

Teaching as a Career

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Teaching as a Career

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FOREWORD

FOLLOWING the setbacks of wartime, teaching is once more on the march toward a professional status that is in keeping with its great importance to the Nation and to the world. Recent substantial improvement in teachers' salaries, extension of retirement privileges to teachers in every State, expanding enrollments in teacher-preparatory institutions, and unprecedented increases of membership in professional organizations of teachers provide impressive evidences that teaching is worthy of serious consideration as a career by the best of our high-school and college students.

Numerous agencies have expressed a need for an authoritative statement setting forth the facts on which a young person might base a decision to enter upon teaching as a career. Among those who have been particularly concerned with this need may be mentioned national organizations of educators, the Citizens Federal Committee of the U. S. Office of Education, high-school and college students, school officials, guidance and counseling officers, and classroom teachers. To meet this need, Pamphlet 95, entitled "Teaching as a Profession," was first published by the U. S. Office of Education in 1944. It was twice reprinted by the Government Printing Office in order to supply the unusually heavy demand. The present bulletin constitutes a complete revision of Pamphlet 95. The data have been brought up to date and most of the text has been completely rewritten.

An earnest attempt has been made in this bulletin to present the facts about teaching as objectively as possible. Selection of facts and figures to be included was influenced not only by requests for information from young people interested in teaching, but also by requests for information from a wide variety of lay and professional workers, such as writers preparing publications for local use, guidance officers, and research workers interested in significant statistics relating to teaching.

The bulletin is published in the hope that it will be of service to young people who need information about the choice of a career. The dissemination of such information should in the long run assist materially in relieving the present serious shortage of well-qualified teachers in the public-school systems of the country.

JOHN DALE RUSSELL, *Director*
Division of Higher Education.

Teaching as a Career

GENERAL NATURE OF THE PROFESSION

TEACHING is by far the largest, in numbers of persons engaged in it, of the various professions. In 1943-44, the total number of teachers, supervisors, and administrative officers in professional education in the United States, was 1,130,076. This is nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the total number of physicians, lawyers, and clergymen combined. Nearly one-third of all professional and semiprofessional workers are teachers and school officers. In normal times the profession requires from 80,000 to 110,000 new recruits annually.

The importance of the work of the teaching profession is second to that of no other occupation. The very existence of the social, economic, and political life of America and of other highly civilized nations is dependent upon the work of the schools. The teacher has an indispensable place in the preparation of the oncoming generation for vocations, homemaking, civic and social life, leisure-time activities, healthful living, use of the three R's, and related aspects of the life and work of mankind.

The work of the teacher is essential in the preservation of our country. Through the classrooms pass the citizens of the Nation. The foundations of our democracy rest upon the ideas, attitudes, and actions of its citizens. Through their leadership of America's youth, teachers determine to a very large extent the destiny of the Nation; and for this reason leading statesmen from the time of George Washington to the present have paid tribute to the profession of teaching.

The place of teaching among the professions has become established. It is true that where teaching is poorly supported, as in many backward areas, teachers are only partially professionalized. It is also true that for several years teachers' salaries have not kept pace with wages in numerous occupations and that other adverse conditions have affected the profession. There have been serious losses in the number and quality of teacher personnel. However,



TEACHERS PLAY AN IMPORTANT PART IN OUR AGE OF SCIENTIFIC ADVANCEMENT

history shows that such losses are temporary. The long-time conditions that prevail throughout the total expected period of a teacher's service, and not temporary conditions, should be given chief consideration in choosing a profession.

The teaching profession is organized into numerous professional groups. There are many national, regional, State, and local associations and other organizations of teachers. The largest professional organization is the National Education Association with a current membership around 387,000. Total membership of State education associations is around 756,000.

The professional nature of teaching is further indicated by its importance to society. Teaching ranks second to no profession in the preservation and development of the intellectual life and civilization of mankind. The accumulated knowledge and experience of the human race is passed down from one generation to another largely through the profession of teaching. The teacher constantly draws from the storehouse of the richest, finest, and best in human thinking and feeling. He transmits the practical and technical knowledge and skills which have led to the material development of the modern world. He develops an appreciation and love for the beautiful in the arts. He assists in the development of human thinking and of the powers of thought. And not least, he assists in upbuilding the character of men.

Although a wide variety of agencies affords opportunities for teaching services, by far the greatest numbers of positions are in

the public-school systems. There is more money invested in the conduct of the schools than in any other single peacetime enterprise of government except national security. The extent to which the work of the teachers influences the life of every community, and rural area in the country is indicated by the large number of schools. In 1944 there were approximately 170,000 publicly controlled elementary schools and an estimated 10,000 privately controlled elementary schools. The publicly controlled secondary schools numbered nearly 29,000, and the privately controlled secondary schools numbered an estimated 3,000. There was a total of 1,700 institutions of higher education listed in the U. S. Office of Education Directory for 1946-47. Thus, in all, there are well over 200,000 schools and colleges of all types in the United States.

The schools are close to the people whom they serve. The major part of the control over the educational systems is lodged in local authorities. Each of the 48 States has independent control over its own school system. In most States the detailed administration of the public schools, including the appointment and supervision of teachers, is in the hands of local school officials. There are more than 110,000 local school districts in the United States, each of which does its own employing of teachers.

Teaching is comparable to the largest of industries or businesses. The number of elementary school pupils taught in 1946-47 is estimated to be 21,690,000; secondary school pupils, 6,315,000; college and university students, 2,200,000; and pupils in other schools, 375,000. In 1946-47, the schools enrolled an estimated 30,580,000 of the 140,000,000 of our population. More than 3½ billion dollars are spent annually for educational services. These services are rendered in a school plant originally valued at approximately 14 billion dollars (19).¹

SPECIALIZATION IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

No profession offers greater challenge for the exercise of intellectual interests than teaching. There are teachers of subjects in practically every field and on every level of human knowledge (19). Almost any educated person can find a field in teaching that challenges his abilities and likings.

In teaching, as in other professions, there is a strong trend toward increased specialization. Not many years ago "blanket" certificates and loose employment practices often permitted a col-

¹ Figures in parentheses refer to the numbered reference given at the end of this publication. For more detailed information on the topics discussed in this report, the reader is referred to the references listed.

lege graduate to teach most or all of the grades and subjects in the public schools, with too little regard for the subjects in which he was best informed. Now the great majority of prospective teachers begin to prepare fairly early in their college course to teach, for example, elementary school grades; academic high-school subjects, such as science and mathematics; special subjects, such as music or art; vocational subjects, such as agriculture or homemaking; or a college subject.

The nearest remaining approach to unspecialized teaching is instruction in the rural one-teacher schools. Teachers in elementary school grades also teach a variety of subjects and guide children in numerous activities. However, even in broad areas, instruction of a specialized nature is often required to enable the prospective teacher to meet the special needs of the communities and pupils he plans to serve.

In the secondary school most beginning teachers must be prepared to teach two or more subjects, such as a combination of history and English or mathematics and science. It is chiefly in the larger high schools that teachers are scheduled to give instruction in a single subject; such schools in normal times commonly



THERE IS CONSTANT DEMAND FOR TEACHERS TRAINED IN HOME MAKING

require all new appointees to have had previous teaching experience. At the college level the teaching fields are more highly specialized. There is considerable demand at the junior college or lower division level for teachers who have had broad specialization in a field such as physical science. At the more advanced levels of college and university teaching specialization becomes narrower and narrower.

NUMBER OF TEACHERS AND SCHOOL OFFICERS

Some indication of the opportunities in teaching is given by the number of teachers in large areas of employment (table 1).

TABLE 1.—Number of teachers and school officers, by sex and by levels and types of schools, 1943-44

Schools, by level and type	Number of professional workers		
	Men	Women	Total
1	2	3	4
GRAND TOTAL all teachers and administrative officers.....			1, 180, 076
Total teachers.....	226, 886	826, 760	1, 053, 646
Kindergarten and elementary schools:			
Public.....	31, 890	507, 046	538, 936
Private.....	3, 720	61, 792	65, 512
Secondary schools:			
Public.....	94, 782	194, 272	289, 054
Private.....	11, 960	19, 719	31, 679
Preparatory departments of college.....	1, 576	1, 881	3, 457
Higher education:			
Normal schools and teachers colleges:			
Public.....	3, 929	5, 129	9, 058
Private.....	289	564	853
Universities, colleges, and professional schools.....	74, 531	27, 539	102, 070
Miscellaneous (schools for exceptional children, Alaskans and Indians, and private business schools).....	4, 209	8, 818	13, 027
Total administrative officers.....			76, 430
Superintendents: City, county, and local.....			14, 378
Professional or semiprofessional staff members in superintendent's office—assistants, business officers, directors, etc.....			5, 910
Principals and supervisors (public school).....			37, 048
Officers in State departments of education—superintendents, assistants, heads of departments, etc.....			1, 928
Presidents and other nonteaching administrative and professional officers in charge (public and private colleges).....			17, 166

There are many possibilities of specialization in professional education in addition to those indicated in table 1. Teachers prepare especially for service in nursery school, kindergarten-primary, intermediate, junior high, and senior or regular high-school grades; and for teaching a great variety of academic, special, and vocational subjects in junior colleges, technological schools, 4-year colleges, and universities, including research or teaching in graduate and professional schools. Teachers also prepare to instruct special

groups of children, such as the mentally retarded or the physically handicapped. Another example of modern specialized services in which workers in professional education are employed part time or full time is that rendered by teacher-counselors or counselors in school or other guidance programs. Specially qualified supervisors or workers in such specialized services often find their work more remunerative and congenial than routine classroom instruction.

