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The Status of the Teaching Profession

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FOREWORD

THE POSSIBILITIES of professional organizations as potent factors in modern life have not yet been fully sensed. As individuals, teachers have often been timid. As professional groups they frequently have failed to express themselves frankly and vigorously. Sometimes it has been because they have been divided within their own group. Again they have feared the attitude of the public or they have dreaded the reprisals from influential politicians. But the time has now come when, if teachers are to live up to the possibilities of their profession, they must act more courageously and more aggressively as members of their professional organizations.

Teachers are potentially the strongest professional group in America. As a profession we have not yet begun to achieve the possibilities within our reach. In our ranks we have allowed ourselves to be divided over insignificant and petty details, frequently to the advantage of our enemies. Our professional organizations have not wielded the social power which they have at their disposal. Education is not today receiving the attention and financial support which it merits, and the responsibility is largely our own. In this connection we may well remember Cassius' classic reply to Brutus, "The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars, but in ourselves, that we are underlings."

Working alone few of us can exert much influence upon professional progress; thru organized effort more can be accomplished. We need to participate actively in community affairs. Some of us do not even vote regularly in local elections, thereby failing to express our choices on matters of professional importance. When we are indifferent to the civic aspects of educational issues, have we reason to expect other citizens to be more active? Francis Bacon wrote, "I hold every man a debtor to his profession." If we are a part of the profession of teaching we should be willing to give some of our time and money to its improvement.

The present RESEARCH BULLETIN outlines the current professional status of teaching. There is a great deal in the picture to make us proud; there is much to be done if we are adequately to serve democracy thru its youth.

WILLARD E. GIVENS, *Executive Secretary*
National Education Association

Introduction

In classrooms the forces which will govern the nation in the future are taking shape in the minds of the boys and girls now subject to the influence of teachers. Educational policies are likely to be mere words on paper and well-planned programs will fail to achieve their purpose unless trained and competent persons are situated at the points of closest contact with those who go to school. Thus, the status of classroom teachers is of vital importance to every citizen in the United States.

In 1870 approximately one person in 192 was a classroom teacher in the public elementary or secondary schools. Today there is one teacher for every 148 persons in the total population. The average daily attendance in public schools has risen at a rate which is three times the percent increase in the number of children five to seventeen years of age, inclusive. With this increase in pupils has come an unprecedented demand for classroom teachers. From 200,000 in 1870 the number of classroom teachers (not counting administrators and supervisors) has increased almost 340 percent to approximately 877,000. Of this number, seven-tenths are teaching in kindergartens and elementary schools and three-tenths are in junior and senior high schools. A little more than one-half of all teachers are working in schools in the open country or in towns under 2500 in population.

This bulletin is an attempt to gather objective facts pertaining to the present status of classroom teachers. It is for the information of teachers themselves, administrators and leaders of educational thought, civic and professional organizations concerned with teacher welfare, and the taxpaying public. While personal qualifications and social adjustments should have an important place in any cross-section study of the teachers of the United States, objective data on these matters are not generally available.

The bulletin includes information on the following phases of the status of classroom teachers: general composition of the teaching population; educational preparation and certification; professional experience and mobility; salaries and economic condition; professional

load; provisions for tenure; provisions for retirement; professional associations of teachers; mental and physical health; and academic freedom. The findings of existing professional studies, the regular reports and special bulletins of the United States Office of Education, and the periodic and special surveys of the National Education Association are the sources of information. In all instances the most recent available data are reported. Reference to past status is made only when it is felt that the present situation is thus clarified.

The data presented are, for the most part, general and national in scope. All facts relate to classroom teachers in public elementary and secondary schools. No doubt a similar study of the teaching profession engaged in college and university instruction is also desirable. Such a report is a future possibility.

Statistics are reported thru pictorial graphs. Altho the majority of teachers are women, the male figure has been used in most of the charts. This is in accordance with the accepted policy of using the masculine gender when data do not specify a sex differentiation. No effort has been made to document each statement but the reader who is interested in details is referred to the specific citations at the end of the bulletin. Special acknowledgment is made to the federal Office of Education for providing recent information on various phases of public education.

The final section suggests certain current trends, both within and outside the teaching profession, which have a bearing on the future status of classroom teachers. Existing social and economic forces in the country have largely determined the teachers' present position. The attitudes and actions of teachers themselves have made further contribution to the existing situation. These same influences will continue to operate. If the educational needs of children are to be met adequately, if teachers are to occupy the place in society which their responsibilities warrant, the trends examined in this last section of the bulletin should be considered carefully both by educators and by the lay public.

CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

FIGURE I



• EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS 30,000 TEACHERS.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: Compiled from unpublished statistics for state school systems, 1937-38 and secondary school survey figures 1937-38, supplied by David T. Blose, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, February 6, 1940.

