

THE EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF WOMAN
AND ITS RELATION TO PROFESSIONAL
REWARD, ESPECIALLY IN OKLAHOMA

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REWARD, ESPECIALLY IN OKLAHOMA

By

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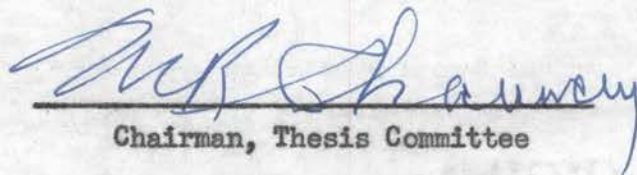
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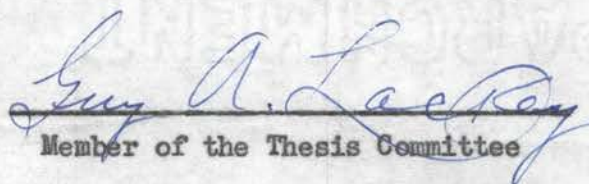
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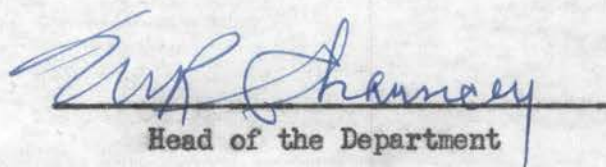
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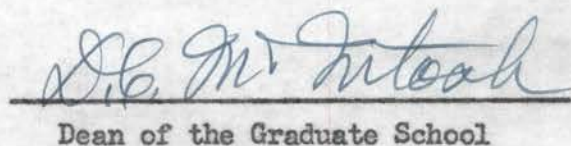
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PREFACE

The question of Education for Woman has long been of interest to the writer. It has been of increasing interest during the last few years when so much has been written and talked concerning woman's place in a war time world. Much has been said concerning woman's right to work and her right to higher education. There has been much discussion as to whether the woman who left her home for war work would return to her home with the return of peace. The press gave much publicity to the woman who took "a man's place" during the emergency. All of these factors entered into the increased interest of the writer.

Still another factor in the interest was the writer's own decision to do advanced college work. Her association with men and women on the advanced levels quickened the interest which had been stirred by a study of early philosophies of education and their application to the education of woman.

She is deeply indebted to Dr. Marvin Ray Chauncey, Dr. Millard Scherich, and Mr. Guy A. Lackey, all of Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, at Stillwater, Oklahoma, for their encouragement and guidance. She is very grateful to Mr. A. L. Crable and the other officials of the Oklahoma State Board of Education who facilitated the gathering of data from the state files. She is appreciative too of the co-operation of the various schools which supplied certain data very promptly and courteously. Without the help of all these people, this study could not have been completed.

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CHAPTER I

NEED AND PURPOSE FOR THE STUDY

A. Introduction

The education of woman is by no means a new problem. Rather, it is a problem as old as civilization itself.

One of the most significant social changes in the long history of the world has been the change in woman's social position. In the earliest days, woman was secluded from the world by so-called "divine ordination." She belonged to an economically favored class; she was bound and restricted in all phases of her development. As mankind progressed, however, and changes developed in the economic structure of society, there came an expanding liberalness in thinking which made it increasingly difficult to keep one half of mankind in subjection to the other. So too, did education of woman undergo a parallel change. Such educational change was not a primary movement, but rather an accompanying movement which developed as social concepts and beliefs changed and developed. When man opposed higher education for woman on the ground that it "imperilled the social order", he was forgetful of the fact that the social order was already imperilled by other and more profoundly disturbing changes.¹ Although woman's place in the world changed rapidly, especially during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, woman is not yet accorded equality by man. In recent months agitation against woman in industry has reached a new peak and many newspaper and magazine articles are now appearing on the subject under such titles as "Getting Rid of the Woman", an article by A. G. Mezerik, which appeared in a recent Atlantic Monthly.

¹ Thomas Woody, "Education of Women", Encyclopedia of Educational Research, p. 407.

In this article, he states:

The Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor recently received a letter that ended: "Wishing you success in your work and hoping for the day when woman may relax and stay in her beloved kitchen." The writer was not a woman hater and not a mossback. On the contrary, he was young and blithe in his assurance that "every woman is bursting with eagerness to leave her job and get back to her apron." He is echoing a sentiment which is rising all too rapidly among male workers.²

The old cry "a woman's place is in the home" is rising to high levels! The future of woman in industry is being jeopardized. In the surge of returning peace hysteria, woman has been quoted as wanting to return to her home and to being loved and protected. Even women, the few, in executive positions have long accepted as a fact the condition that men carrying equal responsibilities will get more money. R. J. Thomas, president of the United Automobile Workers, says that "women have not yet, in the mass-production industries, shown any real sense of responsibility in fighting for their own needs."³ Polls now show that two out of every three women war workers now want to continue on their jobs, but the damage has been done. The public has absorbed the idea that woman will move voluntarily out of industry.⁵

Another old conception is that certain jobs are man's work and others are woman's. The United States Department of Labor lists 1500 types of industrial jobs, 1050 of which they say woman can do as well as

² A. G. Mezerik, "Getting Rid of the Women," Atlantic Monthly, vol. 175, p. 79.

³ Loc. Cit.

⁴ Ibid., p. 80.

⁵ Loc. Cit.

man, and 380 more of which are partly suitable for woman.⁶ Frederick S. Crawford, chairman of the board of the National Association of Manufacturers, says "From a humanitarian point of view, too many women should not stay in the labor force. The home is the basic American unit." Yet in England, where women have been drafted for work for a long period, the birth rate has gone up.⁷

Some women will return to their homes; many of the younger will return to school.⁸

Woman has long been treated as a minority group in the population, yet 53 per cent of the voters in America in 1942 were women, and census figures show that actually man is the minority group today.⁹ However, man still considers woman as a favored economic class, to be kept nicely to reflect the success of the male.¹⁰

B. The Need and Purpose of the Study

In the light of current wide spread interest in the working woman, her abilities, her intelligence, and her need and desire to continue in the working world, it is evident that a study of the history of education for woman and her present status in industry, the professions, and education is needed. It is the purpose of this study to summarize previous research relative to the education of woman; to survey the development

⁶ A. G. Mezerik, Op. Cit., p. 80.

⁷ Ibid., p. 82.

⁸ Loc. Cit.

⁹ Ibid., p. 83.

¹⁰ Loc. Cit.

of education for woman; to consider controversial issues in the education of woman; to relate the present status of education of woman in this country to her status in other countries; to review briefly the present economic and marital status of the educated woman; and finally to survey actual conditions in the Oklahoma schools relative to the position of woman with respect to higher education and the rewards of administrative and directive positions within the schools.

C. Definition of Terms

The term "higher education" refers to work on the standard college level. This would include work at the bachelor level, the master level, and the doctorate level. No distinction is made between the bachelor of arts and the bachelor of science, the master of arts and the master of science, the doctor of education and the doctor of philosophy.

