

A REPORT ON STUDIES MADE BY VARIOUS AGENCIES AND  
INDIVIDUALS RELATIVE TO CERTAIN EFFECTS OF THE  
DEPRESSION UPON EDUCATION IN THE  
UNITED STATES

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APPROVED:

*Robert L. Conrad*  
Major Professor

*Harold Brenholz*  
Minor Professor

*Jack Johnson*  
Director of the Department of  
Economics and Sociology

*L. A. Sharp*  
Chairman of the Graduate Council

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By

Faye Floyd, B. A.

Chilton, Texas

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Statement of the Problem and Its Purposes

This report includes the results of investigations of the studies of certain effects of the depression upon education in the United States made by special agencies and by individuals. Extensive reference was made to data compiled by W. S. Deffenbaugh for the Department of Education and by a committee of the American Association of University Professors. An effort has been made to make the outstanding facts intelligible and interesting to the average person who is concerned over the educational program of our country.

Primarily, the purpose of the study was to show the immediate effects of the depression on the educational program in the United States. Secondly, the writer hoped to encourage teachers not only to ward off another similar catastrophe but also to make the present educational program take care of the devastating effects of the past depression as far as possible.

#### Significance of the Study

When we consider that approximately two fifths of the crime in the United States is committed by young people; that twenty per cent of those arrested are between sixteen

and twenty years of age; that another twenty per cent of arrests embraces the age group from twenty-one to twenty-four years<sup>1</sup>; that public education in the United States costs approximately \$3,000,000,000 annually while the cost of crime is estimated from \$2,000,000,000 to \$15,000,000,000, or one fourth of the national income<sup>2</sup>; that people commit crimes and are subjected to many other serious maladjustments because their lives have been conditioned by unsocial forces; that the solution of the problem is a more adequate educational program; then we are persuaded that all studies related to emphasizing the need for more extensive and more efficient training for youth are significant.

It also seemed important to make a report that revealed the unpreparedness of American schools to survive an economic disaster.

Panics and depressions go back to the time of the Pharaohs in Egypt. The ancients became so accustomed to succeeded periods of fat years and lean years, that one of their numbers, Joseph by name, developed such foresight to cause his countrymen to prepare in a time of plenty for the days of need that were just ahead.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>George F. Zook, The Child in Our Educational Crisis, Child Welfare Pamphlet No. 43, University of Iowa, pp. 9-10.

<sup>2</sup>Joseph C. McElhannon, "Education or Chaos -- Society at the Cross-road," Texas Outlook, XX (March, 1936), 15-16.

<sup>3</sup>Floyd W. Parsons, "From Panics to Paradise," Texas Outlook, XVI (September, 1932), 25.

The depression of 1929 did not find our country ready for the lean years. When the depression came, the income of the American people was reduced by one half. Many governmental activities were jeopardized because of the decrease in public revenues, and tax delinquencies became common. People became hostile toward taxes and toward all institutions supported by taxes. Then they began to doubt the wisdom and possibility of actually maintaining the educational program which had been developed.<sup>4</sup>

It is hoped that the data in this study will encourage teachers and all school administrators in both public schools and institutions of higher learning to ward off another catastrophe by being prepared, as far as possible, for any emergency. Hewitt and Mather made the following statement regarding the teacher's task: "To strengthen and invigorate the dynamic for democracy is therefore an inescapable part of the task of education in this second third of the twentieth century."<sup>5</sup>

#### Sources of Data

Information contained in this study was secured altogether from secondary sources. Two principal studies were used as references. First, The Biennial Survey of Education, which is issued by the United States Office of Education, was investigated. Chapter I, Vol. I, of this publication contained

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<sup>4</sup>Charles H. Judd, Education and Social Progress, pp. 7-10.

<sup>5</sup>Dorothy Hewitt and Kirtley F. Mather, Adult Education, a Dynamic for Democracy, p. 3.

comprehensive data on elementary and secondary education in the United States during the depression and following period. In this study these data are referred to under the name of W. S. Deffenbaugh,<sup>5a</sup> who made the compilation. Second, a report made by Committee Y of the American Association of University Professors was investigated. This special committee, appointed by the American Association of University Professors, secured data on the problem of what the depression did to higher education during the period between 1929 and 1936. The committee's work was made possible through the support of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The members sought to answer such questions as, what was the depression doing to the college and university, to the men and women employed on their staffs, and to the students who enrolled.

Other sources consulted included magazine articles, bulletins, encyclopedias, books, and pamphlets dealing with the study. It was noted that practically all of these sources made reference to the report of Committee Y and to the Biennial Survey. For that reason, the writer based this report on these two sources and supplemented these data with information from other references.

#### Organization of Data

Information secured on this problem was organized into four chapters. The first chapter contains an introduction to the subject. The effects of the economic crisis on public elementary and secondary schools are discussed in the

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<sup>5a</sup>See ultra, p. 7, et sequitor.



second chapter, while the effects of the depression on institutions of higher learning are described in the third chapter. A summary of the problem and the findings are contained in the fourth chapter.

#### Background of the Problem

The industrial depression began in 1929 and reached the bottom in 1933. Seemingly, there were many reasons for the causes of this depression. One theory which acquired widespread acceptance was that described in simple manner as the "lack-of-consumer-purchasing power." According to Slichter, this meant that technological progress increased so rapidly that the average citizen was unable to buy the output of consumers' goods at the prevailing prices.<sup>6</sup>

In the United States there was an enormous amount of building, both public and private, with borrowed funds. The process of going into debt was, of course, greatly stimulated by extravagant speculation in stocks. The rise in stock prices made many thousands of persons both able and willing to borrow heavily in order to purchase goods. Sooner or later such a rapid expansion of credit necessarily stopped, and when it did, a drop in prices and a depression were inevitable.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>Sumner H. Slichter, "Underlying Causes and Historical Background of the Depression," Teachers College Record, XXXIV (December, 1932), 212-213.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 214.

Taylor presents a graphic description of the effects of the depression in the following paragraphs:

Let us begin with a birdseye view of the United States in the spring of 1929. From that pleasant elevation we see farmers working in their fields. Some are ploughing, discing and cultivating; others are spraying orchards, or herding cattle and sheep. Later we see them gathering their crops and herds and shipping them to market. We note also the automobile of the rural free delivery bringing numerous packages presumably from the mail order houses. The farm produce is brought by wagon and truck to the railroad and presently we see long freight trains creeping overland to distant centers. We see factories, mills, and mines, and men converging toward them each morning. We see trains and trucks bringing raw materials and other trains and trucks carrying away cases of finished goods. These cases go to distributing centers; they are distributed to stores of all kinds and we perceive the workman going to these stores and returning with armfuls of packages. Almost everyone is busy and though few seem to be supplying somely their own needs, all seem to get some share of the things which their neighbors are so busy making. . . . Then one day in the autumn of 1929 we notice a great commotion in one of the larger eastern cities. People scurry back and forth in its narrow streets in great frenzy. The focus of all this commotion is a few little white buildings at the tip of a narrow island.

Soon the factory smoke ceases. Men turn sadly away and we see them gathering around employment bureaus, lounging in city parks and finally standing for hours in bread lines. The farmers, too, go listlessly about their work. Fields go unharvested, orchards unpicked. Railroad trains are shorter and less frequent. The construction of office buildings, hotels, and apartment houses gradually grows less and less. This is accompanied by reduced activity in steel mills and locomotive works. As one group of factories suspend and we see its discouraged employees drifting to beg for work and food, we see other factories which were supplying these people with goods lay off employees and at length shut down.

Such is a birdseye view of the United States in 1929.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>8</sup>Horace Taylor and the Columbia Associates, Contemporary Problems in the United States, I, 4.

The economic conditions presented in this rather long but very graphic description caused the business and industrial world to begin a readjustment to the depression. From the collapse in 1929 through most of 1931, the full effects of the catastrophe were not seriously felt by educational institutions. In 1932, however, the shock came with unmistakable impetus. The impact created grave problems which are discussed in the following chapters of this study.

## CHAPTER II

### THE EFFECTS OF THE DEPRESSION ON ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The Office of Education in Washington collected data regarding the effects of the depression on the public schools and the institutions of higher learning. The most important findings were presented in the Bulletin for 1937, No. 2.<sup>1</sup> From these findings, the following data in the present chapter were secured: (1) the effects of the depression on the public schools' income, enrollment, qualifications of teachers, and educational opportunities of pupils; and (2) retrenchment as it affected teachers' salaries, other expenditures, length of the school term, the staff, and textbooks.