I. General Composition of the Teaching Population

In 1870, 39 percent of the public elementary- and secondary-school teachers were men and 61 percent were women. Today, 79 percent are women. For the various types of schools the proportion of women teachers is approximately as follows: in the kindergartens and elementary schools, 88 percent; in the reorganized high schools, 62 percent (junior high schools alone have almost 70 percent women); and in the regular and vocational high schools, 56 percent. The greater number of men teachers on the secondary level does not markedly affect the general proportion for all schools because kindergarten and elementary-school teachers constitute seven-tenths of the public school teaching population. Among rural teachers, where 83 percent teach in elementary schools and 17 percent in secondary schools, the proportion of women is less than in the urban schools. This is explained, in part, by the fact that vocational-agriculture classes, characteristic of rural high schools, are usually taught by men.

National data on the marital status of classroom teachers have not been compiled since 1930-31. Since that date factors have been at work to increase the proportion of married women in teaching. It may be assumed, however, that the same *general* conditions exist now as did in 1930; that is, between three and four out of every twenty elementary-school teachers are married women and about fourteen are single women, two out of every twenty junior high-school teachers are married women and twelve are single women, and between one and two out of every twenty women senior high-school teachers are married as compared with eleven who are single. Out of twenty teachers on each level only one elementary-school teacher, three junior high-school teachers, and four senior high-school teachers are *married men*. Single women hold the majority of teaching positions on all public school levels.

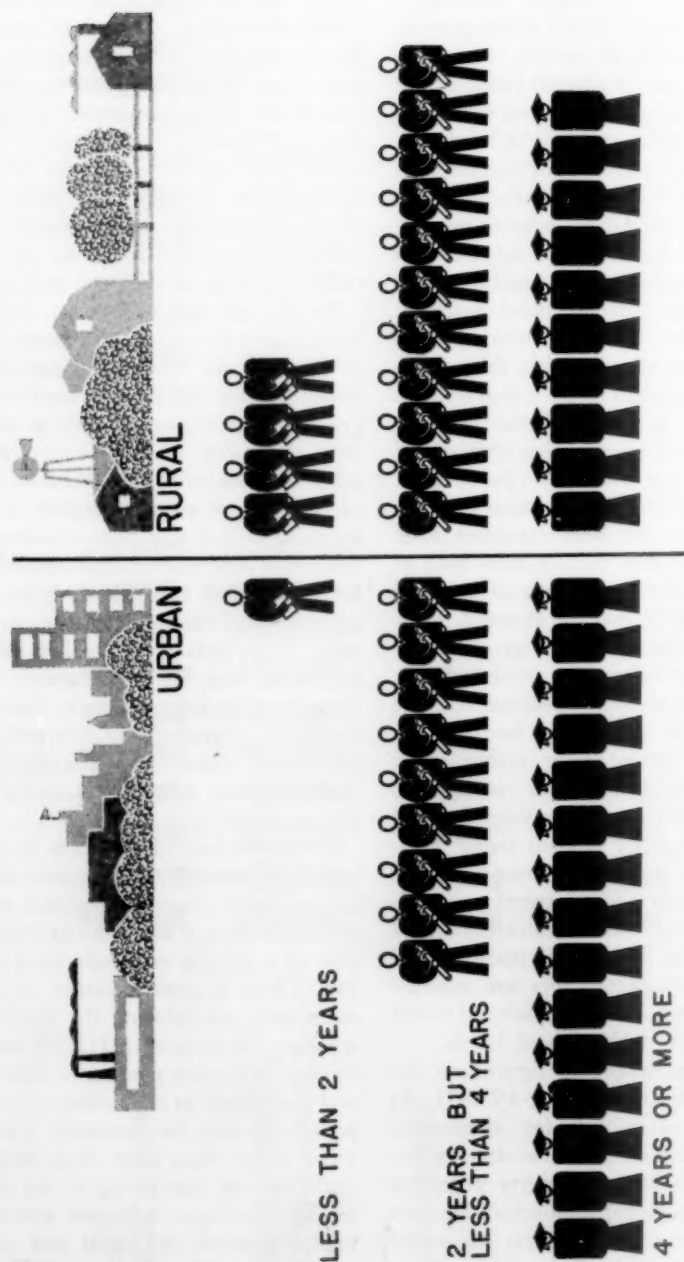
The most recent available figures on the age of teachers also are those for 1930-31. At that time the median age for elementary teachers was twenty-seven years—twenty-five years for rural teachers and thirty years for urban teachers. For junior high-school teachers the median age was thirty years; for senior high-school teachers, twenty-nine years. A recent national survey of teacher experience shows a four-year increase in the median number of

years' experience of urban elementary teachers in 1938-39 over that in 1930-31. Assuming that a rise in experience level would affect the median age level, it may be estimated that the median age of urban elementary teachers today is somewhere near thirty-four years. Probably the median ages for urban junior high-school and senior high-school teachers have also increased at least four years during the past decade. Economic conditions have influenced teachers to remain longer in their positions. Also, higher standards of preservice professional preparation and greater security of tenure in certain localities have probably tended to raise the general median age level.

Besides sex, marital status, and age, social background is a significant factor in the composition of the teaching population. All the studies which have been made of the background of students in teachers colleges show that classroom teachers today are, for the most part, natives of the United States, born of native-born parents, reared in families of farmers, skilled workmen, or owners of small businesses where the median annual incomes are between \$2000 and \$2500. Most of the pre-college life of the typical American teacher was spent in an area within a 200-mile radius of his home, and his opportunities for cultural contacts were not so great as those afforded in the homes of professional men and women. The intellectual status of the parents of most classroom teachers, however, is above the average for the whole population.