The term "administrative" position refers to superintendencies, principalships, and directorships. It would also include general supervisory positions.

D. Procedures

The relevant literature in the field was read and summarized. Previous research was analyzed for its conclusions. A summary of the history of education of woman was prepared.

The educational directory of the State of Oklahoma was consulted for pertinent information related to the position of men and women in administrative and directive work in the Oklahoma educational system. The annual reports of the schools of Oklahoma, filed in the Finance Department at the state office, were consulted for official data relative to the academic preparation of teachers and their teaching positions

during the school year 1945-6. An information blank, or questionnaire, was sent to the regularly recognized colleges of Oklahoma for information concerning the number of degrees granted by each institution during the last five year period. All of these data were summarized and analyzed, and certain basic conclusions were drawn from them.

CHAPTER II

PREVIOUS RESEARCH RELATIVE TO EDUCATION FOR WOMAN

Although one might suppose such an interesting and challenging problem might call forth much scientific research, this has not been true, and most literature which deals with woman's social, political, and educational status is really only zealous propaganda for or against the movement. Since about 1870, the literature on woman's education has been voluminous, but it merits little serious consideration. Most of the early studies, if such they may be called, dealt with:¹¹

1. Sex differences and their bearing on ability to do academic work.
2. Physical education for girls.
3. Effect of college upon marriage and fecundity of girls.
4. Women in the industrial and professional world.
5. Problems of vocational preparation for women.

More recently, questions of origins, causes, and trends of woman's education and woman's emancipation have been considered. Plato, in early Greece, advanced the theory that equality of intellectual capacity between the sexes was a possibility; but Aristotle and Rousseau believed that sex determined mental as well as physical capacities. Storer in 1871¹² held that delicate girls were often ruined in mind and body by education and that they should be trained more in body than in mind. Clark¹³ presented a similar view in 1873. Maudsley a little later found "sex in mind . . . as sex in body."¹⁴ These are representative of early

¹¹ Thomas Woody, op. cit., p. 408.

¹² H. R. Storer, "Female Hygiene," First Biennial Report of the State Board of Health of California, Appendix, pp. 3-17.

¹³ E. H. Clark, Sex in Education, p. 181.

¹⁴ Henry Maudsley, Sex in Mind and Education.

research based on sex differences. Studies of sex continued along such lines with relatively similar results until 1916 when Terman¹⁵ found "apart from the small superiority of girls, the distribution of intelligence in the two sexes is not different. The supposed wider variation of boys is not found. Girls do not group themselves more about the median more closely than do boys."

Wechsler states¹⁶ that sex difference is sometimes considered a difference in intelligence. ". . . the data show occasional small differences between the sexes with respect to the efficiency on individual tests . . . But, when the total score is taken into consideration, that is to say when the individual tests are combined into batteries, these differences tend to cancel each other." In the opinion of Mr. Wechsler, from his test data, ". . . it may be possible to demonstrate a measurable superiority of women over men so far as general intelligence is concerned."

As it became apparent that there was no sound ground for differentiation of woman's education on the grounds of "sex in mind," emphasis was placed on differentiation on the grounds of social need. Studies made differentiated between the sexes on such grounds as:

1. Man is the getting animal; woman, the spending one.
2. Man should be trained for executive and administrative work; woman in the knowledge of human society and of social relationships.
3. Woman's curriculum must be modified to domestic ends.

Even today, any survey of business or professions will find man in the executive and administrative positions and woman in the subordinate,

¹⁵ L. M. Terman, The Measurement of Intelligence, p. 362.

¹⁶ David Wechsler, The Measurement of Adult Intelligence, pp. 106-7.

detail jobs. Inequality of pay for equal training, experience, and job load is a commonly accepted practice.

Still another group of studies dealt with the theory of coeducation-- a theory which thoroughly shocked nineteenth century America. Its advocates saw in this program a sure guarantee of the equality of the sexes; its opponents, a corruption of morals and manners. It was condemned as lowering intellectual standards and encouraging race suicide. It was even said that "What God hath made different, men should not strive to make the same."¹⁷ Coeducation is commonly accepted today, but a thorough, intensive study of the effects of coeducation has not yet been made.

As early as 1819, cries were raised that the educated woman did not marry, and educational writers were asserting that "errors of education were the reason for so many antiquated damsels and so many superannuated bachelors."¹⁸ Among the reasons advanced were:

1. Graduates became teachers rather than wives.
2. College women were more "particular" in their search for mates.
3. College women were too independent.
4. Women who took "honors" were less likely to marry than those in "pass" courses.

In 1895 Shimm found that more graduates of coeducational colleges married than did graduates of woman's colleges.¹⁹ Numerous studies were also made of the fecundity of college graduates, but these are not wholly valid because they fail to take into account such factors as the stock from which the college woman came; the economic status of her family; and

¹⁷ Thomas Woody, op. cit., p. 411.

¹⁸ Loc. cit.

¹⁹ Millicent W. Shimm, "The Marriage Rate of College Women," *Century*, Vol. L., pp. 946-8.

the tendencies of her social strata. One writer in comparing 343 married college women with their non-collegiate married sisters, relatives, and friends found a lesser difference than had been expected. Another writer asserted that if only 50 per cent of college women married, it was because they came from a social group in which such a marriage rate was a common tendency. It is true that studies of the productivity of college families over an extended period showed a progressive decline from nearly 6 children per family in the period from 1803 to 1809, to 1.8 per family in the latter part of the nineteenth century, but it is probable that surveys of similar population groups, not college groups, would show the same declining tendency.²⁰

Another group of studies dealt with academic success of man and woman. The first studies dealt with undergraduate work and showed little difference between the sexes. More recent scientific studies have proved similar conclusions for graduate work.

Early studies predicted that the health of the college woman would suffer, and that many early deaths would result. More recent studies show, on the contrary, that the college woman usually improves in health, or shows no change.

Despite these voluminous studies, few or no truly scientific conclusions have been established, and much research remains to be done in the field of education for woman.

²⁰ C. F. Emerick, "College Women and Race Suicide," Political Science Quarterly, Vol. XXIV, pp. 269-83.

CHAPTER III

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR WOMAN

A. Colonial Times

The development of educational programs for woman has been long and colorful. In the Colonial Period, girls had few educational advantages compared with boys, although we do have some notable educated women in this period. However, they were the exception rather than the rule. Woman was usually barred from the New England town schools as "inconsistent with the design thereof." In the New Netherlands and Quaker colonies, however, girls were offered elementary education.

It is difficult to realize that until after the Revolution practically the only opportunities for girls' education were in the so-called "Dame Schools," where girls were taught to read and sew. The principal textbook was the "New England Primer." Very few women learned to write. This is shown by the number of wills, left by women of property, which were signed with a cross.²¹ Fewer than twelve women had been admitted to the New England Grammar Schools prior to the nineteenth century.²² In some instances, girls were instructed an hour or two a day, after the boys had been dismissed. Sometimes they were instructed during the boys' vacation periods. The general principle was that girls could be instructed at times when the schools were not needed by the boys.

