. Please indicate if item is not available, using the following code:
(1) No need for use of this
(2) Need but as yet not developed
(3) Current supply exhausted
(4) Available only on payment of fee
(5) Other (please specify)

1. Copy of lay teacher application blank and/or interview blank. ( )

2. Copy of lay teacher recruitment brochure. ( )

3. Copy of suggested or required lay teacher contract. ( )

4. Copy of your school system's policies and procedures book. ( )

5. Copy of any current written lay teacher policies if more complete than in general policies and procedures book. ( )

6. Copy of lay teacher suggested or required salary schedule. ( )

Please check here _____ if you wish a summary of the findings of the present study.

Additional Comments:

Return to: Mr. Leonard A. Setze
Principal,
Nightingale School
5250 South Rockwell Street
Chicago, Illinois 60632
APPENDIX II

LETTERS TO SUPERINTENDENTS
Dear Monsignor:

I am a principal of a public school in Chicago working on a doctoral study at Loyola University. The study involves general lay-teacher employment practices of the largest Catholic school systems in the country. Monsignor William E. McManus, Superintendent of Schools in the Chicago Archdiocese, has expressed interest in and support of this study.

To carry out this study successfully, your personal assistance is very necessary. Since only the thirty-six largest lay-teacher employers, according to the 1963 Official Catholic Directory are involved in this study, data from each school system are needed to give the most accurate and representative picture of lay-teacher employment practices.

As a busy school administrator, your time is admittedly precious and at a premium. However, if you would give some time to responding to the enclosed questionnaire in the next ten days, your time, as well as that of other school superintendents and directors participating, may prove to have been well spent in contributing data to a project that should be of general interest and value to those concerned with the cause of Catholic education. Anonymity of individual superintendents and school systems will be preserved in the summary reports and in the full study.

In addition to your kind cooperation in responding to the questionnaire, I am also requesting copies of certain relevant items pertaining to lay-teacher employment in your schools. (These are listed at the end of the questionnaire.)

Your help in this enterprise is greatly appreciated and, if you desire, a copy of the summary results of this study, when completed, will be sent to you.

Respectfully yours,

Leonard A. Setze

Enc.
January 27, 1964

Dear Monsignor:

As yet I have not received the questionnaire on lay-teacher personnel practices mailed to you on January 6. Most of the other thirty-five school systems have by now responded and it is essential to have a complete return for a representative study.

I realize the press of your professional obligations and business no doubt has caused you to postpone your response. Would you now be able to return the questionnaire? (Another copy is enclosed in case the first is misplaced.) Your return of the items listed at the close of the questionnaire is also most important.

Thank you so much.

Respectfully,

Leonard A. Setze

Enc.
February 12, 1964

Dear Monsignor:

I am sending you this third request for information about lay-teacher employment practices in your school system. Since your response was not found among those from the other large Catholic school systems across the country, I speculated that you may have been out of town or that the other two inquiries have been misplaced or are simply awaiting your time in a pile of administrative work of higher priority.

Because I did not wish to omit your large and important school system from the study, and since such excellent cooperation has been received from other superintendents, I am sending you again a copy of the questionnaire. Please note the request for certain other available items listed at the close of the questionnaire.

Respectfully and gratefully,

Leonard A. Setze

Enc.
Nightingale School  
5250 South Rockwell Street  
Chicago, Illinois 60632

Dear __________________:

Thank you so much for your kind response to my questionnaire on lay-teacher employment practices in your school system.

In going over your returns, there are a few points I have found that need clarification or possible expansion. Would you take time to help clear up these points so that the data may be as accurate as possible.

Please return this sheet using the enclosed stamped return envelope. Extra postage is also enclosed for mailing bulky materials which must be sent under separate cover.

Respectfully,

Leonard A. Setze

A.

B. The following checked items requested at the close of the questionnaire were not enclosed. Would you now be able to send them, or indicate reason for the omission by using the following number code: (1) No need for use of this (2) Need but not as yet developed (3) Current supply exhausted (4) Available only on payment of fee (5) Other--please specify.

- Lay-teacher application blank and/or interview blank ( )
- Lay-teacher recruitment brochure ( )
- Suggested or required lay-teacher contract ( )
- Your school system's policies and procedures book ( )
- Current lay-teacher written policies if more complete than general policies book ( )
- Lay-teacher suggested or required salary schedule ( )
APPENDIX III

FORTY PRINCIPLES OF STAFF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS*

Obtaining Personnel

1. A job description should be developed for each position, identifying the duties of the job and outlining accompanying responsibilities.

2. A job description should be supplemented by a list of qualifications of the individual desired to fill the job, but should be flexible enough to provide for reasonable discretion in selection and for individual growth and experimentation by the incumbent.