From the foregoing data it is apparent that on the average the typical public school teacher is a relatively young, unmarried woman and is recruited from a social background characteristic of a middle economic level of American life. There is some evidence to indicate that more men are entering the field of classroom teaching. In sections II, III, VI, and VII of this bulletin influences tending to raise the age level and contribute to the maturity of the teaching population may be discerned. The trend is toward rather than away from women teachers marrying and remaining in the profession. In teachers colleges increased efforts are being made to enrich the social and cultural backgrounds of student teachers. Thus, it is possible that the general composition of the teaching population will change in the next decade.

FIGURE II
COLLEGE PREPARATION OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS



• EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS 4% OF THE WHITE RURAL OR URBAN CLASSROOM TEACHERS.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: National Education Association, "City Teachers: Their Preparation, Salaries, and Experience," RESEARCH BULLETIN 18: 1-48, January 1940, Table 4, p. 9; and TEACHERS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1939, Table 8, p. 17.

II. Educational Preparation and Certification

Prior to the turn of the century, a typical elementary-school teacher had less than the equivalent of a high-school education. At the time of the World War, approximately half of the 600,000 teachers in the country had no more than four years' education beyond the eighth grade. Such conditions were deplored by professional and lay groups alike.

By 1922, three-fourths of the teachers in the several states had at least the equivalent of four years' high-school education, but less than one-half had a minimum of two years of college work. Following that date, certification requirements for beginning teachers slowly but steadily rose. Two-year normal schools gave way to four-year teachers colleges. Programs in both types of institutions showed striking developments in subjectmatter and growth both in quality and in quantity of professional education courses. Extensive in-service education became an accepted part of a teacher's professional services. Summer session attendance increased and many teachers entered upon graduate study.

Today, on the average, a classroom teacher in the American public schools has had more than three years of educational work beyond high-school graduation. The median number of years of college training of teachers in cities of 2500 population or over is 4.2 years; only 4 percent have had less than two years' preparation and 16 percent have had five years or more. Of the teachers in rural schools, about 62 percent have completed less than four years of college work and 16 percent have had less than two years beyond high-school graduation.

In city school systems, the median number of years of preparation beyond high-school graduation for kindergarten teachers is 3.1 years; for elementary-school teachers, 3.4 years; for junior high-school teachers, 4.5 years; and for senior high-school teachers, 4.8 years. The proportion of senior high-school teachers with five or more years of training is 37 percent, eight times that of elementary-school teachers, and a little less than twice that of junior high-school teachers. In the elementary schools about one teacher in three can claim college graduation or its equivalent, but in senior high schools the proportion is nine out of ten.

Approximately 60 percent of the teachers in city school systems have completed four or more

years of college education. The highest median levels of preparation are found among teachers in the Far West and Southwest. Despite the financial handicaps of many districts in the Southeast the median amount of training of city teachers is above the general average for the country as a whole.

Among the factors determining the level of educational preparation of classroom teachers in the various sections of the United States are the requirements for certification set by the states or by other certificating authorities. For elementary teachers the minimum requirements range from an indefinite specification of examinations covering elementary- or secondary-school subjects, found in six states, to four years of college work, required by five states and the District of Columbia. The minimum preparation expected of junior high-school teachers in half the states is four years of college preparation; in the remainder of the states, either two or three years are required. Three states still will certify high-school teachers with only two years of college work; three other states and the District of Columbia require five years. The typical requirements today are two years of college work for elementary teachers and four years for secondary teachers.