B. The Eighteenth Century

One of the first people to advocate education for girls was William

²¹ Mary E. Wooley, "Education of Women," The Encyclopedia Americana, Vol. IX, pp. 692.

²² Ibid., p. 693.

Woodbridge who, when graduating from Yale in 1780, took for his graduating essay the topic "Improvement in Female Education." He later opened an evening school for girls and dared to teach them such subjects as grammar, geography, and composition.²³

During the eighteenth century, schools for girls were almost wholly "private venture" schools which offered only "rudiments" and "accomplishments." These satisfied, in part, a demand; and, on the other hand, they stimulated a desire for more extensive educational facilities for woman. Most of these ventures crystallized into the female seminary or female academy. The Academy at Medford, Massachusetts, was said to have been the first New England academy for girls. It was established in 1789.

Before the close of the century attempts were made in other parts of the country to establish academies for girls; by the Friends in Rhode Island, and by the Friends and Moravians in Pennsylvania and Kentucky. However, none of these early academies pretended to give college preparatory training as did the academies for boys. One of these early schools was established by the Germans at New Providence between 1750 and 1763 and taught reading and sewing for girls.²⁴

C. The Nineteenth Century

Prior to the middle of the nineteenth century there was little provision for woman to engage in serious study, except during the early middle ages. Between the sixth and the tenth century there were good scholars and Latinists among the nuns, and the convents provided instruction to girls in the same subjects given to boys. Later the education

²³ Ibid., p. 695.

²⁴ Ernest R. Groves, The American Woman, p. 50.

received in the convent schools became increasingly meager. The wave of enthusiasm for learning in the sixteenth century affected only a limited number of women, mainly among the aristocracy.

In America, between 1820 and 1830, the question of public support for girls' schools began to receive some favorable comment and support, and soon the high schools of the country began to offer "equal" opportunities to boys and girls at public expense. A demand arose for normal schools to supply teachers for the fast growing elementary schools of the country. Although these schools were open to both boys and girls, the latter predominated, and women began to enter their first public profession.

By 1820, the Reverend Joseph Emerson, at Byfield, had championed the cause of higher education for woman. Among his students were Zilpah Grant and Mary Lyon, both of whom later became famous in their crusade for higher education for woman.

In 1820, Emma Willard's "Plan for Improving Woman's Education" had attracted state support for the higher education of woman in New York State, and the Troy Female Seminary, later the Emma Willard School, was established.

In 1822, Catherine Beecher opened a seminary at Hartford, Connecticut. From 1830 to 1839, a number of institutions for woman's education were established in the South.

Mary Lyon established Mount Holyoke Seminary in 1836. Her ideal was "to establish a permanent institution for women that should furnish every advantage that the state of education in the country would allow."²⁵ Its

²⁵ Mary E. Wooley, *op. cit.*, p. 693.

curriculum would include the natural sciences, higher mathematics, logic, moral philosophy, ancient and modern history, evidences of Christianity, and Butler's Analogy.

In the latter part of the century, seminaries began to grow into colleges, and the two parallel programs of the separate colleges for men and women still exist, especially in the East. The last thirty-five years of the century show clearly three distinct types of higher educational institutions established and growing independently. These were:

1. The separate woman's college.
2. The woman's college affiliated with the university or with the colleges for men.
3. Coeducation in the colleges for men.

Among the earliest of the separate woman's colleges were: Vassar, established in 1865; Wellesley, in 1875; Bryn Mawr, in 1885; and Mount Holyoke, in 1893.

The first of the woman's colleges affiliated with the universities was Sophie Newcomb Memorial College, established in 1868. Women's College of Western Reserve University was founded in 1872. Barnard College was opened in 1889, and Radcliffe College opened its doors in 1894.

To Oberlin College goes the honor of being the first institution of collegiate rank to admit women. Women were first admitted in 1833, but were not permitted to become candidates for degrees until 1837. Antioch College was the second of this group. The Land Grant Act of 1862 gave great impetus to the movement. Coeducational colleges are predominant in the West and among the state colleges.

Even as late as 1870, it was considered improper for a woman to address a mixed audience.²⁶ Typical of the age, is the quotation from a

²⁶ Ernest R. Groves, op. cit., p. 314.

leading periodical of the period²⁷ ". . . For our part, we are convinced that too much has been done already in forcing girls through courses of hard study, and that any further steps in that direction will necessitate hospitals and asylums alongside of colleges for women . . ."

But, in spite of the handicaps of the early discriminatory policies against girls, educational facilities for girls gradually increased and gained a momentum that could not be stopped.

D. The Twentieth Century

Rapid strides have been made in the present century in all fields of education.

In the elementary schools, enrollment of boys and girls is about equal in terms of per cent, but in higher education men have 58.3 per cent of the enrollment as compared with 41.7 per cent for women. Women constituted 76.2 per cent of the total teaching staff in educational institutions in 1914. In the professional schools 23 per cent of the faculty were women; and in the elementary and secondary schools 80.9 per cent were women. Forty-four per cent of all baccalaureate degrees granted in 1929-1930 went to women, while 36 per cent of the graduate degrees and 16.4 per cent of all Ph. D. degrees were granted to women.²⁸

Coeducation was the basis of 409 college programs in 1930 while there were 146 colleges for women only and 101 for men only. In 1934, out of 23,614 public high schools, 74 were for boys only and 50 for girls. The remainder were coeducational. Among the private high schools,

²⁷ Ibid., pp. 314-5.

²⁸ Thomas Woody, op. cit., p. 414.

1334 were for boys and 783 for girls only.²⁹

According to the World Almanac for 1944, the following was the educational status of the sexes in the 1940 census:³⁰

1. More than one-half of the persons in the United States 25 years of age or older had completed eight years of schooling by April 1, 1940.
2. Of these students, 37,463,087 were men and 37,312,749 were women.
3. Of those who had completed one year of high school, 1,471,290 were men and 1,328,633 were women.

In school in 1940, between 5 and 24 years of age, the following was the distribution:

TABLE I
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL AGE PERSONS IN SCHOOL IN 1940

Age	Per Cent of Males	Per Cent of Females
5	17.5	18.4
6	63.2	70.1
7-9	94.1	94.5
10-13	95.3	95.6
14	92.2	92.8
15	87.3	88.0
16-17	68.2	69.2
18-19	30.8	26.9
20	14.4	10.6
21-24	6.6	3.5
Men - 58.6 per cent of all		Women - 56.9 per cent of all

From the survey of research summarized in this chapter the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. Much scientific study is yet to be made on coeducation as opposed to segregation.
2. There is no need for differentiation of studies based on sex differences, health or fecundity.
3. Much study should be made based on "social need."

²⁹ Loc. cit.

³⁰ World Almanac, 1944.

4. The question of professional versus vocational education for women is still an unsolved problem.

What is true in America is even more true in foreign countries where in most cases woman's education is restricted on a socio-political basis that rests on the traditions of an ancient past.