The American schools shared in the nation's prosperity after the first world war. During a ten-year period, beginning in 1920, the expenditures for public day schools increased \$979,182,182. The capital outlay increased 83.3 per cent, or \$217,335,144, during this same period. At the

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<sup>1</sup>W. S. Deffenbaugh, Effects of the Depression upon Public Elementary and Secondary Schools and upon Colleges and Universities, being Chapter VI of Vol. I of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934-1936, Bulletin No. 2 (1937).

same time, an increase of sixty-three per cent was noted in the average annual salaries of supervisors, principals, and teachers.<sup>2</sup>

Effects of the Depression on the Public Schools'  
Income, Enrollment, Qualifications of Teachers,  
and Educational Opportunities Offered  
to Pupils

Schools' income. -- American people have always seemed to feel that it was the obligation of the country to provide support for public education. It appears that even in the beginning of our nation, schools were recognized as necessary institutions for the prosperity and happiness of the people. "The founding fathers stated in no uncertain terms their belief that democratic government was dependent upon the enlightenment of all the people."<sup>3</sup>

During the period when the depression was affecting the schools, the income appropriations and taxation from state and local sources decreased in forty-three states; the average decrease for a period of five years, beginning in 1929, was 13.3 per cent for the entire country. Twenty-two states reported a decrease amounting to twenty per cent or more. In fifty per cent of these twenty-two states, the

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>John K. Norton and Margaret Alltucker Norton, Wealth, Children, and Education, p. v.

decrease ranged from twenty to 29.9 per cent. In nine of the twenty-two states, the decrease ranged from thirty to 39.9 per cent, while in the remaining two of the twenty-two states, the decrease amounted to forty-one and fifty-one per cent, respectively.<sup>4</sup>

The revenue derived from permanent school funds decreased 16.3 per cent from 1929 to 1934. During the same period the amount obtained from federal grants increased 193.8 per cent. This increase was offset, however, by a 22.4 per cent decline in county appropriations and taxes.<sup>5</sup>

Table 1 contains data on the changes in assessed valuation in the United States from 1930 to 1932 according to regions. In this table, a minus represents a decrease, while a plus represents an increase.

From data in Table 1, it is seen that there was a slight decrease in the assessed valuation of city school districts in every section of the country except in the North Atlantic states, where there was an increase of 1.3 per cent. A survey showed that, in 549 American cities, the percentage which reduced the tax rate for school exceeded the percentage which reduced the tax rate for other government purposes during the period from 1930 to 1932.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 6.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., pp. 6-7.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 7.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF CHANGE IN ASSESSED VALUATION OF CITY  
SCHOOL DISTRICTS FROM 1930-31 TO 1931-32,  
BY REGIONS\*

Region	Size of City				Average for all Cities
	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	
North At- lantic..	/1.6	-2.3	/1.9	-1.6	/1.3
North Central.	-5.2	-7.3	-5.9	-6.7	-6.0
South At- lantic..	/3.2	-3.3	-6.1	-7.1	-4.7
South Central.	-2.4	-5.6	-0.8	-6.2	-3.1
Western United States..	0.0	-4.5	-2.3	-3.3	-1.1

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 7.

Table 2 shows the change in tax rate for schools and for all other purposes during 1932-1933.

Data in Table 2 show a decrease of 47.9 per cent in tax rate for schools and a decrease of 39.5 per cent in tax rate for all other purposes during 1932-1933. This decrease did not affect schools in wealthy counties to such an extent as it affected the schools in communities with little taxable property. In some areas, pupils were offered the most meager educational opportunities. By 1934 it appeared that many schools would be forced to close altogether or at least for a part of the school year. It was then that

TABLE 2

CHANGE IN TAX RATE FOR SCHOOLS AND FOR ALL OTHER  
PURPOSES, 1932 TO 1933\*

Tax Rate for Schools and Other Purposes	Size of City								Total	
	Group I		Group II		Group III		Group IV			
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
For schools:										
Increase....	6	26.1	10	16.6	23	20.2	44	12.5	83	15.1
Same.....	6	26.1	16	26.7	32	28.1	149	42.3	203	37.0
Decrease....	11	47.8	34	56.7	59	51.7	159	45.2	263	47.9
For all other purposes:										
Increase....	13	56.5	23	38.3	35	30.7	71	20.2	142	25.9
Same.....	3	13.0	12	20.0	25	21.9	150	42.6	190	34.6
Decrease....	7	30.5	25	41.7	54	47.4	131	37.2	217	39.5
Total number of schools reporting.	23		60		114		352		549	

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 8.

the Federal Government appropriated \$17,000,000 for the purpose of keeping open those schools in localities of less than 5,000 in population.<sup>7</sup> To many people, this step meant a lightening of the school burden, but from others, it brought a storm of criticism because they felt that if the government gave very much aid, it would, in turn, expect

<sup>7</sup>Zook, op. cit., p. 12.



to dictate school policies. Regarding this issue, Zook made the following comment:

In all of our discussions relative to Federal aid to education, we have never thought of using Federal funds for the construction of schools, although we have long been accustomed to this policy in the construction of roads. It has been said that \$300,000,000, which is equal to only three-fourths of the amount marked for roads in the present public works act alone, would replace everyone. If, perchance, our present emergency experiences teach us that school houses are something like the same importance as roads and that Federal funds may be used advantageously for the construction of schools as well as for the construction of highways, the experiment may prove worthwhile.<sup>8</sup>

Enrollment in public schools. -- During the period when the depression was deeply affecting the schools, the school enrollment increased. At the same time, the school budgets and the teaching staffs were reduced. The secondary school enrollment increased 28.9 per cent within the period of 1930-1934. The kindergarten enrollment increased 16.8 per cent. The number of students doing post-graduate work in the schools increased 38.4 per cent, but in the elementary-school grades a decrease was noted in the enrollment except in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades.<sup>9</sup>

During the period of 1930-1934 there was a decrease in the number of cities reporting summer schools. At the same time, there was a decrease in the number of cities maintaining evening schools. Simultaneously, there was a decrease in the total expenditure and in the size of the supervisory

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>9</sup>Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 35.

and teaching staffs.<sup>10</sup> Although a large number of cities eliminated their kindergartens during 1931-1933, the total number of children enrolled in the nursery school ranged from 50,000 to 75,000 since the advent of this type of school in 1933.<sup>11</sup>

The depression deeply affected the vocational schools because an increased enrollment was noted along with a decrease in funds for operation. The increased enrollment probably was due to unemployment of persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen. The decrease in expenditures was a matter of retrenchment.

Qualifications of teachers. -- A survey of 1,117 counties in the United States showed that, in the period from 1929 to 1933, teachers with lower qualifications than formerly held were employed in 7.4 per cent of the counties reported. The employment of low-qualified teachers may be attributed to the fact that trustees or boards of education employed teachers who lived in local districts, regardless of their qualifications. In 1930, only 23.3 per cent of the teachers in two-teacher schools had two or more years of college training, while in 1935, 60.1 per cent of teachers in two-teacher schools had completed two or more years of college work. In the latter year, 42.1 per cent of the teachers in one-teacher schools had completed two or more years

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<sup>10</sup>Ibid., pp. 31-32.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 33.

of college work. Although these figures were appalling to people interested in raising the standards of the schools, it is to be noted that teachers with higher qualifications than formerly held were employed in 27.6 per cent of the counties reporting, and sixty-five per cent of the teachers in these counties held the same qualifications as before the beginning of the depression period.<sup>12</sup>

#### Retrenchment Measures in the Public Schools

General expenditures. -- During the four-year period of 1930 to 1934, current expenses for schools in the nation decreased 17.8 per cent. In four states, expenses were reduced thirty-five to forty per cent; in seven states, the reduction was from thirty to 30.9 per cent; in eleven states, the reduction was from twenty-nine to 29.9 per cent; in three states, the decrease was from twenty to 24.9 per cent; in twelve states, the reduction ranged from ten to 19.9 per cent; and in eleven states, the decrease was less than ten per cent. Delaware was the only state in which there was an increase in current school expenses.<sup>13</sup>

Table 3 contains data on Federal, state, local, and public expenditures for the period of 1930 through 1934. These data are important in the study of how the depression affected the public school, because the adequacy in financing

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<sup>12</sup>Ibid., pp. 26, 34.

<sup>13</sup>Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 9.

our educational program depends upon the establishment of a modern system for raising money and expending money.

TABLE 3  
FEDERAL, STATE, LOCAL, AND PUBLIC SCHOOL  
EXPENDITURES, 1930-1934 (IN MILLIONS  
OF DOLLARS)\*

Year	Amounts			
	Total	Federal	State	Local
1930.....	\$13,428	\$4,141	\$2,223	\$7,064
1931.....	13,516	4,172	2,367	6,977
1932.....	14,453	5,225	2,322	6,906
1933.....	13,316	5,264	2,141	5,911
1934.....	15,496	7,207	2,132	6,157

\*Table taken from Norton and Nortion, op. cit., p. 8.

Data in Table 3 show a decrease in state and local public-school expenditures during the period from 1930 to 1934, with an increase in Federal expenditures. These data are further emphasized in Table 4, which shows the trend of expenditures for elementary and secondary schools over a ten-year period, beginning in 1930.

Data in Tables 3 and 4 show that during the period of the depression a great decrease was made in public-school expenditures. It has been stated before that at the same time expenditures were decreased, the public-school enrollment was increased. These facts emphasized the effects

which the depression period had upon public-school education.

TABLE 4

TRENDS IN EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION  
IN THE UNITED STATES, 1930-1934\*

Year	Expenditures for Public Elementary and Secondary Schools
1930 . . . . .	\$2,316,790,384
1932 . . . . .	2,174,650,555
1934 . . . . .	1,720,105,229

\*Table taken from Norton and Norton,  
op. cit., p. 10.

Cost per pupil. -- During the period of 1930 to 1934, there was an average reduction of 22.2 per cent in the cost per pupil in average daily attendance in the public schools of the United States. The reduction ranged from 2.4 per cent in Delaware to 33.6 per cent in North Carolina. The decrease represented a reduction of 17.1 per cent for the city school districts and 30.1 per cent for the rural school districts.<sup>14</sup> Table 5 explains more graphically the data on the cost per pupil in the various types of schools in cities having a population of 10,000.