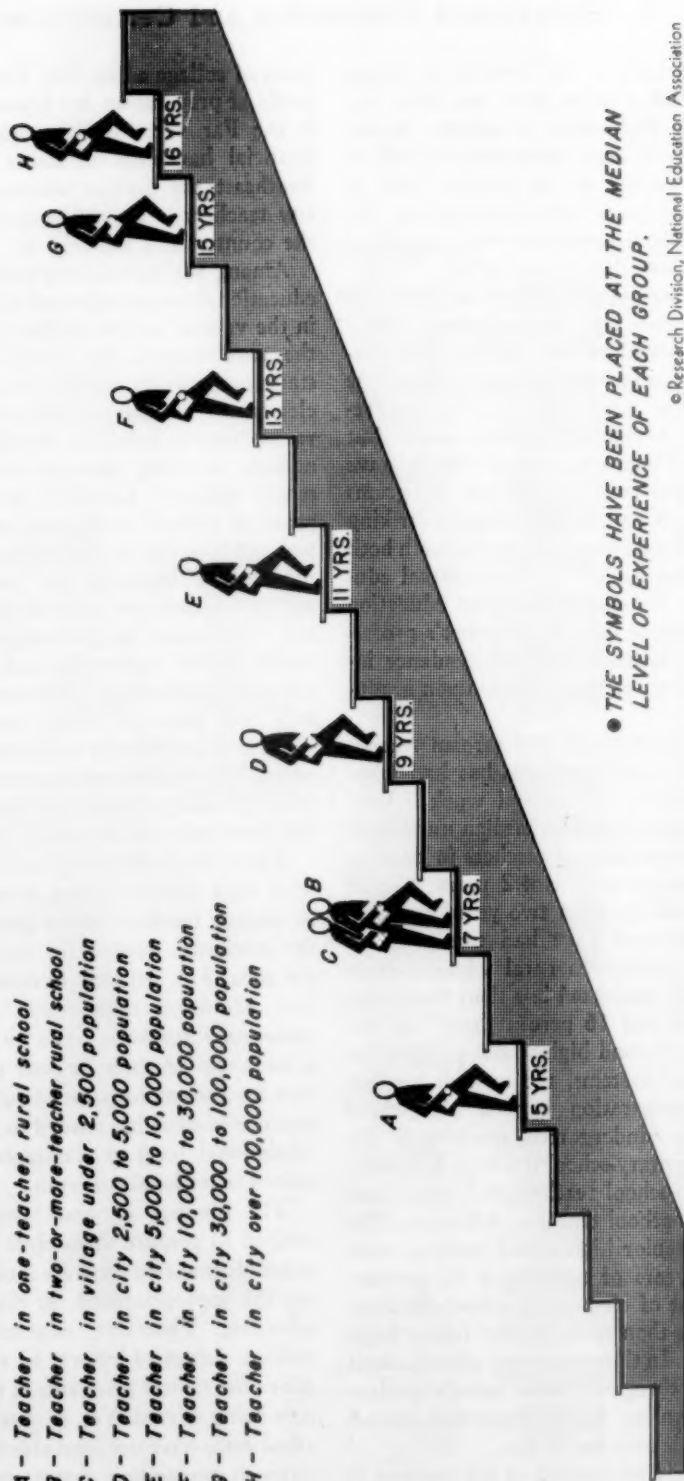
There is a decided tendency in school systems with high standards and economic advantage to employ teachers whose preparation exceeds the minimum needed for certification within the state. For instance, in states having a two-year education requirement for certificating elementary teachers, some cities often specify a minimum of three or four years of preparation for the employment of such teachers. This practice in cities has tended to raise the average educational level of classroom teachers as reported in national surveys.

The number of years that teachers have studied to prepare themselves for their professional duties is no accurate measure of the quality, the appropriateness, or the breadth of that schooling. Therefore, educational leaders are making increased efforts to evaluate and improve the typical programs of teacher education now being offered. Yet, despite rising standards, rural areas have not been able to keep pace with cities in demanding better professional equipment of their teachers.

FIGURE III

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

- A - Teacher in one-teacher rural school
- B - Teacher in two-or-more-teacher rural school
- C - Teacher in village under 2,500 population
- D - Teacher in city 2,500 to 5,000 population
- E - Teacher in city 5,000 to 10,000 population
- F - Teacher in city 10,000 to 30,000 population
- G - Teacher in city 30,000 to 100,000 population
- H - Teacher in city over 100,000 population



● THE SYMBOLS HAVE BEEN PLACED AT THE MEDIAN LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE OF EACH GROUP.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: National Education Association, "City Teachers: Their Preparation, Salaries, and Experience," RESEARCH BULLETIN 18: 1-48, January 1940, Table 9, p. 17; and TEACHERS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1939, Table 5, p. 16.

III. Professional Experience and Mobility

In 1920, half of the classroom teachers in the United States had less than four years of teaching experience. Altho a study of teachers in cities of 8000 population and over showed a median of 9.5 years, the average for rural teachers was estimated at below two years. On the average an urban teacher today has had about seven more years' experience in the teaching profession than a rural teacher. The general average for all classroom teachers, however, is approximately ten years.

The length of school service varies directly with the size of the community in which teachers are employed. In open-country, one-teacher schools, the median experience level is approximately five years; in two-or-more-teacher schools in the open country, seven years; and in villages of less than 2500 population, also about seven years. On the other hand, the median experience of teachers in service in city school systems ranges from 9.3 years in cities 2500 to 5000 population to 16.0 years in cities over 100,000 population, with a median for all urban teachers of 14.0 years.

Experience data for rural teachers by sex and marital status show that the median number of years' school service for single men is four years; for single women, five years; for married men, nine years; and for married women, ten years.

Despite a tendency among certain city school systems to provide intern or cadet teaching experience for beginning teachers, the initial experience of the majority of classroom teachers has been gained in rural schools because many cities have long refused to employ them unless they have taught at least one or two years. Such an employment policy, especially prevalent in the larger cities, tends to keep the experience level of urban teachers consistently above that of rural teachers.

The median number of years' experience for kindergarten teachers in all cities of 2500 population and over is 13.2 years; for elementary teachers, 14.4 years; for junior high-school teachers, 13.3 years; and for senior high-school teachers, 13.6 years. Kindergarten teachers in the smallest cities (2500 to 5000 population) have been in the profession the least number of years and senior high-school teachers in the largest cities (over 100,000 population) have

had the longest teaching careers. On the average, elementary teachers in cities are more experienced than junior high- and senior high-school teachers because of the differences in length of educational preparation and the fact that many more new high-school teachers have been employed in recent years to care for increases in high-school enrolments. The difference between the medians for kindergarten teachers and for elementary teachers is probably due in part to the relatively recent employment of kindergarten teachers in many public schools.