The Commission of Education reports that in 1915-1916 there were:³¹

	Number	Undergraduates
Men's Colleges	144	43,851
Women's Colleges	89	20,638
Coeducational Colleges	341	109,009 men 69,543 women

In 1915-1916, first degrees granted to women were distributed as follows:

Arts and Science	9309
Agriculture	135
Architecture	4
Commerce	46
Education	591
Fine Arts	14
Household Economy	639
Journalism	17
Music	368
Oratory	74

Higher degrees conferred upon women were:

Master of Arts	909
Master of Science	56
Doctor of Philosophy	81

The tendency toward the utilitarian is more marked in the coeducational institutions than in the separate institutions for women. Early specialization is also more common in the coeducational institutions.

Some of the results of education for woman are shown in the large increase of women in the professions. Census figures show that: In 1890, there were 311,689 women in professions; in 1900 there were 430,576; and in 1910 there were 733,885 women or 44.1 per cent of all

³¹ Mary E. Wooley, op. cit., p. 695.

those in professional service.

In the higher positions in the educational field, the number of women is not in proportion. The report for 1915-16 shows that in 574 institutions reporting, the figures were:³²

	Men	Women
Preparatory Departments	2,399	1,418
Collegiate Departments	19,140	4,246
Professional Departments	7,653	95
Total (eliminating duplicates)	28,472	6,397

In the last few years there has been a large increase in the number and variety of employments which college women were entering. They are not only teachers and physicians, but also superintendents of hospitals, secretaries, registrars, librarians, social workers, professional housekeepers, assayers, and poultry raisers. They have opened laboratory kitchens, laundries and greenhouses, and have engaged in scientific and historical research; they have become musicians and artists, and have been engaged as deans and even presidents of colleges. Educated women are interesting themselves in all of the problems of the cities in which they live, serving on boards of education and of sanitation, making possible public playgrounds and vacation schools, agitating the questions of improved housing, pure water supply, and clean streets.

Laboratories for scientific research are turning to women for their workers. Positions as draughtsmen, accountants, social workers, government employees, dieticians, nurses, and organizers are opening more rapidly than the colleges can supply women to fill them. Much of this demand is due of course to war conditions and their demands.

³² Ibid., p. 696.

CHAPTER IV

CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES IN THE EDUCATION OF WOMAN

A. General Education Versus Professional Education

The opposition to professional education for woman was even greater than the opposition to their general education. Professions were long considered the exclusive domain of man. However, beginning with Elizabeth Blackwell's successful struggle for medical training in the middle of the nineteenth century, women gradually secured the opportunity for medical training, training in law, and in other professions, and even entrance into graduate schools.³³

Even today there is but one medical school for girls in this country. In 1847 Elizabeth Blackwell wangled her way into the Geneva Medical Institution, but when her sister attempted to duplicate the feat, she found the school doors closed. In 1850, inspired by her example, a group of six Philadelphians founded the "Female Medical College of Pennsylvania." The American Medical Association refused to recognize the irregular institution and no professional journal would publish its announcements. But, women flocked to the school. In 1867, the name was changed to the "Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania." Although the institution had many imitators, it is the only woman's medical school to survive. Currently, it has 160 students. Its graduates number over 2,000 and are highly respected in the medical world. America's first woman medical missionary was a graduate of this school in the class of '69. The first woman ever to be commissioned by the Army Medical Corps was Margaret Graighill, one of its graduates.³⁴ Prior to this war, all women doctors

³³ Thomas Woody, *op. cit.*, p. 409.

³⁴ Life Magazine, Vol. XIX, No. 24 (December 10, 1945), p. 91.

connected with the army were under contract and had no official army rank. However, in April, 1943, the President signed a bill giving women doctors equal status with men in both the army and the navy.³⁵ In August of the same year the army launched a drive for 10,000 doctors, and stated that they would take all the women they could get. At the same time the navy asked for 600 women doctors for duty with the navy in the United States.³⁶ It is interesting to note that there are now more than 3,000 women doctors in the United States, while in Russia more than one half of all the doctors of the country are women.

B. Vocational Education Versus Liberal Education

Vocational education has been advocated and opposed by many ever since medieval days when knighthood and the guilds furnished the first truly vocational education. Theirs was truly education for life work. For many years, however, in American schools vocational education was considered as special training for those unable to profit by the traditional classical and liberal education of the colleges. It was a somewhat less "respectable" program provided for those with lower IQ's and those who were misfits in the regular program.

Recently, however, there has been an increased effort to provide vocational training for women in the domestic field and other such fields of practical endeavor. On the college level where the traditional ideal has been general (cultural) education for women, this move has met with decided opposition. Traditionally, according to Woody,³⁷ success in a

³⁵ Time, Vol. XLI, No. 17 (April 26, 1943), p. 46.

³⁶ Newsweek, Vol. XXII, No. 8 (August 23, 1943).

³⁷ Thomas Woody, op. cit., p. 409.

liberal arts education was the only thing which could stamp woman and man as equal in academic ability.

Vocational courses for women on the college level really came as a result of World War I. Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, Bryn Mawr, and Mount Holyoke established vocational courses in their summer sessions of 1918.³⁸ These included nursing, psychiatric aid, industrial health, farm management, and industrial supervision and clerical work. Schools in the West soon followed, and the vocational program was strengthened and broadened. Yet even today, in colleges, vocational programs for women are less "respectable" than are the cultural programs. Such programs are encouraged by state aid and the Smith-Hughes Act. Vocational counseling is finding a place in the total school program as well. As girls and women continue in industry the demand for vocational training will continue to increase. Vocational guidance for women will take on an increased importance. Although much has been written about this problem, there is little research that has been significant. Women's clubs have recently become an important factor in adult education for women; and they represent one force, an organized one, working on woman's social, political, economic, and educational problems.

³⁸ Ellystine Goodsell, The Education of Women, p. 165.

CHAPTER V

PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATION IN OTHER COUNTRIES

In England, the statute of 1406 really marks the beginning of the educational program. This law proclaimed the right of every man to send his children to take learning at any school within the realm. The following year, the right to teach was established, but the Church really controlled education for many more years and religious turmoil impeded the progress of education. In the eighteenth century, secondary education was at a standstill, but schools for the poorer classes were growing. In the early part of the nineteenth century, the establishment of the Sunday Schools and the introduction of the monitorial system did much to further education. The first real government aid was in 1832. Compulsory education was finally introduced in 1870. By the act of 1918, education was made compulsory up to the age of fourteen and all exceptions were dismissed.³⁹ However, even as late as 1920, Oxford refused to grant degrees to women. Cambridge refused until 1923.⁴⁰

The curriculum of girls' schools is now similar to that of the boys'. Both enter for the same examinations. In general, less stress is laid on the classics, mathematics, and physical science. Some periods are set aside for cooking, needlework, etc. In some schools a business training is afforded. Government grants are made to women as well as to men, although the maintenance allowance is less. Women sit equally with men on the teachers' registration council. Nominally, all teaching posts are open to women, but only in London and in Wales have women held professorships.