Capital outlay. -- Increased enrollment in the public schools during the period of 1929 to 1934 brought about a need for many new school buildings. Data show, however, that the capital outlay during that period decreased eighty-

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

TABLE 5

COST PER PUPIL BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, 1930 AND 1934,  
AND PERCENTAGE DECREASE\*

Type of School	1930	1934	Percentage Decrease
Kindergartens.....	\$ 54.93	\$ 47.01	14.4
Elementary schools.	69.01	59.98	13.1
Junior high schools	93.95	77.56	17.4
High schools (in- cluding senior high).....	122.35	90.81	25.7
Vocational high schools.....	189.21	135.53	28.4

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 13.

four per cent. Within the four-year period, the cost per pupil in average daily attendance for capital outlay decreased 84.8 per cent. In cities having a population of 2,500 or more, the capital outlay decreased 87.6 per cent, and the cost per pupil in average daily attendance for capital outlay decreased 88.4 per cent.<sup>15</sup>

Teachers' salaries. -- In 1930, the teachers' average salary for the entire country was \$1,420. Approximately fifty-eight per cent of the white teachers in rural schools were paid only \$800 a year, and 7.4 per cent were paid less than \$600 a year. At the same time, ninety-six per cent of the negro teachers in rural schools were paid less than \$1,000 a year, 52.2 per cent were paid less than \$400, and

<sup>15</sup>Ibid., pp. 14-15.

34.1 per cent received less than \$300 a year. The median salary for the white teachers in rural schools was \$945; the median salary for those who taught in one-teacher schools was \$883. The median salary for all types of rural schools for negroes was \$388, while the median salary for those who taught in one-teacher negro schools was \$314.<sup>16</sup>

An analysis of available data shows that from 1930 to 1935, there was a sharp decrease in teachers' salaries. The median salary of teachers in one-room schools decreased 34.4 per cent; in two-room schools the reduction was 25.2 per cent; in three-teacher schools or more, the reduction was 20.5 per cent. In many places the teacher returned from five to ten per cent of his salary to the board of education. In several instances, salaries were deferred for long periods of time, or large discounts were necessary if payments were made on time. The salaries of administrative and supervisory officers in some places were reduced by a larger per cent than were the teachers' salaries.<sup>17</sup>

Instructional and administrative staff. -- The number of supervisors, principals, and teachers in the public schools of the country was greatly reduced during the depression. Comparative data show that the number of supervisors decreased from 5,807 in 1930 to 3,683 in 1934, representing a decrease of 36.5 per cent. In eighteen states,

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<sup>16</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid., pp. 25-26.

the number of elementary-school principals was reduced from 13,468 in 1930 to 8,070 in 1934. This loss of 5,398 principals represented a reduction of forty-eight per cent. In comparison, the number of high-school principals in these eighteen states decreased approximately nineteen per cent.<sup>18</sup> It is to be noted that this great reduction in the number of school principals probably was due to the fact that many of them were made head teachers or teaching principals as a matter of retrenchment. For instance, in the public day schools of cities with a population of 2,500 or more, there was a decrease of 16.3 per cent in the number of supervisors and principals. Within that same period, however, the number of teachers per supervisor and principal increased 17.6 per cent and the number of pupils per supervisor increased twenty-four per cent.<sup>19</sup>

The reduction in the teaching staff for the country began between 1932 and 1934. Two years after the beginning of the depression, the number of teaching positions decreased 2.5 per cent. At the same time, the number of pupils in average daily attendance increased 4.6 per cent. There were 27,138 fewer teachers employed in 1932-1934, and yet there were 212,846 more pupils in average daily attendance in 1934 than there were in 1932.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>18</sup>Ibid., pp. 19-20.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 21.



In 1930, 812 counties out of 1,830 employed supervisory assistants to the county superintendent. In the 420 counties that employed supervisors in 1930, there was little professional supervision, especially in the fields of music, art, health, physical education, home economics, and agriculture. The city schools had better supervision in 1930 than did the rural schools. Practically every city with a population of 10,000 or more employed both general and special supervisors who were employed in addition to the principal for each of the buildings.<sup>21</sup>

Table 6 contains data on the eliminations or curtailments in supervisory staffs from 1,100 cities in 1932-1933.

TABLE 6  
ELIMINATIONS OR CURTAILMENTS IN SUPERVISORY STAFFS\*

Kind of Supervision	Number of Cities Reporting Eliminations	Number of Cities Reporting Curtailments	Total Number of Cities Reporting Eliminations or Curtailments
General.....	28	14	42
Art.....	59	24	83
Music.....	67	26	93
Physical education...	23	16	39
Penmanship.....	32	4	36
Supervising principals.....	10	17	27

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 20.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 4.

Data from various schools show that not only were the supervisory staffs reduced, but also there was a great decrease in the number of people employed for specialized service. Table 7 contains data on these items.

TABLE 7  
ELIMINATIONS OR CURTAILMENTS OF STAFFS FOR  
RESEARCH, ATTENDANCE, AND HEALTH\*

Kind of Service	Number of Cities Reporting Eliminations	Number of Cities Reporting Curtailments	Total Number of Cities Reporting Eliminations or Curtailments
Research and testing.....	7	8	15
School attendance..	19	6	25
Health:			
Medical.....	33	15	48
Dental.....	27	9	36
School nurse....	46	22	68

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 21.

Length of school term. -- The average length of the school term for the entire country decreased only 1.1 days within the period of 1929 to 1934. In many rural communities, the school terms were shortened, but extreme cuts were not general; they took place only in certain localities. For instance, in Alabama the school terms were cut in half; in some counties of Arkansas they were reduced by one third;

and in four other states the reduction exceeded twenty per cent. In 1931-1932 it was reported that 1,851 elementary schools and 482 high schools closed early. Seventy-one rural schools were closed entirely for lack of funds. Except in Arkansas, which reported twenty-four schools closed in a single county, most of the closed schools were isolated cases, chiefly in areas of sparse population. The slight decrease in the length of school terms which was reported during 1933-1934 was probably due to the fact that in that period the Federal Government allotted \$14,530,010 to thirty-two states to keep their rural schools open for the usual school term. In forty-two counties this Federal fund kept schools open for forty-two days or more.<sup>22</sup>

Textbooks and supplies. -- Reports from forty-two publishers show that sales of textbooks and supplies decreased 16.8 per cent from 1930 to 1932. Reports from the Office of Education show that within the period of 1930 to 1934 the amount spent for textbooks and educational supplies decreased about thirty per cent; the amount of reduction for elementary schools was thirty-seven per cent, for junior high schools, thirty-four per cent, and for secondary schools, 23.2 per cent.<sup>23</sup> Thus it appears that the elementary schools and their pupils were subjected to the greatest loss. From the data regarding the decrease in expenditure

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid., pp. 16-19.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid., pp. 28-29.

for texts and supplies, it is to be expected that there was great difficulty in putting new curricula into operation.

Educational opportunities for children. -- The results of the economic crisis probably were not as far-reaching or as enduring as the results of the educational crisis because the center of the latter crisis was the child itself.<sup>24</sup> In many communities throughout the United States, boys and girls were denied educational training because of the depression. In about twenty per cent of the city schools, instruction in various fields, such as music, art, and physical education, was eliminated or curtailed. Cities with populations of 30,000 to 100,000 ranked highest in maintaining their former status.<sup>25</sup> Strayer emphasized the fallacy of various retrenchment measures in the following statement:

It is proposed in many communities that schools that can get along with less music and art; the health service has been crippled. The opportunities in industrial and household arts have been removed from the curriculum. The work in physical education and recreation is less adequately provided. These opportunities now being denied to boys and girls are most certainly needed at the present time. It is during periods of economic stress that the health and physical education of children demand most careful attention. In a society in which it seems certain that there will be fewer hours and fewer days of work for each individual, it is of the utmost importance that we seek to provide opportunities for creative work.<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>24</sup>Zook, op. cit., p. 3.      <sup>25</sup>Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 27.

<sup>26</sup>George D. Strayer, "The Rights of Children in a Period of Depression," Texas Outlook, XVI (August, 1932), 17.

Table 8 contains data on the approximate number of cities with a population of 10,000 or more that maintained special schools and classes for exceptional children in 1930. The table also contains data on the enrollment in each type of class, and the estimated number of children who should have been in such schools and classes.

TABLE 8  
CITY SCHOOL PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN  
IN 1930, WITH ESTIMATED FIGURES OF INCIDENCE\*

Type of Exceptional Child	Number of Cities Reporting	Number of Pupils Enrolled in Cities Reporting	Estimated Number of Exceptional Children Needing Special Education
Mentally deficient.....	315	55,154	500,000
Deaf and hard-of-hearing.....	105	3,901	500,000
Blind and partially seeing.....	106	5,000	50,000
Speech defective.....	65	52,112	1,000,000
Anaemic and tubercular.	126	31,186	6,000,000
Crippled.....	93	10,110	100,000
Delinquent, unstable...	55	9,040	750,000
Gifted.....	30	3,883	500,000

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 5.