Increases in the experience level of classroom teachers during the past two decades give evidence of a growing stability in the teaching profession, but the mobility of teachers is still great. More than half of all teachers holding positions today have been employed in two or more school systems during their careers, and about one-tenth have had experience in five or more systems. The mobility ratio of elementary teachers in the United States has been reported as one to five; that is, one teacher in every five changes his position annually. In open-country, one- and two-teacher schools, two of every five rural teachers are new each year in the positions they hold. In sharp contrast is a mobility ratio of one to twenty for elementary teachers in cities above 100,000 in population.

Nearly half of the annual vacancies in all school systems are caused by the departure of teachers to accept other teaching positions or to enter another occupation. Other major causes of vacancies are marriage, death or disabling illness, retirement, departure to continue education or to take advantage of a leave of absence, and the creation of new positions. Three-fifths of the vacancies in one- and two-teacher rural schools occur when teachers find other jobs, while only one-fourth of the open positions in cities must be filled for that reason.

Teaching has not yet become a life-career service, but the tendency is definitely in that direction. The progress made by larger cities is indicative of the stabilizing influence of better salaries and tenure. Rural schools today are taught by more experienced teachers than they were twenty years ago, but transiency is still more of a rule than an exception, particularly in areas where standards are low and salaries are poor.

FIGURE IV

ANNUAL SALARIES OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS



● EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS \$100.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: National Education Association, *TEACHERS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES, 1939, Table 42, p. 44; and unpublished figures on salaries of urban teachers, 1938-39.*

IV. Salaries and Economic Condition

In 1913 the average yearly salary of classroom teachers was little more than \$500. This amount was about half the average yearly earnings of all gainfully occupied persons—clear testimony as to the inferior economic position then held by members of the teaching profession. Following the World War, teachers' salaries improved considerably until, in 1930, an average of about \$1400 was reached. The depression brought the national average down by approximately \$200. Rural teachers, especially, suffered severe salary cuts. Today again the trend is upward, the average salary of all classroom teachers being close to \$1360 a year. On the average, urban teachers are receiving \$1900 annually; rural teachers, \$830.

Figures by size of community show a difference of more than \$1000 between the mean salaries of teachers in cities 2500 to 5000 population and of teachers in cities over 100,000 population. In the smallest cities, the average annual salary is about \$1300 a year; in the largest cities, about \$2450. In villages with less than 2500 inhabitants, teachers are receiving approximately \$1000 annually; in the open country, teachers in two-or-more-teacher schools average \$880 a year and teachers in one-teacher schools, about \$670. In other words, there is a disparity of almost \$1800 between the smallest and the largest school systems in the average salaries of teachers.

Despite the growth in the use of the single-salary schedule, secondary-school teachers continue, on the average, to receive higher salaries than elementary-school teachers. In cities the average salary of junior high-school teachers is 13 percent more than that of elementary-school teachers; senior high-school salaries average 22 percent more than those at the elementary-school level.

Altho summer work, investments, and certain nonschool sources provide some of the income of classroom teachers, their economic condition is almost entirely dependent upon the adequacy of their salaries. About 94 percent of the income received by urban teachers and 80 percent of the income of rural teachers is derived from this source alone. After 35 or 40 years of teaching service, single women teachers in cities may expect to have accumulated about \$10,000 on the average; married men, as much as \$17,000. In rural areas, the average net

assets of the men teachers who have served about 40 years do not exceed \$6000 and those of women teachers are not more than \$4500. These amounts are not sufficient to provide retirement incomes equal to the average current expenditures of men and women accustomed to a teacher's standard of living.