³⁹ New Standard Encyclopedia, Vol. III.

⁴⁰ Willystine Goodsell, op. cit., p. 14.

Recently a bill was enacted in England to provide compulsory part time college education for boys and girls between 15 and 16.⁴¹ Students will attend college at least one whole day or two half days a week for 44 weeks each year. This plan applies only to those young people who are not already in full time education and will pay particular attention to the needs of girls.

Education on the continent is currently in a period of change. Prior to World War II, the universities were, generally speaking, open to women. Girls received solid education in the state supported schools of France, Germany, the Scandinavian countries, and Holland. Educational legislation showed a tendency to make the curricula for girls' schools like that of the boys,¹ except in Italy and Czechoslovakia where the tendency was in a contrary direction. In France the assimilation was virtually complete, although posts in boys' secondary schools and in the universities were still practically confined to men. In France, education was highly centralized. Compulsory education for all between the ages of 6 and 14 was in force. Higher education was completely independent of elementary education, however.⁴² In Germany, education was noted for its thoroughness rather than for its breadth. There was no connection between elementary and secondary education. The entire program was state controlled.⁴³

On the other side of the world, in Japan, only elementary education was compulsory, and again, education was government controlled.⁴⁴

⁴¹ The Oklahoma Teacher, Vol. XXVII, No. 4 (December, 1945), p. 41.

⁴² New Standard Encyclopedia, op. cit.

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ Ibid.

CHAPTER VI

PRESENT ECONOMIC AND MARITAL STATUS OF WOMAN

Ever since the late nineteenth century there has been a surplus of women over men in the United States. This fact, plus the demands of industry for cheap labor and the growth of the factory system, has given impetus to the flow of women into jobs outside the home. In 1870, 14 per cent of all gainfully employed persons were women; in 1920, 20.2 per cent; in 1923, 22 per cent.⁴⁵

While this movement was gaining ground, another was manifest. In 1920, 13.3 per cent of all the gainfully employed women were in the professions as compared with 6.4 per cent in 1870; 25.6 per cent were stenographers as compared with .8 per cent in 1870. The rest, 61.1 per cent, were servants, mill and factory hands, and were in non-agricultural jobs. The types of employment open to women had increased almost as much as had the number of gainfully employed women. In the years between 1920 and 1930, women made important advances professionally, making a total gain of about 225 per cent as compared to a male gain of 78 per cent. In law, the gain for women was 100 per cent as it was for college teachers, librarians, and trained nurses; the gain for editors and reporters was 104 per cent; architects, 180 per cent. But women today are but 4 per cent of the doctors of the country.⁴⁶

Both single and married women have left the home in large numbers. Today better than 90 per cent of the employed women support dependents,

⁴⁵ J. A. Hill, Women in Gainful Occupations, Census Monograph, No. 9, 1929, p. 46.

⁴⁶ W. F. Ogburn, "The Outlook for the Trained Woman," Journal of American Association of University Women, Vol. XXVII, (1934), p. 150.

either wholly or partially. According to Gretta Palmer,⁴⁷ the following conclusions may be drawn relative to women at work:

1. The average woman wants to stay on a familiar job.
2. Women are too emotional about brusque criticism.
3. Women are tense under competition.
4. Women use personal charm to get ahead.
5. Women demand extra courtesy.
6. Women cannot make decisions.
7. Woman's major interest is not in the job, but in being a woman.

Another interesting view is given in an article entitled "Ladies of Washington's Working Press."⁴⁸ It states that Elmer Davis ignores the women of the press; Secretary Knox invited them to conferences; others tolerate them with varying degrees of tolerance; but women are gradually attaining equal news status with men. In 1933, there were 20; in 1940, 33; and in 1943, 74 accredited women Capitol correspondents. Many conferences are still stag affairs, and others make no provision for woman's comfort or convenience. During Madame Chiang Kai Shek's visit, for the first time, women were invited to a White House press conference.

Recently, a woman was chosen president of Vassar College, for the first time in the history of this woman's college. In Oklahoma there has been but one woman president of a state college. This was Kate Galt Zaneis, who served two years, 1935-1936, as president of Southeastern State College at Durant.

⁴⁷ Gretta Palmer, "They Learned About Women," Reader's Digest, Vol. XLV, No. 269 (September, 1944), pp. 105-7.

⁴⁸ Newsweek, Vol. XXI, No. 9 (March 1, 1943), p. 64.

CHAPTER VII

WOMAN AND EDUCATION IN OKLAHOMA

Much has been said and written about the history of education for woman. The arguments for and against woman's education have been presented and summarized in Chapters I and II. The history of education for woman has been summarized in Chapter II. Controversial issues have been discussed in Chapter IV. Female education in other countries has been compared in Chapter V with female education in the United States. Woman's present position in the business and professional world, in general, has been presented in Chapter VI. What then is the position of woman in the educational fields in Oklahoma? What position does she hold in those departments which supervise the educational program in Oklahoma? Are women attending Oklahoma's institutions of higher learning? Are more women qualifying for higher degrees? Are women assuming their rightful place in the public schools of Oklahoma?

In an attempt to answer these questions, many data were gathered by the writer from several sources.

First, the educational directory for 1946, printed by the state department at Oklahoma City, was surveyed to ascertain the number of women employed in the administrative and directive offices of Oklahoma's educational system. All clerical help and general stenographic and office help were excluded from the survey, and only those in administrative or other official positions were considered. Denominational schools, such as Catholic and Lutheran, were excluded from the survey, except on the college level, as not truly representative of general practice. These data are summarized in Table II.

TABLE II
MEN AND WOMEN EMPLOYED IN ADMINISTRATIVE
AND DIRECTIVE POSITIONS IN OKLAHOMA'S STATE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Position	Men	Women	Total
County Superintendents	52	25	77
State Department of Education			
State Superintendent	1	0	1
Assistant Superintendent	1	0	1
Certification Division	2	0	2
School Inspection Division	7	1	8
Curriculum Division	2	0	2
Schoolhouse Planning Division	1	0	1
Health Education Division	1	0	1
Finance Division	5	0	5
Division of Examiners	5	0	5
Division of Vocational Education	3	0	3
Vocational Agriculture A and M	3	0	3
Vocational T and I A and M	4	0	4
Vocational Distributive Education A and M	1	1	2
Vocational Home Economics	0	5	5
Vocational Rehabilitation	4	2	6
State Board of Education			
	6	0	6
O. E. A.			
Officers	5	1	6
Directors	9	1	10
State Regents for Higher Education			
	11	0	11
Presidents or Deans of State Colleges and Universities			
	20	1	21
Teacher Retirement Trustees			
	9	1	10
Heads of Eleemosynary Institutions			
	13	2	15
Board of Commissioners for the Blind			
	4	1	5
Oklahoma Library Commission			
	3	3	6
Officers of the Board of Directors State Historical Society			
	5	2	7
State Elective Officials			
	16	1	17
Junior Colleges Recognized by State Board of Education			
	14	2	16
Presidents or Deans			

TABLE II (Continued)

Position	Men	Women	Total
Deans or Presidents of Recognized Colleges and Universities	7	2	9
Committee on Institutions of Higher Learning	3	0	3
Heads of Recognized Business Schools or Colleges	13	3	16
U. S. Indian Boarding Schools	10	2	12
Indian Agencies	8	0	8
Total	248	56	304

From Table II it is apparent that of the 304 persons directly engaged in supervising, directing, and administering education in the state of Oklahoma, 248 are men and 56 are women. Thus 82 per cent are men and only 18 per cent are women.