The results of the lack of educational opportunities for all children in the land are set forth in the report made by White House Conferences on Child Health and Protection, in which it was found that there were 3,000,000

children in the United States with impaired hearing. Among this number, 18,000 were totally deaf. One million children had defective speech; 1,000,000 had weak hearts; 450,000 were wholly blind; 50,000 were partially blind; 6,000 of the 14,000 totally blind children were being educated in public and private schools, but only one tenth of the 50,000 who were partially blind were enrolled in sight-saving classes. Among 103,000 with impaired hearing, fewer than 20,000 were enrolled in classes for the deaf. Only 60,000 of the ages of five to eighteen who needed remedial speech treatment were receiving treatment. Only 12,000 of the 300,000 crippled children who needed special attention were enrolled in institutions and schools. Fewer than 60,000 of the 450,000 pupils who were mentally retarded to a degree requiring special aid were enrolled in special classes. Further need for more education in 1932 was shown by the fact that there were 500,000 individuals in prisons, hospitals for mental diseases, almshouses, and institutions for the feeble-minded. Each year 70,000 persons are admitted for the first time for hospitalization in institutions for the mental diseases, and 300,000 are committed to prison. "These are largely the driftwood, which has not been detected in the school rooms and wisely trained."<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>"Handicapped Children," School and Society, XXXV (April 30, 1932), 590.

Resentment, representative of the nation's sentiments, against the lack of educational opportunities for all children is expressed in the following statements:

There is one resolve which we Americans need to make above all others at this time. Whatever scars must be carried from this depression it must not be printed upon the impressionable lives of children. School rooms must be kept open. Health and social agencies for children must be supported even if we must give up our automobiles and our vacations. There are closed schools while we still spend more on tobacco for ourselves than on public education for our children. Reconstruction funds will help enrollment as well as improve school plants, playgrounds, and parks, as if spent on public buildings and roads. While frozen assets in banks need thaughting, so do frozen assets in school districts. America will rally to the banner.<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>28</sup>"Scars," Journal of the National Education Association, XXII (May, 1933), 146.

### CHAPTER III

#### SOME EFFECTS OF THE DEPRESSION ON INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN THE UNITED STATES

Previously it was stated that detailed data regarding the effects of the depression on institutions of higher learning in the United States were collected and organized by Committee Y of the American Association of University Professors. A major portion of information contained in this chapter was secured from this source. For the purpose of this study, these data are considered under three general headings: (1) the effects of the depression on college income, enrollment, tuition, control, quality of work, and teaching staff; (2) certain phases of college retrenchment; and (3) Federal aid to education as a result of the depression.

Many institutions of higher learning in the United States were affected by the general economic depression, because the academic and economic aspects of education go hand in hand. They are inseparable. Although the crash in the stock market came in the fall of 1929, it did not seem to become evident until 1930 or 1931 that the economic disturbances were so seriously disruptive. Even in these



years, educational institutions apparently had not begun to adapt themselves to the prevailing conditions. In the summer of 1932, the business depression reached its depth, but the academic depression did not reach its low point until two years later.<sup>1</sup> It was noted that when income was plentiful, and when funds were available for enlargement, there was a tendency toward expansion in practically all educational institutions in the country.

As students increased in number and had money for tuition and other college expenses, it was easy for administrators to overlook the fact that prosperity has never been a permanent characteristic of society; it comes and goes.

In 1929 and 1930 institutions of higher learning, in general, shared generously in the prevalent prosperity. The major shrinkage began in 1932. The incomes of the institutions were curtailed, salary reductions were necessitated by budget readjustments, and retrenchments in all phases became essential.

#### The Effects of the Depression

College income. -- During the depression years, income from fees for instructional and educational purposes declined. This, of course, was to be expected because there was a

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<sup>1</sup>American Association of University Professors, Depression, Recovery, and Higher Education, p. 184.

decline in the nation's employment, and necessarily a decline in enrollment in colleges and universities. In many institutions, during the worst years of the academic depression in 1933 and 1934, there was a delay in the payment of faculty salaries, because student fees were the main source of revenue. In some institutions, where student fees were a crucial factor in the institutional budgets, the recruiting practices influenced by the depression bordered on unfair competition.<sup>2</sup>

Another problem brought about by the depression was that of incomes from state, city, and district sources. The largest amount from these sources came in the peak year of 1929-1930, and the lowest amount came in 1933-1934. The drop in revenue in local sources was about forty per cent. In 1934 and 1935 there was an up-turn, but it was very small.<sup>3</sup>

During the economic adversity, income from endowments for private and denominational institutions showed a drop of 16.8 per cent in two years. The decline continued until 1934, making the total shrinkage 26.5 per cent.<sup>4</sup> At the same time, income from private gifts and grants shrank probably more than any other income. This, of course, affected private institutions more seriously than other institutions, because their dependence upon this source was

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 167.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 159.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 169.

relatively greater. The drop of 30.9 per cent was sudden and caused a sharp contraction of budgets in many schools. In 1934 and 1935 a gain in employment was noted, but there was a lag in the restoration of gifts and grants.<sup>5</sup>

Table 9 contains general data on the sources of income and the amounts of income received by institutions of higher learning during the period of 1929 through 1934.

TABLE 9

TOTAL RECEIPTS FROM PUBLIC SOURCES, FROM ENDOWMENT INCOME, FROM STUDENT FEES, AND FROM GIFTS FOR HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF ALL TYPES\*

Year	Number of Institutions	Public Sources	Endowment	Student Fees	Gifts
1929-30.	1,209	\$205,653,051	\$68,604,947	\$144,125,879	\$140,093,284
1931-32.	1,380	199,641,930	60,902,567	150,649,047	108,902,478
1933-34.	1,357	142,861,675	55,533,447	138,257,350	58,647,709

\*Table taken from Deffenbaugh, op. cit., p. 45.

Data in Table 9 show a tremendous decline in the income of institutions of higher education from all sources, including public sources, student fees, and gifts. The greatest decline was in the amount of gifts; the second largest decrease was in the amount received from public sources. This may be explained by the fact that when the economic crisis

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 174.

came, many people, who formerly had made vast gifts to colleges and universities, lost their fortunes or became afraid they might be reduced to want and were uninterested in giving. On the other hand, unemployment and wage decrease resulted in the inability of a multitude of people to pay taxes by which education was supported.

The small decline in the amount received by the institutions of higher learning from student fees in the period of 1931 to 1934 was probably due to a decrease in enrollment, and to the fact that many students worked their way through school by earning all or part of their tuition and other fees, or were aided in other ways by the Federal government.

Data regarding the income of institutions of higher learning show a marked decrease in the amounts received from all sources during the period of 1929 through 1934. This decline was conclusive evidence that retrenchment in the educational programs of colleges and universities was necessary.

Student enrollment. -- When the problem of the effect of the depression on enrollment was considered, it was found from a sampling that the aggregate enrollment was at the highest peak in 1929-1930 and 1931-1932. There was a drop of eight per cent in 1933-1934, which meant a loss of about 80,000 students.<sup>6</sup> It is to be concluded that there was a

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<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 234.

positive relation between the economic index and the enrollment index in the period of extreme depression. The enrollments grew more rapidly through the beginning of recovery than did the size of the staffs. This was probably due to the fact that faculties, which were decreased in economic pressure, were not increased until additional enrollments made the increase necessary, or until the enrollments brought in enough funds from student fees to help pay salaries.

When the enrollments within certain curricula were considered, it was found that the liberal arts drew the largest group of students. This enrollment showed stability during the depression, probably because of the presence of students who were receiving Federal aid from the Federal program during 1933-1934.<sup>7</sup>

When the graduate-school enrollment was considered, it was found that there was a decline during 1932-1934. This small loss in the graduate school was probably due to the fact that, during the general business decline when enrollment was decreased, a number of individuals who were out of work returned to college to do graduate work. They probably remained in residence for a year or more, and their withdrawal caused a slight decline as shown in the enrollments.

The depression seemed to have accentuated the presence of a surplus of teachers. The enrollment in education

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<sup>7</sup>Ibid., p. 239.

dropped low at the onset of the educational crisis. In 1934-1935 it was still twenty per cent below the peak of 1931-1932. Students probably realized that because of the depression, opportunities for employment in the teaching field were fewer than in pre-depression days.<sup>8</sup>

There was also a drop in the enrollment in engineering curricula, which seemed to indicate that students were not inclined to enroll in professions that were particularly affected by depression circumstances. At the same time, enrollment in pharmacy showed a great loss with a twenty-eight per cent decline. There was a constancy of the registrations in medicine, a decrease in the enrollments in architecture, a slight decrease in dentistry, and an increase in law.<sup>9</sup>

When summer sessions of colleges were considered, it was found that the maximum registrations were in 1929-1930; the low year was 1933-1934.<sup>10</sup> It is to be noted that extension classes and correspondence courses showed parallel decreases, while enrollment in junior colleges during the depression increased 65.4 per cent.<sup>11</sup> This was probably due to the fact that many families who were unable to finance college and university attendance for their children entered them in the local colleges where the expenses were relatively small. In addition, many high-school

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<sup>8</sup>Ibid., pp. 247-248.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid., pp. 249-252.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid., p. 261.

<sup>11</sup>Ibid., p. 263.

graduates who were finding enrollment difficult were drawn to the junior colleges.

When scholarships and the effects of the depression were considered, it was found that there was an increase in the number of states that made some special provision for scholarships during the depression period. This was another effort toward alleviating the economic strain left by many contributing circumstances and felt by many families. Primarily, of course, it was intended to provide educational opportunities for those who sought them.

To summarize, it may be said that college enrollments declined during the depression period and lagged approximately two years behind the business depression. It was also noted that enrollments in professional curricula fluctuated more perceptibly than enrollments in other curricula.