3. The search for capable personnel should be a continuing process conducted over a wide geographic area.

4. Information distributed to placement bureaus and individual candidates should be carefully prepared so as to be both candid and pertinent.

5. Care should be exercised in recruitment to avoid any action that might tend to encourage a prospective employee to default obligations to another employer.

6. Selection criteria should cover not only desirable personal characteristics of employees and professional job requirements, but total staff balance as well.

7. Selection procedures should be systematic and should make use of a variety of appraisal techniques.

8. Representatives of the administrative, supervisory, and instructional staffs should assist, whenever feasible, in the selection of personnel.

9. When filling higher positions some preference should be given qualified local staff members, but candidates should also be sought from outside the system.

10. Effort should be made to secure the services of qualified substitute teachers and to utilize them effectively.

11. Assignment of staff members should be based on careful consideration of the requirements of positions to be filled and individual abilities, experience, and preferences.

12. Every effort should be made to comply with reasonable requests for transfer or reassignment.

13. A comprehensive and flexible orientation program should be established to provide for the professional needs of new personnel with varying amounts of experience and degrees of responsibility.

14. The orientation program should be planned and implemented to include consideration of the social, emotional, and personal concerns of new employees.

15. Work loads for teaching personnel should be reasonable and equalized.

16. Teachers should be given the greatest freedom possible in methods of instruction.

17. Physical and administrative arrangements should promote and enhance staff effectiveness in performing professional duties.

18. A definite procedure should be established for the resolution of grievances that cannot be settled effectively through regular administrative channels.

Compensating Personnel

19. Staff personnel should be paid according to definite salary schedules which cover all positions in the system, and which include stated minimum and maximum amounts and provisions for periodic increments.
20. Salary credit should be given for professional academic preparation and pertinent experience.

21. Pertinent economic realities should be considered in developing salary schedules.

22. Various forms of group insurance should be made available to staff personnel.

23. A reasonable annual period of paid sick leave should be provided on a cumulative basis.

24. Short paid leaves for specified personal reasons should be provided to staff personnel.

Developing Personnel

25. A comprehensive program of continued professional development involving all personnel should be maintained.

26. The in-service development program should utilize a wide variety of media and resources both from within and outside the system.

27. The in-service development program should include provision for training personnel to assume positions of responsibility in the school system.

28. Sabbatical leaves for professional improvement should be made available on a systematic basis to all qualified professional personnel with adequate stipends provided and obligations of recipients clearly stated.

29. Every staff member should be evaluated periodically.

30. Evaluation should involve a variety of approaches and be flexible enough to allow for differences in teachers and in teaching situations.

31. Personnel should be evaluated by more than one supervisor.

32. The evaluation process should include conferences between the evaluator and the person being evaluated.

33. Every staff member should have a thorough physical examination periodically.

34. A permanent, comprehensive cumulative personnel folder for
each staff member should be maintained.

35. Confidential information concerning individual staff members should be filed separately and made available only to authorized personnel.

Separating Personnel

36. Prior to a decision to institute dismissal action against a staff member because of unsatisfactory service, he should be informed of his deficiencies and given opportunity to correct them.

37. A specified procedure with safeguards of due process should be followed in dismissal cases involving personnel who have completed satisfactorily a probationary period.

38. Administrative and supervisory personnel should be prepared to furnish, when requested, factual and honest statements concerning anyone for whose work they have responsibility.

39. Extended leaves without salary for specified purposes should be provided under rules which govern the beginning and termination of such leaves and delineate obligations of the system and the recipient.

40. A program of preparing personnel for retirement and helping them to adjust after retirement should be established and maintained.
Current Problems of Lay Teacher Selection

"Attempting to obtain qualified teachers for salaries parishes are able to pay."

"Needs outdistance the supply of competent teachers; therefore the selection really comes down to a matter of eliminating the obvious misfits."

"Inability to judge classroom performance on basis of degree or past education."

"We cannot be as selective as we wish because of financial limitations. An organized diocesan program of recruitment by archdiocesan financing is needed."

"The same general problems, I believe, prevail here as elsewhere: salary, tenure, administration, etc."

"No central office control. No salary scale, fringe benefits."

"With the responsibility entirely at the parish level, (and with our far-flung boundaries it will have to remain so) the pastor who is not concerned with credentials will hire incompetents."

"Age--can't be too, too old. Academic and professional preparation. Health. Interests--adaptability to new changes in teaching procedures. Professional interest."

"Salary schedule and absence of fringe benefits."