School supervision and administration offer promotional opportunities and a satisfying career to many successful teachers who have the personal and other qualifications necessary for such work. The number of officers in these fields giving half or more than half time to administration and supervision is indicated in table 1. Included among the teachers and administrators listed are 31,569 persons reported as supervising principals and their assistants and 5,479 general-subject, special-subject, and rural supervisors.

NUMBER OF U. S. TEACHERS AND OFFICERS

1943 44

	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
KINDERGARTEN AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS	35,610	568,838	604,448
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	108,318	215,872	324,190
HIGHER EDUCATION	78,749	33,232	111,981
MISCELLANEOUS	4,209	8,818	13,027
Total	226,886	826,760	1,053,646
ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS			76,430
Grand Total			1,130,076

CHART I



SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE IS EVIDENT AROUND SUCH CONFERENCE TABLES

The larger city school systems and the colleges employ numerous professional, technical, and other specialized staff members in addition to those previously listed, including vocational and educational counselors, deans of students, physicians, nurses, dietitians, attendance officers, building superintendents, research directors, and librarians. Not included in table 1 are thousands of educational specialists and officers in business, industry, and government.

Although preparation for teaching involves a certain amount of specialized study, a large part of the curriculum consists of subjects that are generally useful to any well-educated person in other walks of life.

NUMBER OF MEN AND OF WOMEN TEACHERS

There were wide differences in the proportions of men and of women employed in 1943-44 on elementary, secondary, and college levels of instruction, and in publicly and privately controlled schools (table 1). Although men teachers are found in practically every branch of professional education, women teachers greatly outnumber them in the elementary grades, where roughly two-thirds of all pupils are enrolled. The men predominate in numbers chiefly in colleges, in public-school superintendencies and principalships, and in classes attended exclusively or primarily by boys or men, as in agriculture, trade and industrial education, and

physical education for men. About one-third of the teachers in public high schools are men.

The percentage of men teachers in the public schools increased steadily for two decades before World War II began. In 1940, four teachers in every five were women. During the war the proportion of women increased, until in 1945-46, seven teachers in every eight were women. As salaries improve, the percentage of men teachers in all probability will increase again. To a considerable extent, their future numbers will be determined by the extent of the demands for college-trained workers in industry, business, government, and other nonteaching fields.

CONSIDERATIONS IN CHOOSING A SPECIALTY

Successful experience as well as special training is necessary to secure the better-paid positions in specialized fields. For example, a student who wishes to qualify for a position as school supervisor, principal, or superintendent usually should plan first to secure some classroom teaching experience. Moreover, to qualify for large and important supervisory or administrative posts, he will need to serve in similar positions in smaller school systems or as an assistant in large systems.

In deciding upon a grade level, teaching subject, or field of work in which to specialize, a student will naturally give consideration to his abilities, interests, and limitations. He should consider his personal preferences with respect to the age groups of the pupils or students to be taught. His school record and interests in his previous studies and extracurriculum activities, the results of standardized tests which he has taken or can secure, and the advice of qualified guidance officers and of teachers should all be considered. If he has an individual inventory record, he should go over it in consultation with his school counselor to consider his personal and professional assets and liabilities. If he has had experience in dealing with children or young people in any capacity related to teaching, such as scout work or play-group leadership, he should consider carefully his success in such relationships and the satisfactions which such activities have afforded him.

The income and nature of the work and the cost and time required to prepare for it should be given careful consideration in choosing a specialty. For example, a typical high-school teacher of academic subjects is required to complete somewhat more schooling than a typical elementary school teacher is required to complete. This difference, however, is gradually diminishing.

Students who are tempted merely to follow their individual preferences and likings for a subject should remember that these

preferences are often temporary and that a student who makes excellent scholastic records in one subject can, more often than not, make equally good records in other subjects. The demands for teachers in different specialties should therefore be given careful consideration.

TEACHER SUPPLY, DEMAND, AND PLACEMENT

Because of a serious shortage of teachers, opportunities for entering the teaching profession and for securing advancement within it have been excellent during recent years, and will probably remain so for several years. During the school year 1946-47, more than 100,000 teachers with emergency permits who could not meet regular certification requirements were employed. Thousands of overcrowded classrooms await the employment of additional teachers as soon as they can be found. Well over 150,000 additional teachers will be needed to fill entirely new teaching positions to be created during the next few years to meet the needs of increasing postwar pupil enrollments resulting from the rise of the birth rate since 1940.

The relationship of the supply of teachers to the demand varies from year to year and from decade to decade. During the First World War and for a few years thereafter, teachers' salaries were unusually low, and there was a teacher shortage. This shortage slowly changed to a surplus of certificated applicants, which reached its height during the last economic depression (21). Now, after World War II, there is again a shortage of regularly certificated teachers, which in all probability will disappear in time as salaries improve.

The extent of the present shortage of teachers varies among different teaching subjects and fields, between rural and city schools, among States and regions, between men teachers and women teachers, and from year to year. At the present time, probably the greatest shortages of teachers are in the kindergarten and lower primary grades and in rural one-teacher schools. In high schools the greatest demands for teachers are in the natural sciences; mathematics; industrial arts; music; agriculture; home economics; and physical education, including coaching. Shortages are least noticeable in English; social studies, including history; and in foreign languages. In general, but with many exceptions among

different school systems, shortages are greatest where teachers' salaries are lowest, in one-teacher and other small rural schools and in the smaller school systems, in elementary schools, in special and vocational subjects, in subjects in which men teachers are especially desired, and in areas where noneducational agencies furnish considerable competition for a relatively small supply of workers. The turn-over rate of teachers in the rural schools is more than twice as high as that in city schools.

It is probable that for several years the greatest demands for teachers will continue to be in the fields of marked shortage just indicated. Possible future demands for teachers in different subjects and grade levels are also indicated by the percentages of registrants in college-placement offices who secured positions in the various subjects in more normal times. Average placement rates for the graduates of more than 200 higher institutions for 5 years before World War II show that proportionately more registrants were placed in the following subjects than in others: Agriculture, commercial education, home economics, industrial education, library science, music, nursing education, and physical education. Most of these were among the more serious shortage subjects of the war period, during which there were also shortages in chemistry, physics, mathematics, trades and industries, and elementary school teaching in rural and village schools. Before the recent war the lowest placement rates, showing the least demand for teachers, were in biological sciences, chemistry, French, geography, German, history, sociology, and Spanish. Since placement rates differ among colleges, prospective teachers should secure information concerning local demands over a period of years for teachers of different subjects and grades from the placement bureaus, school superintendents, and guidance officers in the areas where they plan to teach.

Among many causes for the more or less periodic recurrence of teacher shortages and surpluses, the most important are the differences between the salaries paid in teaching and in other vocations which compete for college-trained workers. Other causes are the lowering of teacher-certification requirements, which increases the number of persons legally qualified to teach, and the raising of such requirements, which decreases the number, at least temporarily (2). Unfortunately, the minimum standards for teacher certification and teacher employment, unlike those in most established professions, are flexible. They vary from time to time, the extent of the variations depending to a considerable extent upon the sup-

ply of applicants for certification and for employment. Statements concerning an "oversupply" or an "undersupply" of teachers are often questionable because of these conditions. Few States have ever had an oversupply of teachers with the qualifications that educational authorities in general believe they should have, although surpluses of individuals legally certificated often occur.

Within reason, the greater the number of subjects a person can teach, the better his chances for securing a typical public-school position. Ability to handle the more common extracurriculum activities in the type of school in which he hopes to teach will also improve a teacher's chances for employment. If, in addition, an otherwise qualified applicant will strive to meet the maximum rather than the minimum requirements for his chosen field of work, he has little cause for worry about unemployment.

After securing employment, a successful teacher will find his occupation to be a relatively stable one. Variations in the total number of public-school teachers, supervisors, principals, and other instructional staff over the past 15 years were as follows: 1929-30, 880,365; 1933-34, 869,316; 1939-40, 911,835; 1943-44, 865,038; and 1944-45, 864,547. The difference in the total figures of any 2 of the years indicated is less than 48,000 teachers, although the period covers one of the greatest wars and severest depressions in history. The profession provides an essential public service, and the American people will not permit children of school age to remain entirely without teachers for any considerable length of time. However, in times of teacher shortage and of financial depressions which result in reduced school revenues, standards of employment may be lowered, class size may be increased, and special educational services may be discontinued in order to keep classrooms open or to meet reduced school budgets.