The heterogeneity of student population was very noticeable. People were drawn from practically every type of home and every class of contemporary society. They were mixed racially, occupationally, economically, and socially. Homes of lower occupational and economic status furnished an increasing number of students, and the campus represented a wide range of personalities.

Tuition. -- The cost of a college education to students tended to mount noticeably during the depression years.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Ibid., p. 281.

The money with which students paid college fees and other costs of a college education generally came from parents, relatives, employers, or from scholarships or loans.

Finally, aid was given by the Federal Government.

It is clear that the depression made it difficult for students to obtain funds for attending college. Unemployment touched many families in which parents would normally have helped toward the education of the children. Even where employment remained steady, salary cuts often necessitated retrenchment which would not permit a college education. As a result, many students did not go to college. Those who did go often shifted from enrolling in an expensive institution to a less expensive one. Some transferred from private institutions of a distant locality to institutions near home, which fact eliminated much expenditure for travel or for room and board. In addition, many students enrolled in junior colleges.

Tuitions in the liberal-arts colleges dipped slightly between 1930 and 1933, but rose again the following year. The inference is that the depression only retarded the general rise in tuition and did not lower it. It is also to be noted that tuition fees did not drop during the period when students were having difficulty in meeting their educational expenses. Many colleges took care of the students' financial difficulties by making provisions for installment payments and deferred tuition.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid., p. 299.



As a result of the depression, working students were found on almost every campus. At the same time, there were fewer jobs for students because of the retrenchment measures, and many were compelled to leave college or to postpone registration. Although evidence is fragmentary, it suggests that the students' most difficult times, relative to employment, were between 1932 and 1934.<sup>14</sup>

College control. -- When the depression's influences upon higher education, in relation to state legislation, were considered, the main point related to the question of institutional control. In general, it has been acceded that something had to be done, because changing social conditions necessitated educational institutions, and the establishment of these institutions brought about a multiplication of the boards of control. Lack of coordination resulted in the indefinite growth of an educational system in which there was little integration. As a result, there was a tendency toward unification of the educational program of higher institutions. This process of unification was called a loss of institutional self-control by many. As a matter of retrenchment, it came to the point that men, whose interests were primarily educational, divided their authority with men whose interests were primarily financial and political. To some, there appeared the danger that the

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<sup>14</sup>Ibid., p. 293.

educational institutions would come more and more within the control of the latter group and would therefore affect educational policy and institutional welfare.

Under the unification plan, a singly board exercised power concerning the enrollment, promotion, tenure, and compensation of faculty members within the state and not within a particular institution.<sup>15</sup>

The committee of the American Association of University Professors made the following comments regarding this issue:

If, in the process of reorganization, the governing boards of the state educational institutions are included in one of the administrative departments, the position of the institution in the state government becomes radically changed, and the institutions in effect become a part of the executive branch of government. Under such circumstances, the governing boards are subject to the authority of the particular administrative department with which they are consolidated. In addition, they come under the jurisdiction of other administrative departments. Additional lines of control are affixed to them, and the formulation of educational policy is influenced by other considerations than those that might weigh heavily with autonomous boards. Decisions in matters themselves non-educational, but affecting educational policy, may likewise be removed from the governing board of the institutions.<sup>16</sup>

It requires no extended comment to point out the implications for staff members of these various types of legislation which set upon non-educational state officials the power to determine salaries, to establish ranks of staff members, to standardize qualifications for positions, to approve promotions, and to approve of appointments. That there has been a drift in the direction of granting such power to these officials should be a matter of concern to those who are engaged in teaching. The matter becomes doubly important when the drift is accentuated because of depression circumstances and public officials in general are seeking to cut expenditures and to retrench.<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>Ibid., p. 337.    <sup>16</sup>Ibid., pp. 338-339.    <sup>17</sup>Ibid., p. 347.

It is to be seen, therefore, that the depression brought about many problems related to college control and academic freedom. Many educators believe that academic freedom comes about only when the administration of an institution is cooperating with the staff for freedom in planning and in carrying on the program. This means that the selection of the faculty must be vested in the institution, and that budgetary independence must be present.

Throughout the history of the country, certain groups or organizations have sought to impose restrictions, which were incompatible with the purposes of higher education, upon the institutions of higher learning in the United States. During the depression period, the appearance of pressure groups was very noticeable. They sought emergency economy particularly, through elimination of certain educational services. Their idea of economy was to shorten the school year, to reduce salaries, and to close the schools.<sup>18</sup> The activities of such groups during the depression period emphasized the fact that the institutions of higher learning in the United States must be assured of immunity or protection from such forces if they are to function effectively.

Quality of work done in the institutions of higher learning. -- In some institutions, little effect of the depression was noted between 1930 and 1936. The normal program

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<sup>18</sup>Ibid., p. 38.

was carried on although adjustments had to be made because income was curtailed. In many institutions, fundamental activities and purposes were involved. Work loads of instructors were increased, salary cuts engendered discouragement, relation with the administration became unpleasant, incomes were reduced, budget reductions were in evidence, and various programs and activities were limited, altered, or eliminated. It is to be noted, however, that there is no evidence which indicates that the reductions were accompanied by any general lowering of the quality of the work carried on in the institutions. The data on this problem are limited, fragmentary, and subjective, but they seem to indicate that higher education in general did not lose any of its essential qualities during the depression.<sup>19</sup>

During the depression, and since that time, the transmission of attitudes and social values through the schools of the country has been questioned. It seems that the depression brought about major dissensions particularly in the field of the social sciences because the economic catastrophe sharpened the interest and values that distinguished one group from another and led to a great diversification of interest in society at large. The problems in the social-science fields continue to assume increasing importance and because of this fact, college curricula have

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<sup>19</sup>Ibid., p. 127.

necessarily been modified. However, there is little evidence to prove that the depression brought about a change in the work of the institutions of higher learning or in their program. In the data compiled for the American Association of University Professors the following statements occur:

But few, if any, groups of institutions because of the depression refashioned their statement of purposes to the extent of dividing or sharing their functions on the basis of a well-conceived plan. No regional educational program was established, with allocation of students, except as that was part of a state-wide reorganization of public institutions, a movement which was perhaps intensified because of the economic pressures but had long been under way. A few colleges shifted into the degree-granting class. The interest in general education continued to grow. But once the upturn of the business cycle was evident, the colleges and universities by and large seem to have moved into their previous mold once again. There is little to indicate that staff members and administrators did not wish them to resume the earlier status and form. There was but little concerted effort to effect basic reorganization, or to question the program and purposes of higher education in general. The standards and ideals seem yet to be the standards and ideals of predepression days.<sup>20</sup>

It seems plausible that the social and economic conditions since 1929-1930 should have made an imprint upon student minds, but it is very likely that these impressions were not significant enough to cause alarm. It is believed, however, that the depression engendered a new purpose on the part of many college students, and that their interests in social problems were aroused and vitalized.<sup>21</sup> Although there is no authoritative evidence to this effect, it has been observed that students placed emphasis upon personnel

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<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 214.

<sup>21</sup>Ibid., p. 310.

programs; there have been wide contacts between faculties, counsellors, and students; and student publications appear to have shown students' interests in social and economic problems. It is to be concluded that the influence of the depression upon student thinking can not be measured except in vague and uncertain terms.

The teaching staff. -- Little actual want or privation was faced by college faculty members and their families during the depression. The contracting of their budget was, of course, necessitated by economic conditions. The contracting of the budget had its significance in relation to the psychological effect rather than to the physical effect. Many college teachers were harrassed and worried by a constant demand for balancing a decreasing income against a scale of living that was high. The emotional effect produced by the strain may have been an obstacle to the accomplishment of the most effectual academic work on the part of many teachers. This was due to the fact that they attempted to achieve and hold their former high social status with a limited salary or curtailed income.

In many instances, the depression had a great influence upon the saving and investment of faculty families in the higher educational institutions. It has been said that college teachers were impelled to maintain a scale of living that was in keeping with the standards of their profession, and yet they were concerned much about retirement or the

economic aspects of their living after their earning years were passed. Many people ask why members of the teaching profession should expect more security than members of other groups in the community. Probably there is no answer to the question, but it is generally assumed that the teachers' services are unique, that they help in the training of future generations, and as a result, the most efficient people are drawn into the profession. Although salaries in higher institutions have never loomed exceedingly high, a large number of instructors have had a feeling of real security. If this security is destroyed, it is to be expected that the ablest teachers will prefer other professions to teaching, because it is generally concluded that the best creative work, when teaching and research are concerned, comes when the teacher's mind is not burdened with worries or emotional disturbances.<sup>22</sup>

During the depression, particularly, college and university teachers sought to enlarge their academic incomes by supplementary earnings from various sources. Some of the work contributed to the effectiveness of teaching, but many means of supplementing salaries appeared to be detrimental in that the teacher's energy was utilized for purposes which did not pertain to teaching or research. Regardless of whether supplementary work was detrimental or

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid., p. 142.

helpful, the depression increased the desire of many staff members to earn additional income. It is also true that supplementary earnings declined during the depression period, because positions for summer work were fewer and the income from them was smaller. Fewer calls came for lecturers, royalties from books decreased, and the amount from investments declined. The result was difficulty on the part of college teachers in maintaining the high scale of living to which they were accustomed. This difficulty probably resulted in fear and worry concerning the future security of themselves and of their families.<sup>23</sup> It is to be noted, however, that there is little evidence that teachers, in any large number, gave up teaching and entered other professions. The inference is that the depression caused an unsettled state of mind among teachers, but that it did not destroy their belief that teaching in a college or university has compensations that outweigh disadvantages, even during depressions. It also brought to light the fact that opportunities in other lines of activity were even more limited than in the teaching profession.