"Rural areas very often lack properly qualified prospects; overall lack of fully qualified teachers often means hiring of the unqualified."
"Because of teacher shortage, many applicants must be recruited from colleges and professions other than those devoted to the teaching field. The selection process would be much more favorable if all applicants could be obtained from colleges of education."

"No special problem. Present procedure: All candidates for elementary school teaching must apply in person for an interview. An application is completed at that time. Selection is made according to qualifications--academic and otherwise."

"Since the selection, approval and appointment of all lay teachers is centralized in the superintendent's office, many problems in this are reduced."

"Our need is so great and the applicants so limited that we cannot select, strictly speaking. At this point we are simply eliminating the obvious misfits and taking those who meet minimum requirements."

"Some good applicants have an eye on a last minute public school opening. Difficult to evaluate out-of-state applicants not only as regards competence but possible tendency toward homesickness. Suburban areas do not have living accommodations for single girls."

"Assurance of reasonable years service."

"Attempting to control lay teacher selection through central office when the system is spread over 3,400 square miles (six counties)."

"We realize that we should be more careful in the selection of lay teachers. But with a school system spread over thirteen counties, we can't reach all these teachers adequately."

Anticipated Changes and Improvements

"Diocesan minimum regulations on academic and professional preparation, and a diocesan minimum salary schedule."

"We find the centralization of lay teacher employment to be of great assistance."

"All lay teachers would apply through this office and be placed through this office. At present, the staff here is
not adequate in size to process every application. Since this is so, no binding rule or policy has been laid down."

"Written exam. Demonstration of teaching ability. Health examination. Formal evaluation of religious knowledge."

"Greater stress on content courses rather than education."

"Oral examination by a board of examiners who are teachers."

"Use of central office to accept applications, interview applicants, check credits and references."

"I would hope that all applicants be screened by central office, that diocesan requirements be established on an equal level with state requirements."

"Greater use of oral interviews and by the diocesan school office particularly—which we are not doing currently."

"Techniques now used are adequate. A standard test would provide perhaps one more discriminating check on new teachers. There should be a method by which the superintendent's office could nullify the hiring of unqualified teachers (one or two pastors still insist on their autonomy in hiring)."

"None. One of our supervisors does nothing else but screen, interview, evaluate, and recommend teachers for the various schools."

"A personal interview, careful accreditation and selection seem vitally important. Transcripts help to determine academic readiness, whereas an interview will determine emotional stability, correct spoken English, and attitude, etc."

"Personal interview by superintendent. Evaluation of credentials by superintendent. Certification by central office."

"Some improvement can be made in the oral personal interview technique now used: no solution yet."

"Central office hiring would be desirable."

"Diocesan standards."
APPENDIX V

TEXT OF COMMENTS ON RECRUITMENT PROCEDURES

Current Problems of Lay Teacher Recruitment

"Strong competition for Catholic college graduates by public school systems and, of course, inability to meet this salary scale."

"While we have been quite fortunate in obtaining lay teachers . . . because of the colleges and the history of Catholic education here, we also realize the need for better methods and procedures for recruitment. We are currently working on such a program."

"High rate of turnover in schools where salaries are lower than those paid in public school district."

"Pastors are reluctant to face the hard fact of paying decent salaries. Some, of course, cannot be better. But it seems to me that if requirements for teachers were established the scale would have to follow. Further, a diocesan scale is difficult for us in view of the variety among the parishes--rural and urban, north and south."

"Recruitment is a tremendous challenge--necessity for better salaries and fringe benefits."

"Salary should be equal to public school salary. Tenure and retirement plans needed to give lay teachers a true security."

"Meeting competition of well-paying public institutions."

"Principal problem arises from shortage of teaching personnel for all schools of the area due to inadequate pay scale in the profession of teaching."

"The greatest single problem is, of course, salary. The inability of many parishes to pay higher salaries makes it
difficult to attract applicants with the desired qualifications."

"Salaries and unlikelihood of advancement are big obstacles. In our own case, centralized effort is hindered by lack of personnel."

"We have not yet begun to recruit systematically. We should be doing this now."

"Biggest problem is salary scale."

"Young teachers have the wonderful Sacrament of Matrimony in mind and they retire quickly to domesticity and motherhood. Men instructors see the problem of not rising to administration. State public school salaries highest in nation."

"Inability to offer salaries approximating public school salaries."

"Competitive salary schedule. Presently our elementary salary schedule is based on eighty per cent of the local public school scale."

"The attraction of public school salaries drains away ninety per cent of our Catholic college graduates. Therefore we must concentrate on the middle-aged married women with two plus years of college, whose children are now of school age."

"Not as difficult as a few years ago when the system expanded rapidly."