The relative numbers of elementary and of secondary school teachers vary considerably from time to time owing to shifts in pupil enrollments. There was a loss between 1930 and 1945 of more than 3.6 million elementary school pupils due to a long-continued decline in the birth rate. This loss was partially offset by an increase in high-school enrollments of approximately 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ million between 1929-30 and 1940-41. High-school enrollments, however, decreased more than a million during the war (20). The increased enrollments of elementary-school pupils, which followed a steadily increasing birth rate during the first years of the war and of the postwar periods, and a postwar recovery of high-school enrollments lost during the war will unquestionably result in an increase in the total number of teachers needed for some time to come.

NATURE OF THE TEACHER'S WORK

The main purpose of teaching is to assist pupils to learn. The teacher brings about desirable changes in the thinking, habits, skills, and attitudes of his pupils. His chief activities are: Classroom instruction, including guidance of pupils in self-help; school and classroom management, including the direction of pupil movements, provision of desirable physical conditions for learning, and the reporting of facts about the school; supervision of extra classroom activities; maintaining effective working relations with the community and with colleagues; maintaining proper physical conditions for health; and advancing in the profession (3). A few illustrations of the detailed instructional duties of teachers that are fairly common to all classrooms are: Getting acquainted with each pupil, setting up aims for units of work, planning materials of instruction and methods of presenting them, helping pupils to meet difficulties in learning, correcting written exercises, assigning work, teaching how to study, and testing pupil achievements and difficulties.

Teaching activities differ considerably among the several grades and types of schools. Classroom instruction, for example, varies with students of different ages and attainments. As students



A FAMILIAR SHOP SCENE IN MANY SCHOOLS

grow older, they increasingly tend to choose for themselves what they will learn, to direct their own study, and to evaluate what is taught. In the elementary grades, the teacher usually works with one group of pupils during the entire day; in the high school and in departmentalized instruction in the upper grades of the elementary school, he commonly meets different groups of pupils during the school day. The work of the elementary school teacher covers a wide range of subjects and activities; that of the high-school teacher, a narrower range. Problems of classroom management differ materially for kindergarten-primary children, adolescents, and college students. So wide are the differences in the duties of teachers that many who are successful in their present positions would fail if they were suddenly transferred to work on a different level of instruction. An intelligent and capable teacher who wishes to change to a different type of educational work can usually make the shift without great difficulty provided he completes the special preparation that may be necessary.

The chief work of the general or special supervisor in elementary and secondary schools is to help teachers grow professionally. This relatively new approach to supervision implies that the supervisor is a leader who provides learning experiences for teachers so that they, in turn, may provide better learning experiences for the pupils. It implies that the supervisor stimulates teachers to exercise initiative in solving their own professional problems. Through various approaches, such as workshops, conferences, city- or county-wide groups, committees, and school faculty projects, teachers are helped to learn to plan, to initiate, and to carry out improved learning activities in their classrooms, and to make valid appraisals of their own success in achieving their professional goals. The supervisor is truly a partner with the teacher in improving instruction, rather than an authority over the teacher who directs her work.

Good supervision also helps the teaching staff to know and understand children—how they grow; to study behavior, and to understand each child as an individual. The supervisor opens the way for teachers to have opportunities to become well informed on the findings of research, to use and evaluate new materials and methods of instruction, to participate in school and community groups concerned with the needs of children and youth, and to have experience working with other leaders concerned with the problems of young people.

The principal is usually the immediate administrative authority to whom the teacher is responsible. He is the administrative head and professional leader of a school division or unit, such as a high

school, junior high school, or elementary school. Some of the duties of principals in the larger school systems are indicated by their titles, such as assistant principal, building principal, district principal, and supervising principal. In small schools, teaching principals often carry a full- or part-time teaching load in addition to their administrative duties. Among many other duties, the principal often assists in the selection, assignment, and promotion

TEACHER SALARIES

1944-1945 (INCREASES SINCE 1945 EQUAL 20-30 PERCENT IN MOST STATES)

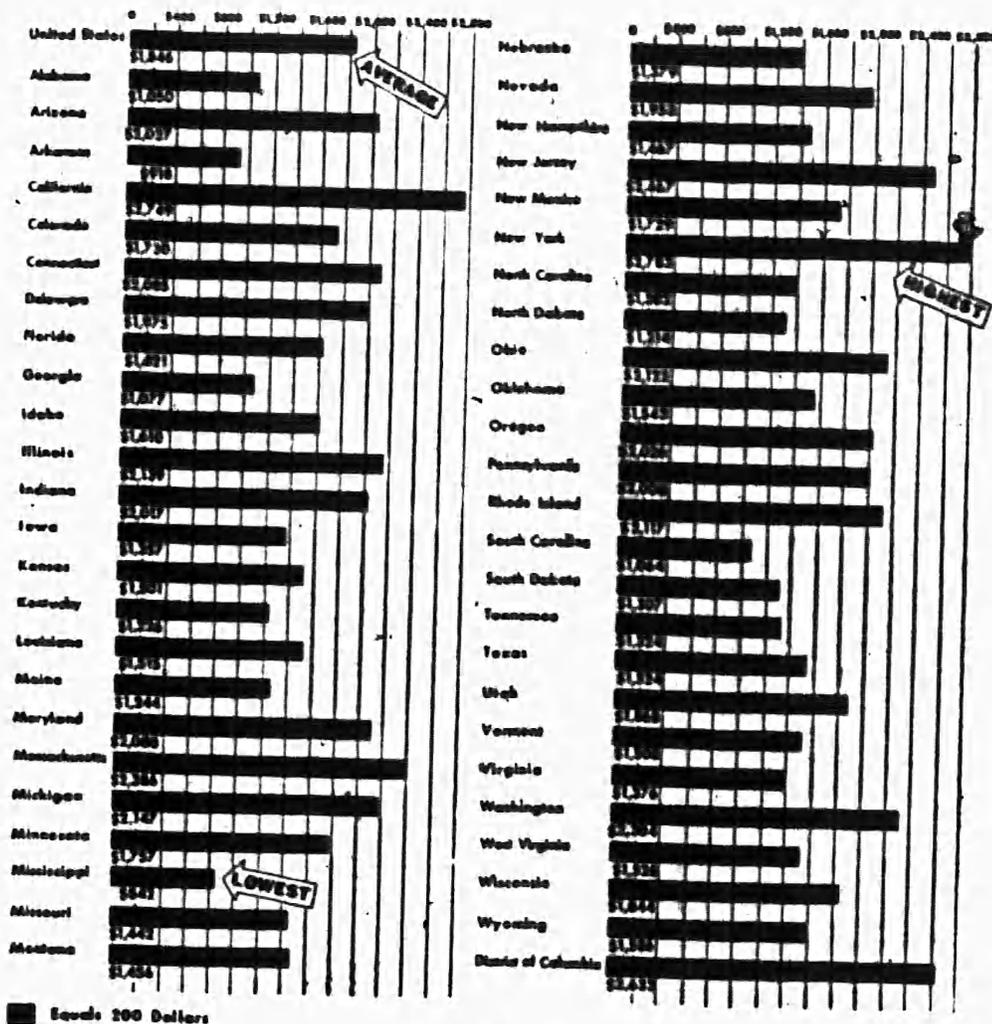


CHART II

of teachers. He is generally responsible for the keeping of pupil records, for maintaining good relationships with parents, for the oversight of the school building and its equipment, and for many of the supervisory services indicated in the two preceding paragraphs.

The officer in general charge of the school system is known as the superintendent. He is the chief advisory and executive officer in State and county school systems and in city and other local school administrative units. If the system is small, the superintendent may also serve as principal of a school building. In a school system having several buildings, the principals are responsible to the superintendent. The board of education, which represents the public, is the policy-making body for the schools. The board employs the superintendent and looks to him as its chief executive officer.

The superintendent is usually responsible for recommending to the board of education the employment of all teachers, principals, supervisors, and other personnel of the school system. The board of education looks to the superintendent for recommendations as to the retention or promotion of each teacher, the salary to be paid, and the assignment of the teacher to a position. The superintendent is usually responsible for the management of business affairs, for the keeping of records and the making of reports, for the general operation and maintenance of the school buildings and equipment, for effective public relations, for constant progress in curriculum revision, and for the development of needed extensions of the school services. In short, the superintendent is the general manager of the school system, and the wisdom of his leadership is important in determining the school's success or failure.

WORKING AND LIVING CONDITIONS

SALARIES

Teachers' salaries vary among States; within States; among school districts of the same type that differ in wealth or educational effort; among teachers with different amounts of preparation, experience, and other qualifications; among grade levels and teaching subjects; and, in some school systems, between men and women. Consequently, average salary figures for a given group of teachers should be considered in connection with other facts about the group.

The average annual salaries of the public-school instructional staff in the several States in 1944-45 varied from \$842 in the lowest State to \$2,783 in the highest (table 2). In typical States, the average probably increased more than 20 percent between 1944-45 and 1946-47. Similar data showing minimum salaries for beginning teachers are not available.