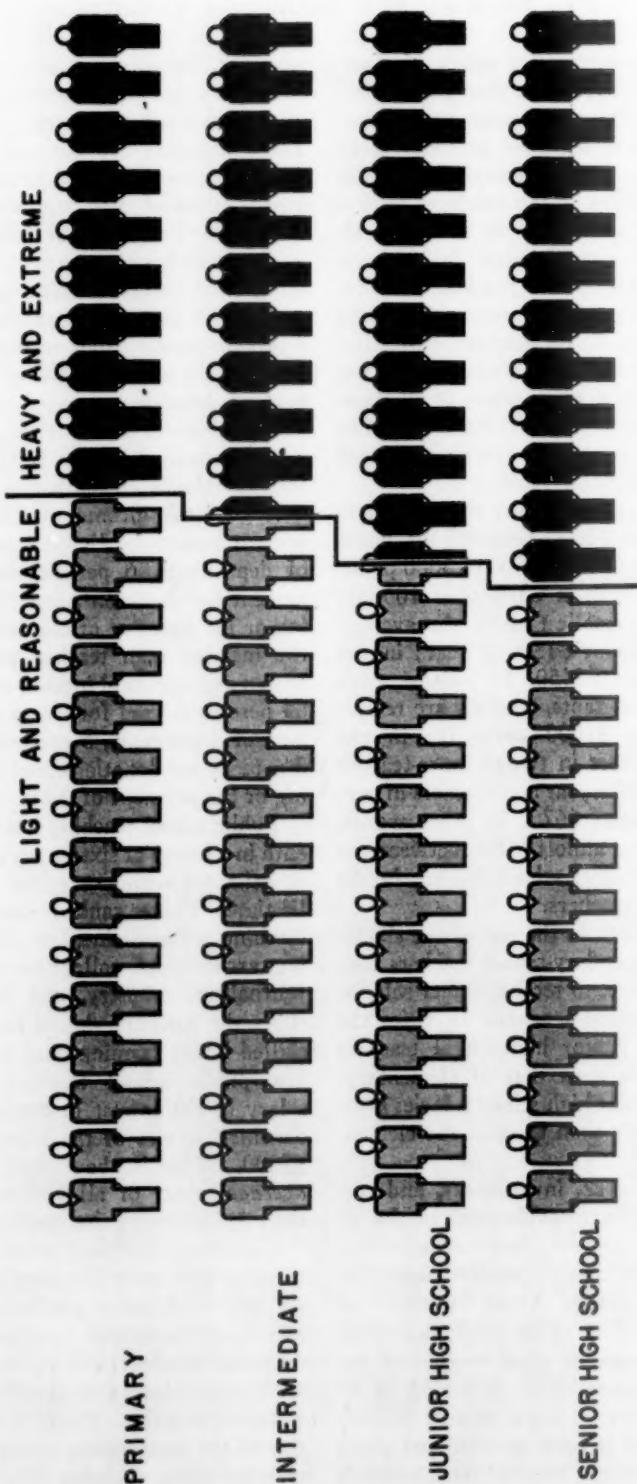
Teachers in cities are reported to be distributing their incomes somewhat as follows: 16 percent to savings or payment of old debt, 7 percent to donations to institutions or other charities, 71 percent to living expenses and support of dependents, and 6 percent to betterments (professional activities, other education, and recreation). The rural, single woman teacher who is rooming and boarding has an average total income of \$830. Seventy-four percent is used for living expenses and support of dependents, 6 percent for betterments, 6 percent for donations, and 14 percent for saving or for payment of old debt. In rural areas, the married man teacher who rents a home has an average total income of \$1400, of which 84 percent is used for living expenses and support of dependents, 5 percent for betterments, 3 percent for donations, and 8 percent for saving or the payment of debts.

Public school teaching has been ranked eleventh in a group of sixteen occupations according to estimated average earnings during a working lifetime. Those ranked above public school teaching are medicine, law, dentistry, engineering, architecture, college teaching, social work, journalism, ministry, and library work. On this same basis the skilled trades, nursing, unskilled labor, farming, and farm labor fall below public school teaching. The minimum salary of the lowest professional grade in the classified service of the federal government is \$2000. This is about \$100 higher than the average salary of all city teachers and more than \$1150 above that for rural teachers.

Classroom teaching must compete for its recruits with other branches of the public service and with other professions. As long as low salaries continue in many American communities, teachers will be forced to remain on an economic level inferior to that of other professional workers. Thus, it is likely that too few of the outstanding young men and women who are today choosing their vocations will be attracted to teaching as a career.

FIGURE V

CLASSROOM TEACHERS RATE THEIR PROFESSIONAL LOADS



● EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS 4% OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHERS.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: Adapted from National Education Association, "The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load," *RESEARCH BULLETIN* 17: 232, November 1939, Table 8.

V. Professional Load

In the past two decades, altho elementary-school classes have decreased slightly in size, junior high-school and senior high-school classes have become larger, especially in the metropolitan areas. Increased clerical work as school routines have been standardized, greater emphasis on individual pupil guidance, more stress on teachers' cooperation with homes and community social agencies, growing demands for in-service professional study and for teacher participation in professional education associations—all have contributed to an increase in the professional load of classroom teachers.

A recent study in cities over 2500 population reported average class sizes of 30 pupils in kindergartens; 34 pupils in elementary grades; 33 pupils in junior high schools; and 30 pupils in senior high schools. In urban secondary schools, physical education classes enrol an average of over 40 pupils. Junior high-school classes in mathematics, English, social studies, science, commercial work, music, and art all average more than 30 pupils; in senior high schools, classes in English, social studies, commercial work, and music are the only ones, in addition to physical education, which average as many as 30 pupils. Manual training, industrial work, and household art classes are usually smaller than the average. All classes tend to be larger in the large cities than in the smaller communities.

In addition to nearly thirty hours a week spent in actual classroom teaching, secondary-school teachers give an average of ten hours a week to out-of-class activities pertaining to their jobs. These activities include keeping records, making reports, grading papers, fulfilling extracurriculum assignments, voluntary service to pupil-interest groups, interviews with pupils, professional meetings, committee service, and conferences with parents. On the average, elementary-school teachers are assigned slightly more than thirty hours per week of actual teaching; out-of-class activities average nine hours per week.

Teaching load, as measured by the pupil-teacher ratio, class size, length of the school term, and number of hours required for instruction and for out-of-class activities, does not indicate the total professional load. The length of class periods, the number of those periods for which the preparation is different

from that of any other period, the nature of the subject taught, and the degree of responsibility for out-of-class activities, irrespective of amount of time required, are factors which add to or take from the load of individual teachers.