"Financial problems are the major obstacle in recruiting lay teachers. Our current minimum salary schedule is thirty per cent lower than the local public school salaries. If salaries were more comparable, there would be very little difficulty recruiting an adequate supply of lay teachers."

**Anticipated Changes and Improvements**

"A stronger appeal to our high school students to prepare for parochial school teaching. Scholarship grants on the part of the archdiocese to promising students."

"Lay teacher recruitment should be in control of central office assisted by pastors and principals by suggested per-
sonnel. Salary scale should be adequate for all. Special provisions, fringe benefits should be provided."

"Time element is real problem. However, a program for recruitment on [an area division basis] is now ready for action. Meetings have been arranged for the Spring, 1964. A local center will provide a day for interested recruits, suggested mostly by interested school personnel. The past­ors, principals and supervisors have been requested to send in possible recruits. A program arranged by the superinten­dent of schools will carry on from there."

"Lay teacher recruitment is the responsibility of every­one in the diocese. Our diocese comprises 2,200 square miles. In some areas we are able to get well-qualified teachers, in others we are not. I think local interest in this problem is important. There are well-qualified people in each parish. Pastors, priests and religious must seek them and encourage them to serve in the apostolate of teach­ing."

"We need a lay recruiter who can give at least ninety per cent of his time to this work. I should like to estab­lish an office for this one purpose as soon as possible. Man doing the job now has too many other responsibilities."

"We would hope to work out a program of college scholar­ships for future teachers in the school system."

**Valuable Features**

"Placement of elementary teachers within one-half hour of home. This is a big inducement to middle-aged women de­scribed earlier."

"Teachers like discipline and control in Catholic schools."

"Scholarship program . . . ."

"Cooperation on part of some Catholic colleges in re­cruitment. Growing realization on the part of some Catholic pastors and school administrators that they must approach public school salary and security benefits."

"The Catholic colleges located within the archdiocese of . . . and the fine history of Catholic education in this archdiocese,"
"A number of teachers enjoy the teaching conditions in our schools even though they could earn more with the public school system."

"Endeavoring to locate married women with families raised, who have prior teaching experience, provide them with refresher courses."

"High morale existing among teachers; extremely fine working conditions and relations between religious and lay teachers."

"Parish announcements. Home and School Association surveys."

"All Catholic colleges are asked to distribute applications to interested prospective teachers."

"Close alliance with public school administrators enable us to contact teachers who are retiring."

"The centralized screening and referral of all teaching personnel. The recruitment initiative of individual schools and principals. The excellent response of religious and other persons to references concerning teacher applicants."

"Personal contact with the metropolitan colleges has been most valuable. Visits to colleges to talk before upper classmen of the student body and word-of-mouth publicity. Our service is quite well-publicized through the principals and pastors of our schools. Office of the Superintendent of Schools sent out notices of our services to each."

"Large number of colleges for in-service training. Health insurance plan. Excellent attitude of religious."

"A great asset to the school system in this area is the fact that we have a large number of graduate schools which provide a supply of teachers, as well as a large percentage of the population who are college graduates, former teachers, etc., who are available for teaching."

"Our cadet teacher plan is most helpful. It gives youngsters the chance of a full education and supplies our needs for a time. It appeals to youngsters and gets them early. We can fairly well influence their education. Our move toward centralization is stepping up and makes us optimistic about the future."
APPENDIX VI

SUMMARY OF STATE CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS
OF THE EIGHTEEN STATES CONTAINING THE
THIRTY-ONE DIOCESAN SYSTEMS OF THE
PRESENT STUDY

1. All of the eighteen states in which the thirty-one diocesan school systems of the present study are located require a bachelor's degree for either a provisional or permanent elementary teacher's certificate.

2. One state gives the certificate on completion of two or three-year programs in teacher-training colleges, but sets a time limit of seven years to acquire a degree.

3. Semester hours of professional education required by these states range from eight to thirty-six, with a median of twenty-

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2 Names of states will not be listed in keeping with the anonymity of school systems.

3 "Setting of time limits beyond initial appointment within which teachers with emergency or temporary credentials were required to attain full certification status was reported by 56.3 per cent of all urban districts. The median length of time was twelve months."—NEA, Personnel Administration, 1961-62, 33.
four semester hours.

One state specifies only eight semester hours as a minimum, and relates further requirements to the discretion of approved colleges or universities.

The most commonly required professional courses in education include elementary teaching methods in reading, social studies, science, and mathematics—plus courses in child development, educational psychology, and history or philosophy of education.