TABLE 2.—Average annual salary per member of public-school instructional staff, by States, 1944-45¹

State	Average salary	State	Average salary
UNITED STATES	\$1,846	Nebraska	1,879
Alabama	1,050	Nevada	1,953
Arizona	2,027	New Hampshire	1,467
Arkansas	918	New Jersey	2,467
California	2,749	New Mexico	1,729
Colorado	1,730	New York	2,783
Connecticut	2,085	North Carolina	1,882
Delaware	1,975	North Dakota	1,814
Florida	1,621	Ohio	2,122
Georgia	1,077	Oklahoma	1,543
Idaho	1,610	Oregon	2,026
Illinois	2,139	Pennsylvania	2,008
Indiana	2,017	Rhode Island	2,117
Iowa	1,857	South Carolina	1,064
Kansas	1,501	South Dakota	1,307
Kentucky	1,226	Tennessee	1,324
Louisiana	1,515	Texas	1,524
Maine	1,244	Utah	1,868
Maryland	2,080	Vermont	1,508
Massachusetts	2,386	Virginia	1,376
Michigan	2,147	Washington	2,304
Minnesota	1,757	West Virginia	1,526
Mississippi	842	Wisconsin	1,844
Missouri	1,442	Wyoming	1,586
Montana	1,456	District of Columbia	2,633

¹ From 1944-45 reports of State departments of education to the Research and Statistical Service, U. S. Office of Education. Prepared by David T. Biosa. Includes principals and supervisors but not superintendents.

TABLE 3.—Median salaries of teachers of different types in cities of varying sizes, 1946-47 (12)

Type of school employee	Median salary paid in cities with population of—				
	100,000 or more	30,000-100,000	10,000-30,000	5,000-10,000	2,500-5,000
	1	2	3	4	5
Classroom teachers:					
Elementary school	\$2,697	\$2,248	\$2,118	\$1,948	\$1,864
Junior high school	3,075	2,546	2,354	2,155	2,087
High school	3,598	2,774	2,595	2,375	2,274
Principals:					
Elementary school (teaching)	2,815	2,576	2,332	2,214	2,071
Elementary school (supervising)	4,334	3,328	3,081	2,948	2,900
Junior high school	4,953	4,016	3,425	2,965	2,625
High school	5,741	4,700	4,071	3,496	3,197
Superintendents of schools	10,000	7,807	5,856	4,719	4,225

The salaries paid to teachers and administrators in city school systems of different sizes vary greatly (table 3) (12). The average for rural school teachers, which is not shown in the table, is less



SERIOUS SHORTAGES OF TEACHERS ARE FOUND IN THE KINDERGARTEN AND LOWER PRIMARY GRADES AND RURAL ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

than for teachers in the smallest sized cities and is only about half the average for all city school teachers.

Salaries of supervisors and directors of special subjects vary considerably but are roughly comparable to those shown for elementary school supervising principals, except in the smaller cities where they average somewhat less.

Salaries shown in tables 2 and 3 do not indicate beginning salaries nor salaries of teachers with different amounts of preparation and experience. In cities of 30,000 to 100,000 population, for example, beginning minimum salaries usually are increased \$110 to \$115 for each additional year of college training, to a specified maximum on the bachelor's or master's degree level. There is a growing tendency to introduce the single-salary schedule. This provides salary opportunities for elementary school teachers that are equivalent to those for high-school teachers with like qualifications. Men teachers, however, are paid somewhat more than women teachers in fewer than half of the cities and towns.

The lowest salaries in teaching are paid in the rural schools. Since slightly more than half of all teachers are employed in schools in the open country or in towns and villages of less than 2,500 population, the low salaries paid in these places bring down the

average for all teachers considerably. Salaries in rural schools, like those in city schools, vary greatly with the preparation and experience of the teachers and with the sizes and types of schools in which the teachers are employed. Satisfactory data for the salaries of all rural teachers are not available, but estimates indicate that the general level of rural teachers' salaries was \$979 in 1930; \$959 in 1940; \$1,018 in 1942; \$1,239 in 1945. Thus, rural school salaries on the average are about two-thirds as large as the national average for all public-school teachers. Moreover, salaries in one-teacher rural schools are considerably less than the average in all rural schools. In many States, salaries in one-teacher rural schools are not half as high as the \$1,864 median salary of elementary school teachers in small towns of 2,500-5,000 population (table 3). The median salaries of teachers in three-or-more-teacher schools in the country and in villages approach but do not reach the \$1,864 median salary of teachers in small-town schools.

Although the salaries in all rural schools probably average only about half those in all urban schools, rural school teachers on the average have had considerably less preparation and fewer years in service than city school teachers. Many city school systems require 2 years of teaching experience for all new appointees. Beginning teachers thus find their greatest opportunity for employment in the rural schools which, because of their low salaries, cannot be too insistent on qualifications beyond the legal minimum. After a teacher has proved to be successful in a rural school position, the opportunity will likely arise to enter a city system at a considerably higher salary. Through the operation of this process the rural and small-town schools have long served as training grounds for city school teachers (8).

Salary raises to which teachers may look forward as their length of service increases vary considerably among different school systems. Elementary school teachers in typical cities of 30,000-100,000 population may look forward to 10 or 12 salary increments of \$75 or \$80 each. Salaries and increments on the average are highest in the larger cities, in high schools, and in positions requiring 4 years or more of college preparation (11, 12). They are smallest in the towns, villages, and especially in the rural schools where lower teacher qualifications are accepted.

Salaries in colleges and universities vary with the academic rank, qualifications, and responsibilities of the teacher; salaries vary among institutions of different types, such as junior colleges, teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities; they vary also among institutions of a given type in accordance with the general level of institutional resources and finances; and salaries vary to

some extent among the various teaching fields at the university level in accordance with competition from noneducational enterprises for the same kind of talent needed on college faculties.

In 1941-42 the median salaries of professors on a 9 months' basis in a limited number of publicly controlled institutions attended primarily by white students ranged as follows: Land-grant colleges and universities, \$4,302; State universities (non-land-grant), \$4,177; State colleges and professional schools (non-land-grant), \$3,194; and teachers colleges, \$3,284. Similarly, in privately controlled institutions, median salaries of professors were: Men's colleges, \$4,168; women's colleges, \$3,534; seven large universities, \$6,676; medium-sized institutions, \$4,131; and small colleges, \$2,295 (22). Associate professors, assistant professors, and instructors averaged less than these amounts. Most younger appointees to college and university faculties start at the rank of instructor or assistant professor. Salaries in typical institutions have increased considerably since 1941-42 and will probably continue to increase for a time. In shortage fields, opportunities for promotion at present are unusually good for young teachers. In normal times and in nonshortage fields promotions come slowly to all but the most capable college teachers.

Most teachers are paid on a monthly basis, but some are paid twice each month. In about two-fifths of the cities they receive their salaries over a period of 12 months. In nearly all of the remainder of the cities they are paid during a period of 9 or 10 months. In rural schools the length of their annual period of service varies, but most commonly it is 8 or 9 months.

PROFESSIONAL AND SOCIAL CONTACTS

Teachers, like many other professional workers, are rather constantly in the public eye. They have many opportunities to build up stimulating professional and social contacts. They have challenging opportunities for leadership through their teacher organizations.

To inform others is a satisfaction to most teachers. For those who enjoy associations with growing boys and girls, the schools provide unusually good opportunities. For those who know of the success of men and women whose lives they have helped to build, there are many rewards in teaching. Persons who like to work with human beings rather than with inanimate objects may well consider entering the teaching profession (4, 10)..

Although many people enjoy the school and community contacts made in teaching, and the wide acquaintances available through



PROFESSIONALLY EDUCATED TEACHERS PREPARE PUPILS FOR A VARIETY OF OCCUPATIONS

their various teacher groups, there are others who prefer to avoid public life. Some seem even bored rather than inspired by day-long contacts with young people. Certain individuals may find unhappiness and frustration in teaching. Many young persons who enter teaching with considerable anxiety discover early in their career that practice brings satisfaction and ease in dealing with people. In any case, a prospective teacher should take stock of his social intelligence and attitudes before he enters teaching, otherwise professional ineffectiveness and professional unhappiness may result.

No matter what his capabilities may be, a teacher should not expect his work, in itself, to bring him universal social acceptance, or wholly satisfactory public recognition. Teaching does provide, however, more opportunities than most occupations for earning these and related rewards.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADVANCEMENT

For a number of years before World War II, salaries paid beginning teachers frequently equalled or exceeded the entrance pay in other occupations which required practically the same amount of college preparation. Reasonably well-prepared teachers are spared the "starving period" undergone by some professional workers

while they are getting a start. The number and size of salary increments, the promotional opportunities, and the total life earnings in teaching, however, should be considered. If a teacher is successful in his work, if he attains the standard of preparation expected for his position and demonstrates continued professional growth, he may usually look forward to periodic salary increments, or at least to occasional increases for a number of years (see section on Salaries). The typical teacher, however, is not usually content with the opportunities for advancement provided in the first teaching position he accepts.

If a classroom teacher wishes advancement in pay beyond the limited increases normally granted in a given position and at the same time desires to stay in the same school system or locality, he may occasionally improve his salary by shifting from elementary to high-school teaching. Adoption of the principle of the single salary schedule, however, is tending to decrease the differences in pay for these two levels of teaching. A teacher may also change from public or private school work to college teaching. Usually he will need to secure additional preparation to qualify for work in an institution of higher education.