Next an attempt was made to determine the proportion of men and women with higher degrees employed as teachers in the various state colleges, but data were not available as to sex. The First Biennial Report of the Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education, published in 1942, does show that the total faculty personnel of the Oklahoma State System of Higher Education had the following scholastic training:

Doctorate	308 or 26 per cent
Masters	676 or 57 per cent
Bachelors	183 or 15 per cent
No Degree	<u>20</u> or 2 per cent
Total	1187

The Second Biennial Report does not give parallel data so there is no indication as to whether or not the number of people employed by the

colleges, and holding higher degrees, in Oklahoma, is increasing or decreasing. This data is important only in relation to the number of women in administrative and directive positions.

Next, data were assembled on the number of men and women employed as teachers in the public schools of the state, the number of each sex employed in administrative positions, and the distribution of sexes with respect to academic preparation. For this purpose the files of the State Department of Education were consulted. The largest school in each of the 77 counties of the state was used on the assumption that its practices would be representative of the practices of similar schools. Data were available for only 76 of the 77 counties. These data were then organized for schools of fewer than 25 teachers, those of from 26 to 50 teachers, those from 51 to 75, those from 76 to 100, those from 100 to 200, and finally those employing more than 200 teachers. These data are summarized in Tables III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, and IX. From these tables the following conclusions may be drawn:

In the school systems employing 25 or fewer teachers, 26 per cent of the teachers are men, while 74 per cent are women, Table III. These men hold 77 per cent of the administrative positions, although the individual schools vary from 100 per cent for the man to $66 \frac{2}{3}$ per cent for the women. Of the 20 schools considered in this group, 11 have no women in administrative positions. In the same group, 24 per cent of the bachelor's degrees are held by the men; and 63 per cent of the master's degrees are held by men. There are no teachers with higher degrees. Of the teachers without degrees, employed by these schools, 15 per cent are men, and 85 per cent are women. It is evident that the number of women in administrative positions is not comparable with the number of women

employed nor with their academic preparation. In three schools in this group there are no men with master's degrees, while in the same systems there are 1, 4, and 1 women with master's degrees respectively. In these schools, the first and third each employ one woman in an administrative position while the second employs none in that capacity although there are 4 women with master's degrees and no men with equivalent preparation. This system has 5 men in administrative work.

In the second group of schools studied, Table IV, 21 per cent of the faculty are men, while 79 per cent are women. This 21 per cent of the faculty hold 68 per cent of the administrative positions. The men represent 16 per cent of those faculty members with bachelor's degrees and 45 per cent of those with master's degrees. There is but one higher degree. This is held by a man. Nine per cent of the teachers without degrees are men while 91 per cent of this group are women. Of the 31 schools in this group, 8 employ no women as administrators. These schools also vary from 100 per cent administration by men to 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent by women. Again, it is apparent that women in education in Oklahoma do not hold administrative positions comparable with their educational qualifications.

In the next group of schools studied, Table V, involving schools employing from 51 to 75 teachers, 23 per cent of the total faculty are men and 77 per cent are women. Men hold 68 per cent of the administrative positions, 16 per cent of the bachelor's degrees, and 35 per cent of the master's degrees. There are no faculty members with higher degrees. Of the teachers without degrees, 21 per cent are men, and 79 per cent are women. Of the 8 schools surveyed, all employ at least 1 woman in an administrative position but they vary from 35 per cent for the men to 50 per cent for the women. It is apparent that as the schools become

TABLE III
 FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR SCHOOLS
 EMPLOYING 25 TEACHERS OR FEWER

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	101	26	233	74	334
Administrators	46	77	14	23	60
Bachelor Degrees	61	24	191	76	252
Master Degrees	26	63	15	37	41
Higher Degrees	0	0	0	0	0
Without Degrees	14	15	77	85	91

TABLE IV

FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR SCHOOLS EMPLOYING 26-50 TEACHERS

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	233	21	568	79	1101
Administrators	88	68	41	32	129
Bachelor Degrees	129	16	653	84	782
Master Degrees	93	45	111	54	204
Higher Degrees	1	100	0	0	1
Without Degrees	10	9	104	91	114

TABLE V
 FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR SCHOOLS EMPLOYING 51-75 TEACHERS

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	107	23	350	77	457
Administrators	30	68	14	32	44
Bachelor Degrees	56	16	241	84	297
Master Degrees	44	35	82	65	126
Higher Degrees	0	0	0	0	0
Without Degrees	7	21	27	79	34

larger, more women are employed in administrative work, but again the per cent is not comparable with the academic or scholastic preparation of the women.

Table VI shows the figures for schools employing from 76 to 100 teachers. Men are 19 per cent of the total faculties, while women represent 81 per cent. Men hold 62 per cent of the administrative positions. Fourteen per cent of the bachelor's degrees are held by men as are 30 per cent of the master's degrees. Two women hold doctor's degrees. No men have similar degrees. Every school of the 9 in this group employs at least 1 woman administrator and the individual schools vary from 78 per cent for the man to 60 per cent for the women. Neither of the two women with doctor's degrees are employed as administrators. In general, women in administrative positions in this group are employed as elementary principals.

Table VII summarizes the data for schools employing from 101 to 200 teachers. In this group 16 per cent of the total number of teachers are men and 84 per cent are women. This group, the men or 16 per cent of the faculties, hold 44 per cent of the administrative positions. Ten per cent of the bachelor's degrees are held by men while 90 per cent are held by women. On the master's level, 27 per cent are men and 73 per cent are women. There are two men with doctorates and no women. Fifteen per cent of the teachers without degrees are men; 85 per cent are women. In this group, the per cent of women holding administrative positions is higher than the per cent of men in similar work. In the six schools in this group, the smallest number of women employed as administrators is 3; the largest, 10. In only 2 of the schools is the per cent of men administrators higher than the per cent of women administrators. In this group it is

TABLE VI
FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR SCHOOLS EMPLOYING 76-100 TEACHERS

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	145	19	631	81	776
Administrators	40	62	24	38	64
Bachelor Degrees	73	14	453	86	526
Master Degrees	69	30	158	70	227
Higher Degrees	0	0	2	100	2
Without Degrees	3	14	18	86	21

TABLE VII

FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR SCHOOLS EMPLOYING 101-200 TEACHERS

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	142	16	761	84	903
Administrators	34	44	44	56	78
Bachelor Degrees	57	10	504	90	561
Master Degrees	72	27	196	73	268
Higher Degrees	2	100	0	0	2
Without Degrees	11	15	61	85	72

therefore apparent that the positions of women are more nearly in accord with their professional preparation.