Student Teaching

a. In fifteen of the states, student or directed teaching requirements are explicit, usually in terms of number of semester hours. These range from two to fifteen semester hours, with a median of six.

b. One system specifies 150 clock hours, ninety of which should be in actual classroom teaching rather than mere observation.

General Course Requirements

a. Half of the eighteen states do not list any specific general education requirements.

b. The others list anywhere from six to seventy-five semester hours required of general education.

c. Four states leave this up to local approved college programs.

d. Those reporting general education requirements list courses in language arts, mathematics, physical and natural or biological science, social studies, and fine arts.
Miscellaneous Requirements

a. One state requires written, oral, and physical examination for certification.
b. Several states require "recency of credit"--specifying certificate candidates to have had six to eight semester hours of credit given by an approved college in the past five to seven years.
c. One state requires a teacher to take a two-semester hour course in audiovisual education in order to renew the provisional certificate.
d. Two states require U.S. citizenship.
e. Two states require the candidate to pass an examination or take a course in the federal or state constitution.
f. One state requires the candidate to take the National Teacher Examination or the Graduate Record Examination.
APPENDIX VII

CANCELLATION PROVISIONS OF TWELVE SAMPLE CONTRACTS

"... neglect of duty, incapacity to teach, improper conduct of the party of the second part [teacher] or for any other reason which shall be deemed sufficient by said party of the first part [pastor]."

"If at any time during this [one year] probationary period, the Pastor Administrator shall find the teacher incompetent or incapable of performing the duties assigned, he may, at his discretion, cancel this contract."

"... unprofessional conduct, incompetence, evident unfitness for teaching, or persistent violations of rules prescribed."

"... this contract becomes null and void at any time when the Teacher ceases to hold the legal qualifications required by the Diocesan Department of Education."

"It is agreed that if the work of the Teacher is not being performed with professional dignity and diligence and in a manner satisfactory to the Corporation [parish], the Corporation shall have the right to discharge said Teacher upon payment to said Teacher of two months salary."

"The Parish may dismiss the Teacher at any time for a grave cause. Any decision may be appealed to the Catholic School Board, and the decision of that Board shall be final."

"The school agrees that the teacher shall not be discharged without good and sufficient cause. The school agrees to give the teacher prior notice, wherever possible, of any dissatisfaction with any work or conduct. Should there be a dispute as to the existence of good and sufficient cause for discharge the matter may be referred by either party to the Catholic School Board whose decision shall be final and binding on both parties."
"Any violation of the terms of this contract shall be sufficient cause for its cancellation."

"Incompetence, immorality, intemperance, cruelty, neglect of duty, general neglect of the business of the school, unprofessional conduct, physical or mental uncapacity, any violation of law involving moral turpitude, or any conduct tending to reflect grave discredit upon the school--the Employer may without notice discharge the said Employee, and thereby terminate this contract; provided that the said Employee has been appraised [sic] of the cause or causes for the discharge and has been given an opportunity for a hearing before the Archdiocesan Superintendent and the Reverend Pastor prior to taking any official action."

"The school may terminate this agreement, if during its term, the teacher gives just cause for such termination including, by way of example only, inability to teach, inability to control and discipline the students assigned to (his) (her) class or classes, frequent absenteeism, and unreasonable tardiness or habitually arriving at the school and departing at times other than those stipulated by the principal, intemperance, serious inability to deal amicably with students or parents, conduct which may give rise to serious scandal in the Catholic community, conduct not in keeping with the objectives of an American Catholic education, or a non-professional attitude. In the event of termination for cause, the giving of a reasonable period of notice is not required. The teacher may appeal such termination to the Superintendent of Catholic Schools within ten (10) days from day of release, in writing. In any event, the decision of the Superintendent is final and binding. Compensation for unjustified release, if so determined by the Superintendent, will be monetary only, and for the maximum amount of reasonable notice, if notice was not given."

"Reasons for Cancellation of Contract:

a. Professional incompetence
b. Professional or personal malfeasance
c. Lack of discipline
d. Lack of daily preparation
e. Disregard of rules and regulations"

"This contract shall continue in effect until the teacher resigns by mutual agreement or until said contract is terminated or suspended as hereinafter provided, namely:

1. Incompetence or non-performance of duty as provided in school laws or judged by the principal.
2. Conduct that is scandalous to community and/or school,
or morally reprehensible.
3. Repeated absence without just cause.
4. Any condition that may arise that makes it financially disadvantageous to continue operations under current budget."
APPROVAL SHEET

The dissertation submitted by Leonard Andrew Setze has been read and approved by five members of the Department of Education.

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated, and that the dissertation is now given final approval with reference to content, form, and mechanical accuracy.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education.

[Signature]

Date: 2/3/65

Signature of Adviser: [Signature]