Capable and ambitious teachers often secure advancement by accepting positions in supervisory work, assistant principalships, principalships, or superintendencies. Practically all supervisors and nearly all principals and superintendents started their careers as classroom teachers. As in most occupations, promotional opportunities of this kind are largely determined by one's native ability, amount of preparation and experience, initiative, effectiveness of effort in applying for new positions, the element of chance contacts, and other conditions.

Teachers and administrators often increase their salaries and improve their living and service situations by moving from rural and village schools to town and city school systems. Movement from one school or school system to another is fairly frequent, especially in rural schools and in small school systems. More than half of all teachers have taught in two or more school systems. There are many considerations, however, that have a bearing upon whether or not such changes are desirable.

As in other types of public service, there are practically no opportunities at present for teachers to earn the large incomes comparable to those at the top in business, industry, medicine, law, and other vocations. Even superintendents in large cities and presidents of large universities seldom earn more than \$15,000 annually. Only a small fraction of the most distinguished college professors and deans in the Nation are paid more than \$12,000, although some

of them earn additional income through writing books, serving as consultants in industry, or in similar activities.

RETIREMENT PROVISIONS

Public-school teachers in every State now have the opportunity to secure protection through some form of retirement or disability security. In 45 States such protection is provided through joint contributory retirement plans in which both the teacher and the system contribute to the retirement fund. In 3 States protection is provided through State-wide noncontributory pension or related plans. In addition, more than 50 cities and counties have local retirement or pension plans for, or including, teachers. These tend to be absorbed by the State systems.

Although all States now have some form of old-age protection, only in recent years have retirement systems been introduced into a number of States. The provisions vary greatly among States. Seventy years is the most frequent compulsory retirement age. Nearly all the systems have provisions for disability retirement. The average annual superannuation or service retirement allowance paid in 1943-44 varied among States. It was as low as \$300 in one and as high as \$1,500 in another. Half of the former teachers on superannuation or service retirement pay received \$558 or less in 1943-44. Of those on disability retirement, half received \$425 or less. The low allowances in many States are being increased (13, 14).

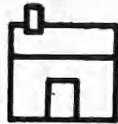
TENURE PROVISIONS

Nearly all beginning teachers are employed for 1 year only. If they are successful during their first year of teaching, one of three plans of employment may be followed thereafter. The most common plan, followed by more than half of the small-town and rural schools and school systems, is to give contracts to teachers for 1 year at a time. The next most common plan, mandatory in a half dozen States and followed by many of the larger cities, is to place teachers on permanent tenure after a probationary period. A third plan is to give them continuing contracts under which they are retained from year to year unless dismissed by the school board. There is a definite tendency to strengthen both State-wide and local teacher-tenure provisions in order to prevent the arbitrary dismissal of competent and experienced teachers. Under the most favored of these tenure provisions, teachers serve a probationary period of from 1 to 3 years, during which time they may be dis-

AVERAGE DAILY CLASSROOM ATTENDANCE

EACH FIGURE = 5 PUPILS

Rural



ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

Cities



ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS



HIGH SCHOOLS



JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION CHART

CHART III

charged at the will of the school board. Thereafter, they may be discharged only after a public hearing and for good cause (15).

LENGTH OF PROFESSIONAL CAREER

The average length of the professional life of the typical teacher was increasing steadily up to the beginning of World War II. During the 1920's and 1930's those who entered the profession increasingly planned to make teaching a career rather than a stepping stone to some other occupation. They were investing more time and money in preparation than ever before in the history of the profession. Although many teachers continued to leave rural and small-town schools to improve their salaries and service conditions, and there was, as there always has been, a fairly heavy continuing loss of women teachers because of marriage, the average age of teachers was steadily increasing. In 1910, the average age of teachers was probably little more than 24 years.

In 1929-30 it was about 30. In 1938-39, the median number of years of experience of all city school teachers in service was about 14 years. The medians ranged, however, from 16.0 years in cities of 100,000 population or more to 9.8 years in cities of 2,500 to 5,000 population. Rural school teachers averaged considerably less experience than those in cities. Typical men teachers were somewhat older and more experienced than typical women teachers. There was little difference in average ages among teachers of different grades (11).

The turn-over rate of teachers, normally about 10 percent, almost doubled at the height of the war period and is still above the average for normal times. At present, however, there are strong indications that, as salaries and working conditions improve, the total period of professional service of typical teachers is beginning to increase again and that it will continue to increase in the future.

Teaching is relatively stable in comparison with many vocations in which emergency, seasonal, and other lay-offs of employees frequently occur. A teacher may count upon holding his position for a contract period of a year at the least. Moreover, even during wars and depressions, relatively few teachers lose their positions involuntarily. Workers in fields in which long periods of unemployment are common have reason to envy teachers with their year-round positions and certain incomes.

Although the total number of teachers changes somewhat from year to year, the membership of the profession has been relatively stable.

TEACHING LOAD, WORKING HOURS, AND VACATIONS

For the country as a whole, the average number of pupils actually under the care of a teacher each day (average daily attendance) was 23.7 in 1943-44. This average has not varied greatly during recent years. There are wide variations, however, among States, school systems, and classes of different types. In 1943-44, the average daily attendance in different States ranged from 14 to 30. In rural one-teacher schools, classes of 10 to 20 pupils were common. In cities, the average was 26 pupils. Among different grade levels, the estimated average number of pupils per classroom teacher for the country as a whole was: Elementary, 25; junior high, 22; junior-senior high, 20; senior high, 19; and regular high, 18. Since 1943-44, there has been a slight increase of perhaps one pupil in each of these averages, and this slow increase will probably continue for a time.

Teachers ordinarily have a 5-day week and enjoy longer vacations than most salaried workers. The time a teacher gives to his

work, however, cannot be measured fairly by the clock and the calendar. At the end of the day and during the week-end, varying amounts of "home work" of various kinds are necessary or desirable. In addition to the usual 25 to 35 hours devoted each week to actual classroom instruction, an additional 9 or 10 hours, on the average, is needed for such activities as keeping records and making reports; extracurriculum activities; helping pupils individually and in groups; attending meetings and conferences with colleagues, parents, committees, and other groups; and preparing for the work ahead (3, 6, 21). In addition, participation in time-consuming community activities is expected of teachers. This requires, in some communities, a total of many hours and days each year.

The total amount and the kind of work done varies somewhat among grade levels, subjects, and schools; for example, teachers of physical education often have longer hours and more pupil contacts during a week than teachers of foreign languages or mathematics. The latter, however, often have more pupil papers to evaluate than the former. Other differences among subjects of somewhat less importance also exist, such as relative difficulties in teaching or learning subject matter and length of class periods.

The average number of days that schools were in session in 1944-45 varied among States from less than 160 days in 1 State to 180 or more (11 States). The national average lies between 170 and 180 days. Summer vacations and holiday periods are much longer than in comparable vocations. Teachers are usually paid by the month and, partially because of their summer vacation, their annual salaries are lower than those received by workers in many other occupations requiring equal ability and preparation. Many teachers, however, utilize the summer vacations to forward their professional growth, through attendance at summer sessions of higher education institutions for further study, through travel that provides broadening experiences, or through out-of-school employment that may contribute to increased effectiveness in the classroom.

Teachers who have taken considerable graduate work and who have achieved distinction in their services are sometimes invited to give instruction at a summer session of an institution of higher education. Numerous city school systems maintain summer sessions for pupils, especially in the high schools, and teachers are needed each summer for that sort of service.

In some school systems where employment and salary are on a 12-month basis, the teacher may be assigned during the summer months when the regular school is not in session to such duties as teaching special summer classes, curriculum revision, research in

projects carried on by the school system, and attendance at a workshop or ~~summer session courses where the experience~~ will be of benefit to the local school system.

Teachers may be absent from duty up to 2 or 3 days with little or no loss of pay in some school systems if they have good reasons for such absences. Although extended leaves of absence for professional improvement are granted by most school systems, and leaves for travel by some, the great majority of these leaves are granted without pay. Sick-leave practices differ widely among school systems. The majority of the systems grant a week or two of sick leave annually with full pay, and many allow part of the salary for longer periods (15).

PHYSICAL SURROUNDINGS AND HEALTH CONDITIONS

The physical conditions in and around the school buildings vary from simple, or even crude surroundings, as in backward one-teacher schools, to the extensive conveniences of modern school



AN ESTIMATED 21,690,000 CHILDREN WERE ENROLLED IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
IN 1946-47

plants in great cities. Out-of-school living conditions vary similarly. Living conditions in cities are usually determined chiefly by one's purse and desires. Facilities for transportation and communication and opportunities for social life have improved considerably in country communities during the past quarter of a century. In many progressive rural areas a teacher's residence is provided near the school, but the great majority of rural school teachers must either find such accommodations as may be available in private homes near the school or else provide their own transportation to and from school.

With respect to physical and health hazards, teaching holds a favorable place among the professions and white-collar occupations. Teachers are considered "good risks" by accident, health, and life-insurance companies.