It has been reported in various studies that there are heavier pupil activity loads per teacher in the smaller schools; a greater delegation of guidance and supervisory activities to specialized persons other than teachers in the larger schools; fewer different class preparations per teacher in large schools; and greater probability that beginning teachers carry heavier loads than experienced teachers. Such generalizations are tentative, however, since there is no measure of total professional load adequate enough to warrant final conclusions.

In many situations, the intangible aspects of teaching are the critical factors in determining actual teacher load. In a recent national survey of teacher opinion, the greatest pressure on elementary- and secondary-school teachers alike was reported as coming from class interruptions for administrative matters or for special events. Also, each broadening of the objectives of education implies additional services for pupils and adds to the total responsibility of the teacher. In addition to the well-known pressures of daily paper-grading and clerical work, of over-size classes and excessive total pupil load, and of crowded classrooms, teachers continually find the adaptation of class programs to individual pupil differences an unusually heavy responsibility. The adjustment of promotion standards to meet a "no-failure" ideal without neglecting "minimum essentials" expected by the school or without endangering the future school adjustment and progress of pupils further weighs upon teachers who are not relieved of pressures in other directions.

Approximately 40 percent of the elementary teachers and 47 percent of the high-school teachers consider their total loads as unduly heavy or extreme. These proportions represent subjective judgments, but the attitudes of teachers toward their teaching loads exert an important influence both on their morale and on their efficiency. If these burdens are excessive, the teacher's own development is being retarded and the quality of his work in school and in the community is likely to be lowered.

FIGURE VI

TENURE PROTECTION FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS



© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: Compiled from unpublished data of the N.E.A. Research Division, on state and local tenure provisions; and from unpublished data of the U.S. Office of Education, on number of classroom teachers, 1937-38.

VI. Provisions for Tenure

In 1924, 37 states had no tenure legislation; 11 provided some kind of protection to teachers. Only three of these offered unqualified statewide protection, two extended protection to teachers in all school districts except the largest metropolitan areas which had local tenure regulations, and the remaining six states defined specific districts in which teacher tenure was to be assured. Several of the laws attempted to define a basis for dismissal, naming certain causes which constituted valid reasons for discontinuing a teacher in his position. Not all laws provided for a reasonable notice of intention to dismiss or hearing for the teacher before dismissal.

Today 19 states and Alaska have no state tenure laws; 29 and Hawaii have either tenure laws or provision for long-term contracts. Six and Hawaii provide permanent tenure after a probationary period; ten grant permanent tenure in certain districts; seven provide for continuing contracts; five permit the signing of contracts for more than one-year periods, at least in certain districts; one allows local citizens to vote permanent tenure in each district.

Permanent tenure on a statewide basis is mandatory in Hawaii, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. After probationary periods of from one to five years, teachers in these states are assured continuous employment during efficient service and appropriate behavior.

Alabama, Delaware, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, South Carolina, and West Virginia provide by law for "continuing contracts" on a statewide basis, that is, for plans whereby teachers may hold their positions without the necessity of annual applications and elections. Under these plans the employing board must give notice by a specified date, usually early in the spring, if it does not wish to continue the contract. A similar obligation rests upon the teacher.

Contracts are permitted for more than one year in Maine and Ohio. This plan definitely sets limits on the maximum term of employment under one contract, whereas continuing contracts fix no maximum limit.

Arizona, Iowa, Kentucky, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Washington have legally adopted the annual election plan on a statewide basis.

Teachers are protected against arbitrary dismissal only within the limits of the provisions in their annual contracts.