The last group studied, schools employing more than 200 teachers, involved only two schools. The data for these are summarized in Table VIII. Fifteen per cent of the total number of teachers are men; 85 per cent are women. Men hold 68 per cent of the administrative positions. They have 8 per cent of the bachelor's degrees, 23 per cent of the master's degrees, and 80 per cent of the doctor's degrees. They also constitute 25 per cent of the teachers without standard degrees. One of these schools employs only one woman in an administrative position as contrasted with 38 men. In the other, women constitute almost 50 per cent of the administrators. In all other groups there is an apparent tendency to increase the per cent of women in administrative work as the size of the school increases.

Table IX summarizes the data for all the 76 schools studied. Men represent 18 per cent of all teachers employed while women constitute the remaining 82 per cent. Men hold 65 per cent of all administrative positions. They have 13 per cent of all bachelor's degrees and 29 per cent of all master's degrees. Men have 70 per cent of all doctorates, and only 15 per cent of the teachers without degrees are men. Of the total number of teachers employed in these 76 schools, 64 per cent hold bachelor's degrees; 29 per cent hold master's degrees; less than 1 per cent have doctor's degrees; and nearly 7 per cent hold no degrees at all.

Table X shows the disproportionate percentage of men in administrative work when contrasted with the total number of men in educational work.

The next phase of the study deals with the number of men and women receiving degrees from Oklahoma's institutions of higher learning during

TABLE VIII

FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR SCHOOLS EMPLOYING 200 TEACHERS
OR MORE

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	278	15	1631	85	1909
Administrators	75	68	35	32	110
Bachelor Degrees	88	8	1014	92	1102
Master Degrees	175	23	583	77	758
Higher Degrees	4	80	1	20	5
Without Degrees	11	25	33	75	44

TABLE IX

TOTAL FACULTY DISTRIBUTION FOR ALL SCHOOLS SURVEYED

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL Number
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Teachers Employed	1006	18	4524	82	5530
Administrators	313	65	172	35	485
Bachelor Degrees	464	13	3056	87	3520
Master Degrees	479	29	1145	71	1624
Higher Degrees	7	70	3	30	10
Without Degrees	56	15	320	85	376

the last 5 year period. These data were secured by the use of an information blank which was sent to 21 institutions of higher learning in Oklahoma. (Appendix B) Of the 21 blanks sent out, 15 were returned. Nine gave the requested information, while 6 reported no degrees had been granted. Of the 9 making the detailed reports, one was an institution limited to girls and so is not wholly comparable with the other 8 schools which reported. Table XI summarizes the data for these schools.

Table XI shows that on the bachelor's level, while the number of men and women receiving the degrees went through a period of decline, women are still in the majority. In the school year 1942-3, the per cents are most nearly equal with the men receiving 42 per cent of the degrees and the women 53 per cent. The greatest difference is in 1944-5 when the men received only 21 per cent of the degrees and the women 79 per cent. It is probably true that some of this imbalance was caused by war conditions. However, even with the return of the veterans in 1945-6, women received 64 per cent of these degrees while men received only 36 per cent. Over the five year period covered by this study, men received 35 per cent of all bachelor degrees granted by these 9 institutions while women received 65 per cent.

On the master's level, only 3 of the 9 institutions reported granting master's degrees. Throughout the entire period, men received a higher percentage of the degrees each year than did the women. The greatest similarity was in 1941-2 when men received 51 per cent and women 49 per cent. The greatest difference was in 1945-6 when men received 68 per cent and women only 32 per cent. Over the entire period, men received 58 per cent of the total number of such degrees, and women received 42 per cent.

TABLE X

PER CENT OF MEN AND WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE WORK
 CONTRASTED WITH PER CENT OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS.

Type of School	Administrators		Teachers Employed	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Fewer than 25 teachers	77	23	26	74
26-50 teachers	68	32	21	79
51-75 teachers	68	32	23	77
76-100 teachers	62	38	19	81
101-200 teachers	44	56	16	84
Over 200 teachers	68	32	15	85

TABLE XI
GRADUATES OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN OKLAHOMA

Part A

Bachelor's Degrees	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
1941-2	765	39	1165	61	1930
1942-3	627	42	865	58	1492
1943-4	162	21	596	79	758
1944-5	155	21	588	79	743
1945-6	321	36	558	64	879
Total	2030	35	3772	65	5802

Part B

Master's Degrees					
1941-2	97	51	95	49	192
1942-3	71	56	56	44	127
1943-4	50	66	26	34	76
1944-5	45	61	29	39	74
1945-6	43	68	20	32	63
Total	306	58	226	42	532

Part C

Doctor's Degrees					
1941-2	2	100	0	0	2
1945-6	2	100	0	0	2
Total	4	100	0	0	2

On the doctorate level, only one institution reported the conferring of doctor's degrees. All of these were conferred on men.

Turning again to distribution of administrative positions, Table XII shows the number of administrators employed and the frequency distribution of these positions in relation to men, women, and total. It is apparent that the ratio of men to women administrators is 3 to 1 in Oklahoma. The usual number of administrators employed in a single system is 4; the usual number of men is 3; and the usual number of women is 1. In general, the proportion is not in keeping with the professional preparation of men and women as previously demonstrated in Table IX.

From the data presented in this section of the study, the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. Woman in Oklahoma has not yet achieved equal status with man, educationally, as 82 per cent of those directly engaged in administrating or directing the educational program for the state of Oklahoma are men, and only 18 per cent are women.
2. In higher education in this state, 26 per cent of the college teachers hold doctor's degrees; 57 per cent, master's; 15 per cent, bachelor's; and 2 per cent, no standard degrees. Ninety-five per cent of the college presidents and deans in the state colleges are men. The state regents for higher education are all men as is the committee of higher learning. This is not in accord with the per cent of men and women receiving degrees from state colleges, nor with the number of men and women employed as teachers in the public schools of the state.
3. Eighty-five per cent of the heads or directors of eleemosynary institutions and organizations, sponsored by the state, are men, although women are the majority group in the population of the United States today.
4. In the public schools of the state, 18 per cent of all teachers are men; 82 per cent are women. Eighteen per cent of all degrees are held by men; 82 per cent by women. Yet men hold 65 per cent of all administrative positions.
5. In general, as the system grows larger, more women are employed as administrators. This is natural as in most instances, in the schools surveyed, women administrators are

TABLE XII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATORS IN TERMS OF INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS

Part A

Total Number of Administrators Employed	Number of School Systems Employing These Totals
1	1
2	7
3	19
4	15 Median
5	7
6	10
7	5
8	2
9	2
10	1
11	1
12	
13	2
14	
15	1
16	
17	1
18	
19	
20	
Over 20	2
TOTAL	76
Median Number of Administrators Employed 4	

Part B

Number of Administrative Positions Held by Men	Number of Systems Employing These Totals
0	0
1	4
2	22
3	25
4	12
5	5
6	2
7	2
8	2
9	0
10	0
Over 10	2
TOTAL	76
Median Number of Men Employed in a Single School System as Administrators 3	

TABLE XII (Continued)

Part C

Number of Women in Administrative Positions	Number of Systems Employing These Totals
0	19
1	24
2	15
3	7
4	5
5	0
6	1
7	0
8	1
9	1
10	2
Over 10	1
TOTAL	76

Median Number of Women Administrators Employed in
Individual School Systems 1

limited to elementary principals and supervisors.