There is a considerable amount of nervous tension associated with teaching, which is felt especially if the teacher is underqualified, or if his classes are large or difficult to manage. The burden of teaching excessively large classes, meeting high expectations of school officers and parents, and working outside regular school hours occasionally becomes oppressive, but healthy and emotionally well-balanced teachers normally take most of these problems in their stride, considering them as a part of their regular day's work. If they suffer from strain, they can utilize all or part of the unusually favorable opportunities available to them for rest and recuperation during vacation time. Persons who suffer from marked emotional instability should avoid teaching.

SUPERVISION AND RATING

The teacher's work is subject to supervision by school superintendents, principals, supervisors, or occasionally, as in some rural schools, by school-board members. Such supervision may be close and continuous, as in some large cities, or it may be so infrequent as to be almost nonexistent, as in some one-teacher rural schools. The teacher has more freedom of action than most types of salaried workers, but somewhat less than independent practitioners in other professions. However, well-prepared supervisors have been taught to assist teachers rather than direct them, and capable teachers generally welcome assistance by such supervisors as an opportunity for improving their services. Although a teacher may occasionally be rendered unhappy by a school officer who lacks some of the essential traits of a good supervisor or administrator, there are fully as many means of meeting this situation in teaching as there are in other occupations.

Teachers are constantly having their services evaluated through the judgments made by pupils, parents, and other members of the community. School officers have the responsibility of evaluating the quality of the service rendered by the teachers under their direction. Commonly these evaluations are made by subjective means and rest upon general impressions rather than objectively derived facts. In order to improve these indecisive means of teacher evaluation, rating scales have been developed and are used in many school systems. About two-thirds of the cities with 100,000 or more population, about one-third of the cities of from 2,500 to 5,000 population, and a still smaller proportion of the rural school systems evaluate teaching services through the use of some kind of teacher-rating device. The 10 items most commonly included in the forms are: Instruction, classroom management, professional attitude, choice of subject matter, personal habits, discipline, appearance of room, personal appearance, cooperation, and health. There has been a slight decrease during the last quarter of a century in the use of teacher-rating devices. Few teachers are completely satisfied with the methods used in the construction and administration of rating scales. However, these devices are intended to provide a more exact and fairer basis for administrative and supervisory action than the highly inexact methods commonly used, and some form of evaluation appears to be necessary.

COMMUNITY DEMANDS AND RESTRICTIONS

The adjustment of a teacher to a community and of the community to its teachers is usually made without great difficulty. Mutual adjustments are facilitated, however, if the teacher's choice of a community and the school's choice of a teacher have been carefully made in the first place. A teacher of sound character, temperate habits, a well-balanced personality, and a reasonable amount of social intelligence and good taste usually has little difficulty in adjusting to typical community demands. But not all teachers have the qualities indicated, nor are all communities typical. In a considerable number of instances teachers complain about community restrictions and demands, and communities are harshly critical of the teacher.

The maladjustments which these conditions indicate are probably found most frequently in rural areas and in small towns where the teacher is almost constantly in the public eye. Rather commonly such habits as profanity, excessive social life, smoking, use of intoxicants, and aggressive pronouncements of unpopular views



EARLY EXPERIENCE WITH THE "MIKE"

on controversial subjects are severely criticized. The fact that a teacher belongs to a certain religious denomination, race, or social group may occasionally make him unpopular with, or wholly unacceptable to, some persons in the community. The interest of parents in the teachers of their children is entirely natural, and it has its rewards as well as its penalties. Persons who enjoy public life usually feel that the advantages of public service outweigh its disadvantages. In any case, an applicant for a position should ascertain the nature of any unusual restrictions through inspection of contract forms, correspondence with employers, and in other ways before accepting employment. Usually the meeting of reasonable community expectations is helpful to the teacher in more ways than one. Arbitrary restrictions may often be ignored. In some cases—and these are not very common—the teacher will be unable or unwilling to meet the demands of certain communities and may wish to seek a position elsewhere. †

REQUIREMENTS FOR BECOMING A TEACHER

PERSONAL ABILITIES

Because of the social importance of teaching, the profession is entitled to a large share of the ablest college graduates. However, the schools require so many new workers each year, and the requirements for some of them are so low that the profession still draws its

recruits from nearly all levels of ability found among college students. Prospective teachers therefore constitute a fair cross section of the college student body. In general if students can do creditable college work, are sound in body, mind, and character, and display reasonable social intelligence, they have a good chance of meeting the minimum requirements of the profession. High standing and rapid advancement in the profession, however, usually demand definitely superior abilities. The best scholars in the country are sought by outstanding schools, colleges and universities. Not only superior scholarship or knowledge of subject matter but also fundamental related traits, such as intelligence and good judgment, are highly important in teaching (2, 3).

Closely related to the foregoing is breadth of interest, a peculiarly appropriate and helpful trait for a teacher. A teacher with genuine interest in his profession, in his community, and, above all else, in the pupils he teaches is likely to succeed.

As in the case of other workers in public life, sincerity is a most important trait for a teacher. Also important are effective and pleasing personality traits and ability to mingle well with the public.

Good character, including firmness and forcefulness when in the right, dependability, intellectual honesty, self-control, morality, sound ethical character, and related traits are essential in genuinely successful teaching. Leadership abilities are important in teaching, supervision, and administration.

Adaptability and cooperation, including the ability to get along well with others, are rated highly by almost everyone, especially school administrative officers. Other important traits are carefulness, enthusiasm, emotional stability, fairness, pleasing voice, industry, cheerfulness and a sense of humor, open-mindedness, refinement, and tact (3).

Good health is desirable. Persons whose physical condition is such as to interfere seriously with their teaching effectiveness or who have marked speech defects, infectious or communicable diseases, excessive overweight, and physical abnormalities that make for painful or unfortunate impressions upon children should avoid teaching (9).

REQUIREMENTS FOR CERTIFICATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Each State, except Massachusetts in the case of most teachers, requires that all, or nearly all, persons who enter public-school work shall secure a teaching, supervisory, or administrative certificate appropriate to his work. Some school superintendents and

other school officers are not certificated, but the number is decreasing.

In most States, private school teachers are not required to hold certificates issued by the State, but they must meet such special requirements of parochial or other private school authorities as may exist. These requirements are similar in some respects to those of the public schools. College teachers are rarely certificated except in junior colleges in some States, where they are often considered secondary school teachers.

Certificates are usually issued by the certification division of the State department of education, which will supply a copy of the State certification requirements free upon request. In a decreasing number of States, certain county or city school officers, or college officials, may issue certificates also. A small fee is often required for the issuance of certificates. Very few States recognize the certificates issued in other States. Certification requirements are never quite the same in any two States. Before the war requirements were often changed, and many changes are to be expected in the future as the supply of teachers increases. The length of time during which certificates are valid ranges from 1 year to life. Prospective teachers should ascertain several semesters in advance of graduation what courses they must take to meet the certification requirements of the States in which they wish to teach (17, 22, 23).

The requirements for certificates vary among and within States, in accordance with the nature of the issuing office, the basis of issuance, the type of certificate, the type of position to be filled, and the preparation, experience, and other qualifications of the applicant. The lowest regular requirements are made for certificates issued upon examination to rural and elementary school teachers. In 1946, these requirements were as follows, by numbers of States: No definite scholarship requirement specified, 6; 4 years' high school, usually including some elementary professional preparation, 3; high school and less than one-third year of college, 1; 1 year of college, 2; 2 years of college, 2. The District of Columbia requires the bachelor's degree as a prerequisite of the examination for the regular elementary school certificate. Compared with the total number of teachers, relatively few secure certificates by examination. Most teachers secure certificates based upon college credits, such certificates being issued in all States. The *lowest* requirements in college years for beginning elementary school certificates issued upon college credits, and the number of States making these requirements, are: 1 year or less, 11; 2 years, 14; 3 years, 8; and 4 years, 15. The District of

Columbia also requires 4 years. Slight variations from these figures exist in actual practice. Plans are being made in several States to raise these requirements as soon as the supply of teachers permits.

For teaching academic subjects in accredited high schools the bachelor's degree is a standard requirement for certification. Five States require a year of graduate work for the high-school teaching certificate, and the number of States making this requirement is expected to increase.

Although State requirements for teachers' certificates are the minimum legal prerequisites for the employment of teachers, many local school systems require more preparation for employment than the States require for certification. Moreover, the better positions usually go to the better-prepared teachers. About two-thirds of all cities now require 4 years of college work for regularly qualified elementary school teachers; most of the remainder, 2 or 3 years. Two or 3 years is also a common requirement for the employment of rural elementary school teachers, although many rural school employers require only the preparation necessary for the applicant to secure a certificate. The bachelor's degree is the minimum required for the employment, as well as the certification, of most high-school teachers. Five years of college work is required for employment by more than 10 percent of all city high schools (16), and at least some graduate work is increasingly expected.

In 1939, the median numbers of years of college preparation of teachers in service in cities of all sizes were: Kindergarten, 3.1; elementary school, 3.4; junior high school, 4.5; senior high school, 4.8; and total, 4.2 (11, 13). Rather surprisingly, there were no great differences in the median amounts of preparation in cities of different sizes. However, the higher salaried and longer experienced teachers are usually found in the larger cities.