During the depression period, the problem of tenure was one of paramount importance in higher education, because adequate salaries and security of position do not generally accompany revenue inadequacy. The economic crisis brought about a loss of tenure to college faculties, and in

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<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 143.



some institutions older staff members were urged or forced to retire.

A statement from the Capital Teacher's Insurance and Annuity Association indicates that no college of any size, using one of their contracts in connection with a retirement plan, gave up its plan during the depression. . . . the depression, it may be concluded, made it temporarily more difficult to provide for retirement either individually or through group plans, but it also made dramatic the need for adequate retirement programs and from this, all the upswing of the cycle, if coming, enhanced interest in the problem.<sup>24</sup>

Rank and promotion were highly important factors among most faculty members in higher institutions of learning during the depression. Since the process of promotion was retarded because of the depression, much personal discouragement was noted among staff members. It is to be noted that the younger staff members were the ones upon whom the depression seemed to have fallen most heavily. Many of them were not reappointed; their salaries were the lowest to start with, yet there was a percentage cut in their salaries; their advancement was blocked during the immediate years of the depression; and for several years after that, they did not participate in the upswing of recovery.

The number of promotions of college teachers made during the depression years was made in the upper ranks rather than throughout the ranks. This disruption of normal promotion engendered discouragement among the younger staff

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<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 83.

members, although promotions without salary tended to rise slightly from 1932 to 1934. These promotions probably were made as compensation for the college's inability to increase faculty members' salaries.<sup>25</sup>

In this discussion of the status of staff members relative to the effect of the depression upon them, another thing to be noted is that travel expenses often allotted instructors and other members of the teaching profession in higher education were either greatly diminished or completely eliminated. It is generally felt that professional meetings give an opportunity for academic men and women of similar interests to meet each other and to exchange ideas. This mutual relationship tends to make professional meetings a clearing ground for professional ideas. It may be truly said that because of adverse economic conditions, and because of the necessity of curtailing expenditures and conserving revenues, the American institutions of higher learning gave little assistance to faculties for the purpose of stimulating attendance and participation in professional meetings during the depression.<sup>26</sup>

Because of retrenchment measures, much friction and hostility between staff and administration were in evidence during the depression and after that period. In many instances, this was due to the failure of the administration

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<sup>25</sup>Ibid., pp. 67-69.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 115.

to permit staff members to understand or to join in consideration of the problems involved in budgetary readjustment. This was especially true when salary reductions and restorations were considered.

During the social unrest brought about by the depression, there was noted the appearance of class feelings, intolerance, and emotionalism in various groups. Consequently, the college teacher, who in many instances publicly favored a study of the situations against which the depression victims were directing their threats, and who was in a position to influence the youth of the land, was closely watched. In many instances, his selection and the control of his classroom activity was questioned and jeopardized. As a result, many states enacted loyalty-oath laws, with a concentration in 1930.<sup>27</sup> In opposing this legislative measure, Congressman Abe Murdock from Ohio made the following statement:

Our forefathers realized that good governments were based on freedom, not on repression of liberty of thought and not on bigoted intolerance. Consequently, they inserted in the Constitution of the United States an amendment which prevents Congress from passing any laws which abridge freedom of speech or freedom of the press. To advocate a muzzled press and to pass laws prohibiting freedom of speech and freedom of scholarship would be to repudiate Americanism, to advocate un-American policies.<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>Alonzo F. Myers and Clarence Williams, Education in a Democracy, p. 250.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 249.

The depression made many demands upon the time of the teaching staff and administrators in the higher institutions. Not only were college faculties compelled to carry heavier teaching loads, but also they were requested to give much of their time to public activities to which they felt an obligation because of retrenchment, as committee work was necessary in many instances. Requests for speakers increased, Federal agents asked cooperation, student conferences were not infrequent, and increased employment in graduate schools imposed heavy advisory burdens on graduate-staff members. It is therefore to be concluded that the depression made demands upon the time of faculty members in the institutions of higher learning in America. It must be added that some of the activities were highly stimulating, but that others probably interfered with the creative work of the staff members. It is therefore almost impossible to generalize concerning the balance between the two results.

Another phase of education in the higher institutions which was affected by the depression was the status of student assistants, which in turn affected the staff members. It was customary in many institutions to employ these assistants, whose time was at the disposal of some department or teacher. The positions were, in many instances, work scholarships. In other instances, there were part-time employment positions for the purpose of aiding students as they worked on advanced degrees. In most cases, the graduate

and undergraduate assistants helped the instructors in reading papers, correcting examinations, and taking care of office routine. In other words, they generally did much of the drudgery that would otherwise fall upon the staff members. As a result, their position was important in that they relieved staff members from highly routinized functions and thereby enabled them to conserve their time and energy for other activities.

In many colleges and universities the number of assistants was greatly reduced because of the depression. Improvement and general academic conditions meant the restoration, it should be remembered, of assistantships in many institutions. In connection with this thought, it may be added that the American Youth Administration and the Federal Student-Work Relief Program furnished student relief in many colleges. These students, who were used on many campuses to balance the curtailed assistance, in one way lightened the load of staff members, because they assumed wide varieties of activities and many tasks that might otherwise have fallen to the staff members. On the other hand, these students necessarily had to be supervised. Their working hours had to be planned; schedules had to be made; and time records and payrolls had to be maintained. As a result, these students meant additional work for many instructors and administrators.

## Retrenchment in the Educational Program

General expenditures. -- Practically all groups of institutions had incomes that exceeded expenditures in 1929-1930. The aggregate of current expenditures reached the peak in 1931-1932.<sup>29</sup> At this time enrollments were high, and the sizes of the staffs were at their height. During 1931-1935 the situation was reversed and expenditures were far above the incomes. This condition was due to the fact that returns from investments were smaller, gifts and grants had declined, and appropriations from local sources were smaller and less dependable. As a result, each institution faced a similar problem of financial adjustment. The load increased faster than the funds. The problem was met by adding personnel obtained at a lower cost per person or additional loads were placed on faculty members already in the employ of the colleges, or less adequate facilities were present, or departments and undertakings were abandoned, altered, or integrated with other departments or activities. The prevailing impression is that the depression induced curriculum revision, but this revision did not offset the problems arising for a time from the decrease in staff size and the increase in enrollment.

Library expenditures, following the pattern of the aggregate expenditures, reached the low point in 1933-1934.

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<sup>29</sup>American Association of University Professors, op. cit., p. 184.

Expenditures for books and periodicals moved in the same way, except in a larger degree. However, Federal Work Relief students and Works Progress Administration workers were added to library staffs and partly compensated for the curtailment of library services, budgets, and personnel. Simultaneously, there was a decline in research expenditures conforming in general to other retrenchment activities. However, the decrease in research work was not serious. Through relief programs, research projects were widespread, and the decline in research expenditure was not significant.<sup>30</sup>

Another phase of higher education which showed sensitivity to general economic conditions was extension and correspondence work. In general, these activities were carried on by the colleges for students who could not meet the cost of full-time collegiate registration or who, because of employment, were required to do their college work outside of work hours.

During the depression and following it, there were some changes in the college administration. Because of retrenchments in some cases, probably, a few colleges were consolidated. During the depression, some institutions shut their doors; but there is no decisive evidence to the effect that reduction of income was the determining factor.<sup>31</sup>

The value of physical plants and grounds of the colleges,

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<sup>30</sup>Ibid., pp. 188-193.

<sup>31</sup>Ibid., p. 211.

universities, and professional schools increased during the prosperous years before the depression. When the economic crisis came, the colleges in the sampling showed a decline of 85.7 per cent from the peak.<sup>32</sup> A summary shows that for the entire country, the educational expenditures in the institutions of higher learning declined from the peak year to the low years, 1933-1934, by 27.2 per cent and then rose slowly. The degree of contraction was related to the size of the institution. The smallest institutions decreased their expenditures least; the largest decreased theirs most. This was probably due to the fact that small schools normally worked on a close margin. Therefore, there was little room for retrenchment, while larger schools were able to do without certain phases of their work, such as testing bureaus, publications, radio programs, elaborate communications, and extensive projects in various departments.<sup>33</sup>

In an analysis of the retrenchment program put in operation by institutions of higher learning during the depression and after that period, it is imperative that consideration be given to the fact that psychological factors as well as economic factors are to be considered in the shaping of educational policies and practices. They also carry much weight in conditioning and shaping the thoughts and attitudes of people who are associated in any way with educational institutions. A critical psychology on the part

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<sup>32</sup>Ibid., p. 197.

<sup>33</sup>Ibid., p. 201.



of the public generally appears during an economic and educational crisis. In the recent depression, those who upheld public institutions demanded retrenchment and made increased demands upon those who were connected with colleges and universities, and often the public imposed additional burdens upon educators and faculty members.