6. In many schools of Oklahoma, women, equally or better prepared than men, are passed over when administrators are appointed. There was not a single instance of a woman superintendent of schools, nor of a woman high school principal. Junior high principals, among the women, were extremely rare.
7. The median number of administrators employed in individual systems was 4. The median for men administrators was 3; for women, 1. The ratio is, therefore, 3 to 1.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapters I and II of this study are primarily introductory and deal with the current discussions as to woman's place in the social and economic world. Chapter I relates the present discussion to the changes in woman's social position through the years and from it the conclusion may be drawn that woman has gradually emerged from a minority group to a majority group in the social order of the world. Woman has also become economically independent and wishes to remain so. Studies have proved that woman can do work ordinarily considered "man's work" and that she can do it without impairing her physical or mental health, or her social and moral welfare. Chapter II summarizes previous research and shows clearly that sex differences are much less than has often been stated. There is no scientific basis for differentiation in education for sexes. There is no impairment of woman's health by advanced study. Woman has demonstrated that she can and does learn as well as, or better than, man. This chapter also calls attention to the fact that much research is needed in the field of education for woman.

Chapter III deals with the historical development of education for woman and surveys the Colonial Period, the Eighteenth Century, the Nineteenth Century, and the Twentieth Century. It shows the general trend from limited, segregated education for woman toward unrestricted, coeducational education. The college woman of today is only slightly limited in her choice of higher schools, but some discrimination remains in the various professional fields, and there is some academic discrimination at the higher levels. Woman's sphere of influence in the social and civic fields is also considered.

Chapter IV deals with controversial issues relative to the education of woman and considered, for example, woman's long struggle for recognition in the medical world. It also treats of vocational education for woman as opposed to liberal education. The conclusion reached is that man and woman alike profit by both vocational and liberal education and that there should be no distinction based on sex alone.

In Chapter V, an attempt was made to evaluate the world status of education. However, due to war conditions, such data are necessarily limited and inaccurate. World development of education for woman is relatively parallel to the development within the United States, although in each country it is colored and varied by the particular social and civic organization of the country. In general, the tendency is to make more and more higher education available to all, and even compulsory.

Chapter VI discusses the present economic and marital status of woman and stresses the fact that many of the women who have left the home for the professional or industrial fields have done so under economic pressure as today approximately 90 per cent of all employed women support dependents, either wholly or partially.

Chapter VII presents in statistical form data relevant to woman in education in Oklahoma and shows clearly that women and men are not equal in their respective educational positions although more and more they are achieving equality or supremacy in scholastic and professional preparation.

Much additional research remains to be done. The exact administrative positions held by women in Oklahoma should be studied and charted or graphed. All schools should be surveyed, not just 76 representative schools. A further study should be made of the relative qualifications and positions of man and woman within many individual school systems. A

search should be made to determine the relative positions held by men and women teaching on the college level. A further study of men and women in college should be made when the influence of war conditions has been eliminated. These studies should probably be continued or duplicated in other states, or perhaps in the United States as a whole. Further investigation should be made of the relation between higher education for woman and the marriage and fecundity rates.

Recently, Mary R. Beard's new book "Women as a Force in History"⁴⁹ created much editorial comment. This book is a survey intended to restore to woman credit for the influence she has actually exerted in the past. She surveys the position of woman in primitive times, in Roman history, in the medieval guilds, and in the courts, convents, and counting houses of the Renaissance. She points to royal houses where power has descended in the female line. She considers matriarchy and Mariolatry. The book is indicative of a trend relative to woman's influence in the world through the ages.

Today there is much discussion as to the future of education, not only of woman, but of all. The so-called general education programs which are attracting so much attention today are an outgrowth of a feeling of need for an education which will not cater to the academically minded few, but which will rather provide for "all of the children of all of the people." The recent Harvard Report⁵⁰ states that we must have Jeffersonian democracy in education as the "nurse of excellence" and Jacksonian democracy as the "guard of equality." Education cannot be all

⁴⁹ Mary R. Beard, Women as a Force in History.

⁵⁰ Report of the Harvard Committee, General Education in a Free Society, pp. 31-35.

academic, all technical, nor all manual. It must provide for all three, and the programs must complement each other. It must change as society changes. Education must be general in that it provides that part of the student's whole education which looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and a citizen; it must be specialized to provide that part of the student's education which will give him competence in some occupation.⁵¹

In a large measure, the appeal of the faculties of colleges and universities has been to the intellect, not to the social impulses nor to the "power to do." In consequence, higher education has tended to develop in woman a growing sense of independence of other persons, and of the activities and agencies of social living. As a consequence, a rewarding domain of social experience with its accompanying values has been but partially opened to woman. Educated women have a larger responsibility for society, for upon them lie the responsibilities of the social and moral values of life. They are the world's hope of a program toward more healthful, happy, and beautiful living. Education for woman must cultivate and bring to fruition these desires of woman as well as to give freedom to their intellectual and economic powers. Education for woman must be rich in aesthetic, intellectual, and spiritual values. The future of education for woman in America is big with hope and promise.

⁵¹ Ibid., pp. 51-58.

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Appendix A

Faculty Distribution - School Year 1945-6

	Men	Women	Total
Number of teachers employed			
Number in Administrative * positions			
Number with AB degrees			
Number with AM degrees			
Number with higher degrees			
Number without degrees			

* Administrative positions would include principal, supervisors, superintendents, curriculum directors, etc.

Appendix B

Letter to State Colleges

310 Duncan
Stillwater, Oklahoma
June 15, 1946

Registrar

Dear Sir:

Under the direction of Oklahoma A. and M. College, I am conducting a study on the Education of Women. I am gathering my data from the outstanding schools in the various parts of Oklahoma and would sincerely appreciate your co-operation. Will you fill out the chart, as far as it applies to your institution, and return it to me as soon as possible? I realize this will take some of your valuable time and I will deeply appreciate your help.

Very truly yours,

School Year	Number of Graduates - Bachelor's Degree		
	Men	Women	Total
1941-2			
1942-3			
1943-4			
1944-5			
1945-6			

School Year	Number of Graduates - Master's Degree		
	Men	Women	Total
1941-2			
1942-3			
1943-4			
1944-5			
1945-6			

School Year	Number of Graduates - Ph. D. or Ed. D.		
	Men	Women	Total
1941-2			
1942-3			
1943-4			
1944-5			
1945-6			

Return to: Miss Ruth Smith
310 Duncan
Stillwater, Oklahoma

Typist, Velma Jean Peters