Until World War II began, there had been a steady rise for a number of years both in certification and in employment requirements. The disruptions of the war resulted in a serious shortage of qualified teachers, which had to be met by the issuance of large numbers of temporary permits to applicants with substandard qualifications. Following the return to more normal conditions, it is expected that the requirements for teaching certificates and for employment will continue to be raised. To meet these requirements prospective elementary school teachers should ordinarily plan to secure the bachelor's degree, and high-school teachers the master's degree as soon as practicable.

The teacher-certification regulations of practically every State include the requirement of a certain amount of work in professional education; that is, in such subjects as student teaching, educational psychology, and principles and methods of teaching. The number of semester hours required in professional education for the certification of high-school teachers varies among States from 12 to 27, the average being about 18 hours. One or more majors, minors, or fields of specialization in subjects commonly taught in the high school are usually required. Elementary school teachers generally are required to have a heavier concentration of professional courses in education and a broader distribution of studies among the academic fields than high-school teachers are required to have. There are various other requirements for certification, also, such as citizenship, health, moral character, etc. (17, 22, 23).

The minimum age requirement for certification is usually 18 years, but school officers prefer to employ somewhat more mature persons as teachers. Before the war about one-third of the cities



ASSISTING PUPILS TO LEARN IS A SATISFYING EXPERIENCE

required a year or two of teaching experience for employment. In normal times, many school systems do not appoint married women or retain a woman teacher in service after she marries. Many communities give preference to local residents as teachers (16). These restrictions were broken down in many school systems during the war. The requirements for employment beyond certification requirements can best be learned at the offices of the superintendents of schools. These requirements vary not only among school systems but also with the supply of teachers. If a number of applicants apply for the same position, the one with the highest qualifications is usually selected.

In 1947 practically every State is issuing emergency permits or certificates valid for 1 year. Usually these are issued upon the recommendation of local school-employing officers, and the requirements for them are distinctly lower, on the average, than for regular certificates (22). The issuance of emergency permits, however, is expected to decline rapidly as improved salaries and working conditions attract a sufficient supply of well-qualified teachers.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PREPARATION

TEACHER-PREPARING INSTITUTIONS—CURRICULA AND COURSES

Nearly all the 1,700 institutions of higher education in this country provide some part of the preparation needed by teachers in broad, general education and in the specialized subjects to be taught in academic, special, technical, or vocational fields. Of the 1,700 institutions, about 1,200 are specifically approved by State departments of education for the preparation or certification of teachers. The graduates of the teacher-preparing curricula of these approved institutions are granted teachers' certificates without examination and without having to transfer to some other institution to secure courses required by the State. In 1938-39, the institutions approved for teacher preparation included some 238 teachers colleges and normal schools, 677 colleges and universities, 228 junior colleges, and 53 independent professional or technical schools.

Requirements for the admission of prospective teachers to colleges are usually the same as the requirements for the admission of other students. For admission to teachers colleges, graduation

from an accredited high school, with a minimum of 15 to 16 high-school units of credit, is nearly always required, except of special students admitted upon examination. Usually from 5 to 10 units are required in academic subjects, including from 2 to 4 units of English, required in nearly all institutions; and from 1 to 3 units each in mathematics, natural science, and history and social



TEACHING AFFORDS FINE OPPORTUNITIES FOR WORKING WITH YOUNG PEOPLE

science, required in more than half the institutions. Two or three units of foreign language are required in less than half of the teachers colleges. In some institutions, chiefly those in certain Northeastern States, and those located in large cities, selective admission requirements exclude high-school graduates with marked scholastic and other deficiencies. These and other admission requirements, including character, personality, and physical requirements, if any, are described in the catalogs of the colleges. The liberal, cultural, or general education courses, which are

taken chiefly during the first 2 years of the college curricula, may be secured in most institutions of higher education, including junior colleges. Teachers of academic high-school subjects receive their specialized preparation in practically all types of 4-year liberal arts colleges, State colleges, teachers colleges, and universities (5). Prospective teachers in vocational or special fields, such as agriculture, trade and industrial subjects, commercial education, home economics, and music, usually attend universities, land-grant colleges, and technological or other special-type schools, and thus have a narrower choice of institutions. Kindergarten and elementary school teachers usually attend teachers colleges or normal schools, but a considerable number attend other colleges or universities that offer elementary school curricula. School administrators and supervisors take most of their specialized courses on the graduate level.

A high percentage of the courses in most teacher-education curricula are required. In most colleges, however, there is opportunity to secure a sufficient number of electives to meet at least some of the special interests and needs of the student which are not met in his required courses.

In choosing an institution in which to prepare for teaching, catalogs and all other available sources of information should be consulted freely. The general standing of the institution, its purposes, its reputation in teacher education, the quality and length of its cultural, specialized, and professional curricula and courses, the cost of attendance, and similar matters should be carefully investigated months in advance of registration time. Nowadays, advance reservations are usually necessary. Prospective teachers are advised to enter only an institution that is accredited by recognized and appropriate regional or national accrediting associations (18). In any event, the institution should be approved by the State department of education of the State in which the teacher plans to teach, otherwise he may be unable to secure the regularly required teaching certificate (17). The curricula should be investigated carefully, because satisfactory specialized subject matter often can be found only in a limited number of institutions, and some colleges that have an excellent reputation in other fields do not maintain strong programs of professional work in education. Usually universities having schools or colleges of education, colleges and technological institutions having strong departments of education with satisfactory training school and student teaching facilities, and teachers colleges and normal schools offer acceptable professional courses. Good student teaching facilities are impor-

tant, for beginning teachers can best learn to teach children by working with them under expert guidance.

Although the completion of the teacher-preparing curricula in an approved institution usually enables the graduate to meet certification requirements of the State in which the institution is located, the prospective teacher throughout his years in college nevertheless should keep himself informed concerning the certification requirements of that State and of other States in which he wishes to teach. Requirements are changed occasionally, usually in the direction of higher standards.

Possibly more than in any other profession, teachers continue their schooling after they enter paid employment. Teachers who wish to raise the grades of their certificates or keep them alive, who wish to secure their first degrees or advanced degrees, who wish to secure promotion, or who wish to keep abreast of the constant changes in education, all take college courses including courses given in extension classes during evenings and Saturdays, attend summer sessions, and secure other forms of in-service preparation (5). One teacher in every four or five annually attends a



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summer session. These sessions are conducted in the majority of institutions approved for the education of teachers.

All persons who plan to prepare for teaching should check the various requirements for preparation, certification, and employment mentioned in this publication with the corresponding requirements of the higher institutions they plan to attend, their State certification office, and their prospective school employers, when possible.

COST OF PREPARATION

The expenses of college students vary greatly among the different kinds of institutions. They also vary among institutions of the same kind, according to their location, size, reputation, and other characteristics. Usually expenses are lowest in tax-supported State or municipal institutions. A prospective student may ascertain costs in the institution of his choice from its catalog or from the registrar. Usually students spend more than the minimum averages reported. On the other hand, many students who live at home or with relatives spend less.

Opportunities to obtain scholarships and fellowships and to earn part of the expenses of securing an education are available in considerable numbers in the colleges. Loan funds are also available in many institutions. Persons employed full time sometimes complete some of a year's college work annually by attending a nearby institution or extension center during late afternoons, evenings, and Saturdays. This demands steady application, however.

In more than half the States, students who have completed 2 or 3 years of normal school or college work, including the required work in professional education, can secure positions in rural or other elementary schools and complete their preparation later. High-school teachers usually have their first degree when they enter teaching but often continue work later for the master's degree or for the doctorate. It is necessary for some teachers to "earn while they learn." However, healthy and intelligent young people who are willing to work long hours and forego vacations should have no great difficulty nowadays in completing 4 years of college work before they begin teaching.

SELECTION AND PLACEMENT OF TEACHERS

The means most commonly used by employers to find candidates for teaching vacancies are as follows, in order of decreasing importance: (1) Secure names of candidates from college-placement bureaus, commercial teachers' agencies, State department of edu-

ation or other State employment services, State teachers association placement services, and other sources; (2) use applications sent in voluntarily by candidates; (3) make inquiries in other school systems; (4) make inquiries at conventions and similar gatherings; and (5) publish announcements of positions to be filled (16, 22).

While some teachers and prospective teachers are fortunate enough to secure positions upon invitation by employers, in normal times most applicants secure their positions largely through their own efforts. Candidates are most successful in securing positions when they make their availability known widely among employers. They should keep their registration up to date in the placement offices of the colleges they have attended; they may wish to register with some public or private teacher-placement offices in areas where teachers are in demand; they should secure information about vacancies through employers or acquaintances now in teaching or in attendance at conventions or other meetings; and they need to make prompt application whenever suitable vacancies are discovered (16, 22).