Salaries. -- When salary reductions during the depression were considered, it was found that in the colleges, universities, and teachers colleges for which the committee had data, the reductions came about some time between 1930 and 1936, with the heaviest reductions appearing between 1932 and 1934. In the slash of salaries, the younger people in the college employment and those in the lower ranks were the hardest hit because their salaries were low before the depression. When all data are considered, it appears that college faculty members, as a group, suffered a smaller slash in salary than did members of other professions. Data in Table 10 show the status of imposed cuts in six professions, relative to 1928-1929:

TABLE 10

DEPRESSION LOSSES IN INCOME OF SIX PROFESSIONS,  
RELATIVE TO 1928-1929\*

Professions	Loss in Per Cent
Consulting engineers . . . . .	62.2
Dentists . . . . .	47.3
Physicians and surgeons . . . . .	42.9
Lawyers . . . . .	30.2
Clergymen . . . . .	26.4
College faculty members . . . . .	15.0

\*Table taken from American Association of University Professors, op. cit., p. 51.

Data in Table 10 indicate that the depression was felt more keenly by members of various other professions than it was felt by college faculty members. Regardless of this fact, it is still to be noted that individual teachers were called upon to suffer hardships. Times were hard, and many ambitious college teachers were blocked in their aspirations. Yet, it is true that the adjustments which the college teachers were called upon to make evidently were no more devastating or disrupting than were the adjustments required of many people in other professions. It is to be noted, however, that since the restoration of salaries in many professions, a large percentage of the institutions which made cuts during the depression failed to restore the previous salary. It seems that pulling out of a depression is a slow process.<sup>34</sup> Since the cost of living advanced, the pressure on faculty budgets was very likely more keenly felt in the following few years after the depression than it was felt during the actual period of the economic catastrophe.<sup>35</sup>

Teacher employment. -- Drastic budget restrictions in higher educational institutions came approximately two years after the business collapse that marked the country's economic crisis. At that time, there was a general reconditioning of academic finances because of the curtailment of

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<sup>34</sup>Ibid., pp. 49-50.

<sup>35</sup>Ibid., p. 59.

income in almost all colleges. Faculties not only faced salary cuts, but they also faced some measure of unemployment because, as an economy measure, some instructors were not reappointed. Vacancies in many colleges were unfilled, therefore faculty sizes were reduced. In other colleges where the retrenchment was not so drastic, some staff members were placed on part-time schedules instead of being dismissed altogether. In the face of these conditions, recent graduates who had intentions of teaching in colleges found few openings. This blocking of their intentions and careers was partially taken care of by the openings in Federal positions into which many graduates went.

Approximately two years after business began to improve, employment and salaries in the colleges and universities began to show an up-turn. However, the increase in employment did not keep pace with the increase in college enrollment. As a result, an increased teaching load was imposed upon many staff members.<sup>36</sup> Coincident with this fact is the report that increases in teaching hours came along with the additional teacher's load, and that they tended to persist even when the up-swing of the general business curve had been noted. Employment showed a steady increase in the faculties since 1933 and 1934. By 1937 staffs were larger in most institutions than they had ever been before.<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>36</sup>Ibid., p. 116.

<sup>37</sup>Ibid., p. 96.

The depression drew academic men and women into direct participation in governmental affairs. Many problems were created by the absence of these faculty members who had left their respective colleges for public service. Among these problems were the following: difficulty of finding adequate substitutes, disruption of departmental programs, increase and burden on other staff members, modification of class procedures, interference with planned research programs, possible impairment of the quality of classroom work, a creation of general tensions brought about by students' inability or unwillingness to work harmoniously with new teachers, and the inability of the new instructors to fit into the school programs to which they had been suddenly assigned.<sup>38</sup>

Preceding data relative to teacher employment in the institutions of higher learning lead to the conclusion that a certain percentage of staff members were tangibly touched by the depression. Many others were mentally upset because of the disturbed conditions of employment and because of the seeming insecurity of positions.

#### Federal Aid

As unemployment mounted during the early years of the depression, the relief problem in the United States became

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<sup>38</sup>Ibid., pp. 417-418.

increasingly alarming. Unskilled, semi-skilled, and highly professional people were affected.

The Federal Emergency Relief Administration system was created by President Roosevelt for the purpose of meeting the relief needs in all of the states.

One of the most important phases of this relief program was the initiation of an adult-education program which was motivated for the purpose of providing some outlet for unemployed people and for strengthening the morale of the depressed. In addition, it sought to offer employment to people who possessed special skills. As a parallel to the adult-education crisis, the Federal Government set aside funds for recreational programs. Both agencies, adult education and the recreational programs, were sometimes carried on with the public schools as cooperating agents, or in collaboration with college administrations. Yet many of the projects developed without either contact.

In the emergency years, there was a need for vocational training and adjustment among unemployed adults. As a result, Federal funds were allocated for special projects in trade and industrial education, home economics, agriculture, commercial education, and other agencies of adjustment and counselling. This program was created within the formal school system, but its advent was so sudden that it was apparently not well understood by the staff members.

Another result of the depression was the instigation of

programs for parent education and the establishment of the emergency nursery schools. Harry Hopkins reported that more than 1,300,000 people were enrolled in Works Progress Administration classes in 1936, and that 24,500 teachers were employed in the projects.<sup>39</sup> Federal assistance for a building program came to higher education in the form of funds allotted by the Public Works Administration. These projects were initiated for the purpose of stimulating the construction industry and for providing work for the unemployed. This building program came at a time when salaries and other additional expenditures in general had not been restored. As a result, some institutions were "plant rich and personnel poor."<sup>40</sup>

The magnitude of the Federal Government's educational program is seen in the report prepared by the United States Commissioner of Education. This summary of expenditures or grants for educational programs, projects, or processes showed that for emergency education, between 1933 and 1936, the Federal Government expended a grand total of approximately \$119,905,055.<sup>41</sup> It is to be noted that this enormous program was an adjunct of the regular educational organization already existing in the country. The figures are a striking evidence of the extent to which the emergency

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<sup>39</sup>Ibid., p. 391.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid., p. 382.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid., p. 392, quoting J. W. Studebaker, The Emergency Education Program and the College Student Aid Program of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, p. 4.

period caused the government to become involved in the educational policy of the country.

Because of the various educational projects instigated and sponsored by the Federal Government, many functions, which were formerly localized in colleges and universities, were sponsored and carried on among other institutions. Within and without the school system, the depression caused this additional upheaval. As a result, the place of higher learning in the total patterns of education was changed, if not partially replaced. At least, the emergency educational program seemed to have engendered confusion.

According to data compiled for the American Association of University Professors, the Rural Resettlement Administration, in an effort to help farmers who were having difficulty in retaining their farms or in carrying on their work, entered into an adult-education program through rehabilitation and through practical instruction in household management, preparation and preservation of foods, and other family problems. In addition, another phase of adult education was carried on through the Extension Service and the Agricultural Adjustment Administration of the United States Department of Agriculture. Rural discussion groups were organized for the purpose of clarifying general questions pertaining to the interests of the farmers.<sup>42</sup>

Probably one of the most significant developments of

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<sup>42</sup>American Association of University Professors, op. cit., p. 397.

the emergency educational projects was the introduction of the Civilian Conservation Corps in 1933. This organization with its educational program became an agency that paralleled the public high school and the institution of higher learning, although it probably was not influenced by either of these agencies. The aims of the program in the camps have been described as follows:

1. To develop in each man his powers of self-expression, self-entertainment, and self-culture.
2. To develop pride and satisfaction in cooperative endeavor.
3. To develop as far as practicable an understanding of the prevailing social and economic conditions, to the end that each man may cooperate intelligently in improving these conditions.
4. To preserve and strengthen good habits of health and of mental development.
5. By such vocational training as is feasible, but particularly by vocational counseling and adjustment activities, to assist each man better to meet his employment problems when he leaves camp.
6. To develop an appreciation of nature and of country life.<sup>43</sup>

The growth of the camp educational program was startling. The first educational advisors were assigned in 1934. The total number of companies in 1936 exceeded by 463 the total number of institutions of higher learning listed in the Educational Directory for 1936. The total enrollment of these camps at that same time was 25.6 per cent of the total enrollment in institutions of higher learning for the entire United States in 1932.<sup>44</sup> The importance of the rise of this educational agency was emphasized by its seeming

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<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 400.

<sup>44</sup>Ibid., p. 402.



success in training young men for participation in everyday life. If this apparent success should become permanent, it seems that the methods and the curriculum employed in this new educational movement would be a challenge to the formal schools of the country.

To summarize, it may be said that the depression created many problems for youth, and that the Civilian Conservation Corps was organized for the purpose of meeting the problems. As a result, it has become a new influence in the educational set-up of the United States.

No one can believe that the college and the university will remain untouched and unchanged by the transformations in the social and economic life that lie ahead. New circumstances will produce new needs, educationally as well as in other spheres of life. They did so during the depression, and they will do so even in normal times in the future. Even a cursory survey of some of the educational activities that were given emphasis during the depression reveals possibilities that cannot be ignored when the "education of the future" is being considered. In the long run government always assumes a major responsibility for unemployed youth. When young people are not absorbed in industry or agriculture, they must be cared for in other ways. How is this responsibility, which is likely to grow greater, to be met in the years ahead? In the past, resort has always been to some type of educational program. Is it not probable that the emergency experience with adult education and in the C. C. C. project will constitute affirmative prediction? It is not implied that the programs of today will continue in their present form, for that is unlikely. It is, rather, that they have engendered an idea that may permeate the entire pattern of education and result in transformations that at the present time are but vaguely discernible.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>45</sup>Ibid., p. 412.