The usual procedure in securing a position, after a vacancy is discovered, is for the applicant to apply to the superintendent of schools. Most appointments are made in March, April, or May, but many are made at other times also. An application blank is usually sent to the applicant, which he should complete and return promptly. Further information is then collected about him, and if he is seriously considered for a position, a personal interview is arranged when possible. Other employment practices, which are followed more frequently in the larger cities than in the smaller cities and rural school systems, include a physical examination of the applicant, observation of his teaching, request for a transcript of his credits, and a verification of his experience record (16). A small percentage of the cities regularly require written examinations of applicants. About one-third of the cities have eligibility lists on which the name of a teacher may be held before his appointment is made. When finally selected and nominated by the superintendent of schools, the candidate is usually appointed by the board of education. A contract is then signed, or the teacher is otherwise notified of his appointment. He is then ready to begin his professional service.

SOME FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

In conclusion, the advantages and disadvantages of teaching as a career will not impress any two persons in exactly the same way.

The economic and social status of a person, his abilities, and his particular likes and dislikes are often more powerful factors in determining the desirability of a particular occupation for him than the characteristics of the occupation itself. Moreover, one's impressions of the advantages and disadvantages of teaching are largely determined by the advantages and disadvantages of other occupations as he himself sees them. Further, the relative desirability of teaching and other occupations varies from period to period. Thus, teaching appeared so desirable during the depression of the 1930's that there was a large surplus of applicants for teaching positions, although most of these were admittedly underprepared. At present, teaching appears to many to be less desirable than many occupations with higher salaries and wages. In normal times, there is a fair balance of teacher supply and demand in most subjects, although again it must be said that even then the qualifications of typical teachers have not met the high standards that the social importance of their service demands. For a large number of teachers, one of the most important rewards of teaching is the feeling of satisfaction that comes from service in an occupation of high social significance.

A final consideration in evaluating teaching as a career is that it is resuming, even now, its unprecedented prewar development. One who enters teaching enters a career that offers all of the freshness, vitality, and challenge of a rapidly developing profession. During the three decades prior to World War II, the professional stature of the typical public-school teacher grew from that of a poorly paid high-school graduate with little desire to remain in his vocation to a reasonably well-educated and mature professional worker, with materially improved income, tenure, and professional reputation. The status of teachers improved at a rate unequalled in the history of the profession. There is little question that the popularity of teaching as a career will increase steadily during the years just ahead.

SOURCES OF ADDITIONAL INFORMATION: SELECTED REFERENCES

High-school students and others interested in teaching may consult to advantage with counselors, teachers, school librarians, supervisors, principals, and superintendents or their assistants on the topics discussed in this publication. Observation of teaching and other work in professional education in different schools is also helpful and can easily be arranged. The following sources will provide much additional information for students and counselors. The figures preceding the references correspond to the citation figures in the text of this publication.

(1) AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. Commission on Teacher Education. Final Report Series of the Commission. Washington 6, D. C., The Council, 1944-46.

Although of primary interest to school and college staff members, many topics are of interest to prospective teachers. The series includes: The improvement of teacher education; The college and teacher education; Evaluation in teacher education; Helping teachers understand children; Teacher education in service; Toward improving Ph. D. programs; Teachers for our times; and State programs for the improvement of teacher education.

(2) AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION. Teacher personnel. By Arvil S. Barr, *ch.*, and Others. *Review of Educational Research*, 16: 193-299, June 1946.

See also Volumes I, April 1931; IV, June 1934; VII, June 1937; X, June 1940; and XIII, June 1943.

In each volume, authorities briefly review the literature on the more important topics relating to teachers. Contains numerous selected references on each topic.

(3) CHARTERS, W. W., and WAPLES, DOUGLAS. The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1929. 666 p.

Although old, the contents are still quite pertinent. Suggests materials for developing teacher-education curricula and methods of supervision. Contains many items expressing teacher traits, lists of activities performed, and an evaluation of teacher activities.

(4) ELSBREE, WILLARD S. The American Teacher. Evolution of a profession in a democracy. New York, American Book Co., 1939. 566 p.

Tells the story of the American public-school teacher during the last three centuries, including important recent trends, and the present status of personnel practices and requirements. Comprehensive.

(5) FRAZIER, BENJAMIN W. Education of teachers: Selected bibliography. October 1, 1935, to January 1, 1941. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1941. 60 p. (U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1941, No. 2.)

Contains selected and annotated references on the more important problems in teacher personnel administration, with emphasis upon teacher preparation. This publication is the third in a series of printed bibliographies on teacher education. References in numerous fields are kept up to date in typewritten form between the dates of successive printings.

(6) HOULE, CYRIL O. Teaching as a career. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1940. 48 p. (Occupational Monographs, No. 5.)

A detailed manual for persons considering teaching as a career.

(7) INSTITUTE FOR RESEARCH. Teaching as a career. Chicago, The Institute [1939]. [33 p.]

Topics discussed include the field of teaching, teaching as a profession, divisions of the American school system, teaching duties, personal qualifications, training, advantages, disadvantages, salaries, tenure, selection, and ethics. Contains a bibliography.

(8) NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. COMMITTEE ON THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE RURAL TEACHER. Teachers in rural communities. Washington, D. C., The Association, 1939. 125 p.

Contains reports for about 11,000 rural teachers on professional status, living conditions, family responsibilities, transportation facilities, cultural opportunities, salaries, income, expenditures, property, and debt.

(9) ——— Department of Classroom Teachers. Fit to teach. Ninth Yearbook. Washington, D. C., The Association, 1938. 276 p.

Discusses teachers' physical and mental health, personal health practices, work of professional organizations, health standards for entering teaching, and many similar topics.

(10) ——— Future teachers of America. First to seventh yearbooks, 1941 to 1947. Washington, D. C., The Association, 1941-47.

Lists chapters and gives other information about the organization of Future Teachers of America. Contains much inspirational material of interest to young persons who are considering teaching as a career.

(11) ——— Research Division. City teachers: Their preparation, salaries, and experience. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 18: 1-47, January 1940.

Gives facts concerning more than 200,000 teachers in 1938-39, in cities of all sizes above 2,500 in population.

(12) ——— Salaries of city school employees, 1946-47. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 23: 1-23, February 1947.

Gives salary trends since 1930-31, range and distribution of salaries in 1946-47, comparisons between positions and levels, and status of salary schedules.

(13) ——— The status of the teaching profession. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 18: 49-79, March 1940.

Discusses the general composition of the teaching population, and teachers' preparation, certification, experience, mobility, salaries, load, retirement, health, academic freedom, and professional associations.

(14) ——— The teacher looks at personnel administration. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 23: 95-147, December 1945.

On the basis of 4,167 replies from an inquiry directed to urban teachers and 764 replies for rural teachers, discusses attitudes and morale, relationship between local practice and teacher opinion, teacher status and morale, and related questions. Give teachers' opinions on a number of issues in personnel administration relating to salaries, rating, no-marriage rule, required preparation in service, working conditions in their various aspects, etc.

(15) ——— Teacher personnel procedures: Employment conditions in service. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 20: 83-116, May 1942.

Discusses salaries and related factors, development of personnel in service, sick leave and related problems, termination of service, and the administration of personnel program.

(16) ——— Teacher personnel procedures: Selection and appointment. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, 20: 1-79, March 1942.

Discusses the agents who select and appoint teachers, standards for eligibility, recruitment and evaluation of candidates, and appointment and orientation. Contains selected references.

(17) STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION. Rules and regulations governing the certification of teachers.

State departments will send material free upon request, giving detailed information concerning teacher-certification requirements, State-approved institutions, etc.

(18) U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. Educational directory, 1946-47. In 4 parts. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947.

Part I lists Federal and State school officers; Part II, County and city school officers; Part III, Colleges and universities; Part IV, Educational associations and societies. Useful in learning names of accredited institutions, school-employing officers, and others.

Special lists of accredited institutions and of references helpful in evaluating them will be sent free by the Office upon request.

(19) ——— Statistical summary of education, 1941-42. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1944. 42 p. (Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1940-42. Vol. 2, ch. 2.)

Contains basic information about elementary, secondary, and higher education, with respect to number of schools and school administrative units, enrollments and graduates, trends, number of teachers by types, income and expenditures, and related matters.

(20) ——— Statistics of State school systems, 1943-44. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1946. 78 p. (Biennial Survey of Education . . . 1942-44. Ch. II.)

A standard statistical source of information on pupil enrollments, the instructional staff, public-school finance, etc.

(21) ——— Teacher personnel in the United States. By Edward S. Evenden; Guy C. Gamble; and Harold G. Blue. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1935. (Office of Education. Bulletin, 1933, No. 10. National Survey of the Education of Teachers. Vol. II.)

Although old, this volume contains valuable comparative data taken from questionnaires completed by nearly half of the teachers in the United States, more than 21,000 college staff members, and thousands of teachers-college and normal-school students.

(22) ——— [Teacher placement offices, State certification requirements, Suggestions to prospective teachers, and other information concerning teaching positions.] Washington, D. C., The Office, 1947. Mimeograph.

Includes various circulars and other materials designed to answer the most common questions of applicants for teaching positions.

(23) WOELLNER, ROBERT C. and WOOD, M. AURILLA. Requirements for certification of teachers and administrators in elementary and secondary schools and junior colleges. Twelfth edition, 1947-48. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1947. Processed. (Revised annually.)

An annual digest of certification requirements for elementary schools, high schools, and junior colleges of the various States.