President Roosevelt created the National Youth Administration in 1935. The purpose was to meet the needs of approximately 4,000,000 youth not attending school or not regularly employed. On the basis of a nine-month program, the Federal Government's expenditure in this college-aid activity was approximately \$14,750,000 during 1935-1936.<sup>46</sup> According to figures for 1935, 1,602 colleges participated in the project and gave aid to 104,501 students.<sup>47</sup>

The Civil Works Administration was established in 1933. Its purpose was to foster such service enterprises as surveys, educational projects, recreational programs, and construction projects which involved Federal expenditure on permanent improvements throughout the nation. Various institutions of higher learning sponsored both types of projects, and specialized in projects on the campus which demanded many skilled workers.<sup>48</sup>

When all of the data were considered, it was concluded that because of the depression, efforts were made to remove people from the relief lines and to place them on projects sponsored by the Federal Government. Many people seemed to believe that the projects, which were of a research nature, were ill-conceived and ill-advised. The spirit of research was clearly violated.<sup>49</sup> In addition, selfishness probably

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<sup>46</sup>Ibid., p. 379.

<sup>47</sup>Ibid., p. 378.

<sup>48</sup>Ibid., pp. 382-383.

<sup>49</sup>Ibid., p. 384.

prompted certain communities to obtain shares of the funds that were coming from the treasury in Washington for the purposes of questionable merit. An accusation was made that some institutions, which were not equipped to carry on research, regarded the Federal aid as an opportunity to do something that might enhance their reputation, and they therefore began research projects which were not truly research.<sup>50</sup>

To summarize data on the Federal Government's aid to higher education, it appears that some believed there was a danger of undermining standards of research due to circumstances and conditions by which the activities were carried on through relief programs. As a result, it was feared that the public would react unfavorably to research work because of the research done on the emergency projects. The essential point is that although there were inestimable gains from the Federal aid to public higher education, it was feared by many that those gains might be accompanied by activities that would end in undesirable attitudes.

Table 11 contains data on the Federal expenditures for education for the period of 1933 through 1936.

The centralization of governmental functions was evident in the relation of the Federal Government to higher education. The economic catastrophe caused those who had

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<sup>50</sup>Ibid., p. 385.

<sup>51</sup>Ibid., p. 387.

TABLE 11

## FEDERAL EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION, 1933-1936\*

Administered by Relief Agencies	Emergency Fund	Administered Through Federal, State, and Local Educational Agencies	Emergency Fund
<p>1. Adult education and nursery schools administered by FERA and now transferred to WPA:</p> <p>a. Expenditures under FERA, July to June 30, 1935.....</p> <p>b. Grants authorized by FERA, July to Sept. 30, 1935.....</p> <p>c. Estimated cost of program under WPA, Dec., 1935, to April 30, 1936.....</p> <p>2. Rural school continuation administered by FERA, now transferred to NYA: Feb, 1934, to June 30, 1935.</p> <p>3. College student aid, administered by FERA, now transferred to NYA:</p> <p>a. Expenditures under FERA, Nov., 1933, to June 30, 1936..</p>	<p>\$27,455,457</p> <p>7,546,500</p> <p>12,500,000</p> <p>21,500,000</p> <p>14,983,432</p>	<p>1. CCC educational program, administered by the U. S. Office of Education direct to the camps:</p> <p>a. Expenditures, January, 1934, to Sept. 30, 1935.</p> <p>b. Estimated cost of program, Oct. 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936.....</p> <p>2. Federal projects authorized to be administered by the Office of Education, Dec. 15, 1935:</p> <p>a. Research in universities.....</p> <p>b. Vocational education and guidance for Negroes</p> <p>c. Public forums...</p> <p>d. Educational radio programs....</p> <p>e. Survey of school units....</p>	<p>\$3,389,653</p> <p>500,000</p> <p>234,934</p> <p>330,320</p> <p>75,000</p> <p>844,602</p>

TABLE 11 -- Continued

Administered by Relief Agencies	Emergency Fund	Administered Through Federal, State, and Local Educational Agencies	Emergency Fund
b. Grants authorized by NYA for high school, college, and graduate student aid, Sept., 1935, to June 30, 1936....	\$25,581,636		
4. Educational camps for women, administered by FERA, now transferred to NYA:			
a. Grants made for summer of 1934...	96,000		
b. Grants made for summer and fall of 1935.....	250,000		
Totals.....	\$109,913,025		\$ 9,992,030 \$119,905,055

\*Table taken from American Association of University Professors, op. cit., p. 393.

charge of local affairs, to turn to the Federal Government for aid. In addition, when local resources did not provide revenue for the schools, the Federal Government offered aid.

It is not unlikely that the future historian will discuss federal aid to higher education in terms of periods, and that one significant division point will be dated as 1932. It was shortly thereafter that the federal government began to make its grants involving all higher educational institutions, through a student

work-relief program. It was soon thereafter, too, that relief and emergency needs began to blend with educational needs, and it became increasingly difficult to evaluate activities as clearly one or the other. Some educational purposes were furthered through the use of relief funds; relief needs were met in part by utilizing the facilities of educational institutions, and sponsoring educational programs.<sup>52</sup>

Many people feared that assistance from the Federal Government would end in Federal domination of educational activities in the institutions of higher learning. Some believed that the powers conferred on the Federal Government could lead to abuse if the Administration were disposed to use the powers to that end.<sup>53</sup> The Federal Government has gradually extended the number of fields in which it made possible additional activities. Coinciding with this extension, there was a close explicitness and inclusiveness in the statement of purposes for which the appropriations were to be used.

Preceding data regarding Federal aid leads to the conclusion that the Federal Government became deeply involved in the educational program of the nation during the emergency period. They also indicate that, during the depression period, the Federal Government participated in activities that previously were regarded as primarily local.

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<sup>52</sup>Ibid., p. 355.

<sup>53</sup>Ibid., p. 362.

## CHAPTER IV

### SUMMARY AND FINDINGS

#### Summary

This report was concerned with the effects of the depression on public education, both in the elementary and secondary schools and in the institutions of higher learning in the United States. An effort has been made to describe, briefly, certain studies that were made on the status of the public schools, colleges, and universities during the depression.

#### Findings

Data in this study revealed the following findings on the effects of the depression on the elementary and secondary public schools:

1. The schools shared abundantly in the pre-depression prosperity.
2. The economic crisis resulted in a reduction of the schools' income.
3. The public schools' enrollment increased at the same time that the school budgets and the teaching staffs were reduced.

4. There was a general tendency to employ teachers with higher qualifications than had been previously required, although in various localities there were many exceptions to this tendency.

5. A great reduction in expenditures was noted.

6. Per-pupil cost decreased.

7. Capital outlay was reduced.

8. Teachers' salaries, as well as salaries of supervisors and administrators, were reduced.

9. There was a decrease in the size of the instructional and administrative staff.

10. A curtailment in supervisory services was noted.

11. The length of the school term was slightly shortened in many places.

12. Funds for textbooks and supplies were reduced.

An analysis of data secured in this investigation revealed the following findings relative to the effects of the depression on the institutions of higher learning:

1. The depression was a potentially disruptive force. Its effects were not seriously felt by the colleges and universities for about two years. Then they produced a change in the character of the institutions of higher learning. Practically every aspect of their work was affected -- their faculty, their students, their organization, their methods, their teaching, and their research.

2. Practically all staff members were confronted with



salary cuts, and many were dismissed from their positions; graduates were unable to secure positions after graduation.

3. Less than one half of the institutions in which salary reductions were made because of the depression had made full restoration by 1936.

4. Except at the lowest rank, aggregate employment held its level, and has since moved to a new high point.

5. Relatively speaking, college faculty members had greater security of employment than their colleagues in many related professions, or the workers in white-collar and unskilled groups; of course, there were exceptions.

6. Promotion and salary advancement were blocked for large numbers of men and women, although competition for the ablest and most promising scholars still continued.

7. Young teachers were dropped from faculties at institutions. Simultaneously, the professors in the upper academic ranks were only cut in salary to a medium degree.

8. Tenure conditions were adversely affected in certain instances, and some retirements were forced where humane considerations alone would have dictated an opposite course of behavior.

9. Little actual want or privation was faced by college and university faculty members.

10. As a group, faculty members suffered a smaller reduction in salary than did members of other professions.

11. Tuition costs, in general, rose and the depression

served to make more complicated financial problems for students, especially those who in some measure were dependent upon their families for finances. Other students found difficulty in employment and were necessarily affected by the rise in tuition charges.

12. Enrollments declined during the educational depression.

13. The Federal Government participated widely in the educational activities of institutions of higher learning.

14. There was a tremendous decline in the income of colleges and universities.

15. Tuition dipped slightly.

16. There was a tendency toward unification of the educational programs in all colleges and universities under one head.

17. No general lowering of standards of work were noted, although the load increased faster than funds for handling it increased.

18. A decline in the value of physical plants was noted.

19. All educational expenditures declined.

An analysis of data in this study revealed the following general findings:

1. Although many schools were temporarily harmed, and many children suffered educational deprivations, it is

generally concluded that the depression called attention to the weakness in state plans for school support.

2. Revision in plans of school finance, since the economic crisis, indicates that many schools benefited from the depression in a way that will be permanent, while they suffered only temporarily. Of course, the latter statement has reference to the physical retrenchment measures and not to the mental, moral, or emotional effects of the depression. Probably only time will reveal those effects.

3. The gains brought about by the economic crisis include a re-evaluation of educational programs with an effort toward building a sane national program.

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