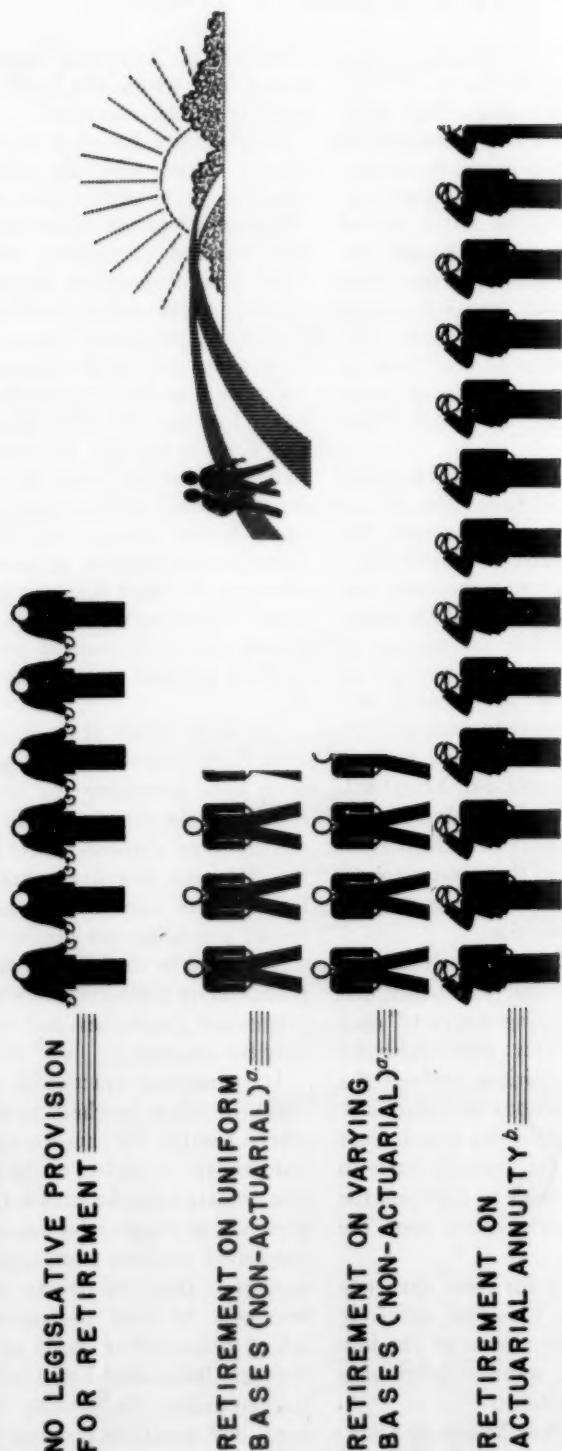
In about one-fourth of the states tenure protection varies with the different classes of school districts within each state. Indiana and Minnesota legalize permanent tenure in some districts and continuing contracts in other areas; California makes permanent tenure compulsory in some districts and optional in others; in Illinois, permanent tenure is mandatory in certain districts while contracts are permitted for more than one year in other districts; Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, New York, and Oregon provide for permanent tenure in some districts and make no provisions or utilize the annual election plan in others; Mississippi, North Dakota, and Texas provide for either annual election or permission to extend contracts for more than one year in certain districts; Michigan's permissive law provides for tenure after two years of probationary service in those districts where local voters accept the act.

Of the 316 cities in the United States having over 30,000 population, 158 are included under state laws governing the tenure of teachers; nearly all the others operate under an annual election plan without tenure provisions. There are also some districts under 30,000 in population where teachers have tenure. Most local tenure provisions are simple resolutions of the schoolboard to the effect that after a specified probationary period teachers will be considered permanent employees and may be dismissed only for cause.

It is common practice in state tenure laws today to allow teachers to be dismissed only after a hearing, for causes such as incompetence, immorality, or neglect of duty. Tenure regulation seeks to keep the schools free from political, personal, or commercial domination; to protect competent teachers from unjust discharge and to permit them to devote themselves wholeheartedly to their profession; to discourage school management based on fear and to encourage leadership based on confidence and understanding; to provide a reasonable personal and academic freedom for teachers; and to encourage efficient, public-spirited teachers to stay in the profession.

FIGURE VII

ANTICIPATED RETIREMENT SECURITY OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS



^a. Based on salary—unrelated to insurance risk
^b. Based on insurance principles.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: Compiled from unpublished data of the N.E.A. Research Division, on state and local retirement provisions; and from unpublished data of the U.S. Office of Education, on number of classroom teachers, 1937-38.

VII. Provisions for Retirement

A teacher retirement system is a businesslike plan, enacted into state or local law, to improve schools by helping aged or disabled teachers to retire from active service with a modest, but assured, income for life. Sound retirement principles were frequently disregarded in early laws. Since 1920, however, legislative activity has been directed toward improving existing retirement systems and to establishing each new plan upon a sound fiscal basis. In the past there were three types of plans for teachers: pension, mutual benefit, and joint-contributory retirement systems. In 1937 the last state mutual benefit plan was abandoned in favor of the better type of system wherein teachers have some state aid in maintaining the fund. Today, 33 states and Hawaii make statewide provision for the retirement of their teachers; 29 states and Hawaii have joint-contributory plans and four states have pension systems.

Under the pension type plan found in Arizona, New Mexico, Rhode Island, and West Virginia teachers contribute nothing. The state appropriates an amount after the teacher has fulfilled the required length of service or has reached the minimum age. The state board of education usually administers the system.

The 29 joint-contributory state retirement laws have a wide variety of provisions, but the more common are:

1. A plan whereby the state makes regular payments over a period of years creating a reserve sufficient to pay the benefits promised when due. Under this plan future costs are calculated and payments are made in advance to be held in reserve until the benefits are due. State payments are usually made from tax sources.
2. Provisions for periodic actuarial valuations in order that the future cost of the benefits promised may be calculated in advance.
3. Administration by a board composed of five to seven persons, some of whom are members of the system and are usually elected by the membership of the system. On the average, board members serve three years.
4. Administrative expenses paid by state separately from state contributions to retirement fund.
5. Investments limited by law to the types of investments and securities permitted to savings banks.
6. Membership compulsory for new teachers employed after enactment or after a specified date and voluntary for teachers employed prior to enactment of law.
7. Portion of salary of each member deducted monthly from payroll and forwarded as a

total from local district or county to state retirement board. Contributions are based on a percentage of salary to be determined by an actuary or set by law.

8. Provision for refund of member's contributions in case of withdrawal or death before retirement.
9. Provision for compulsory retirement at age seventy, voluntary retirement at age sixty to sixty-five after at least thirty years of service.
10. Teacher allowed choice of options on the method of payment of benefits.
11. Provision both for service and/or age and for disability retirement allowances.

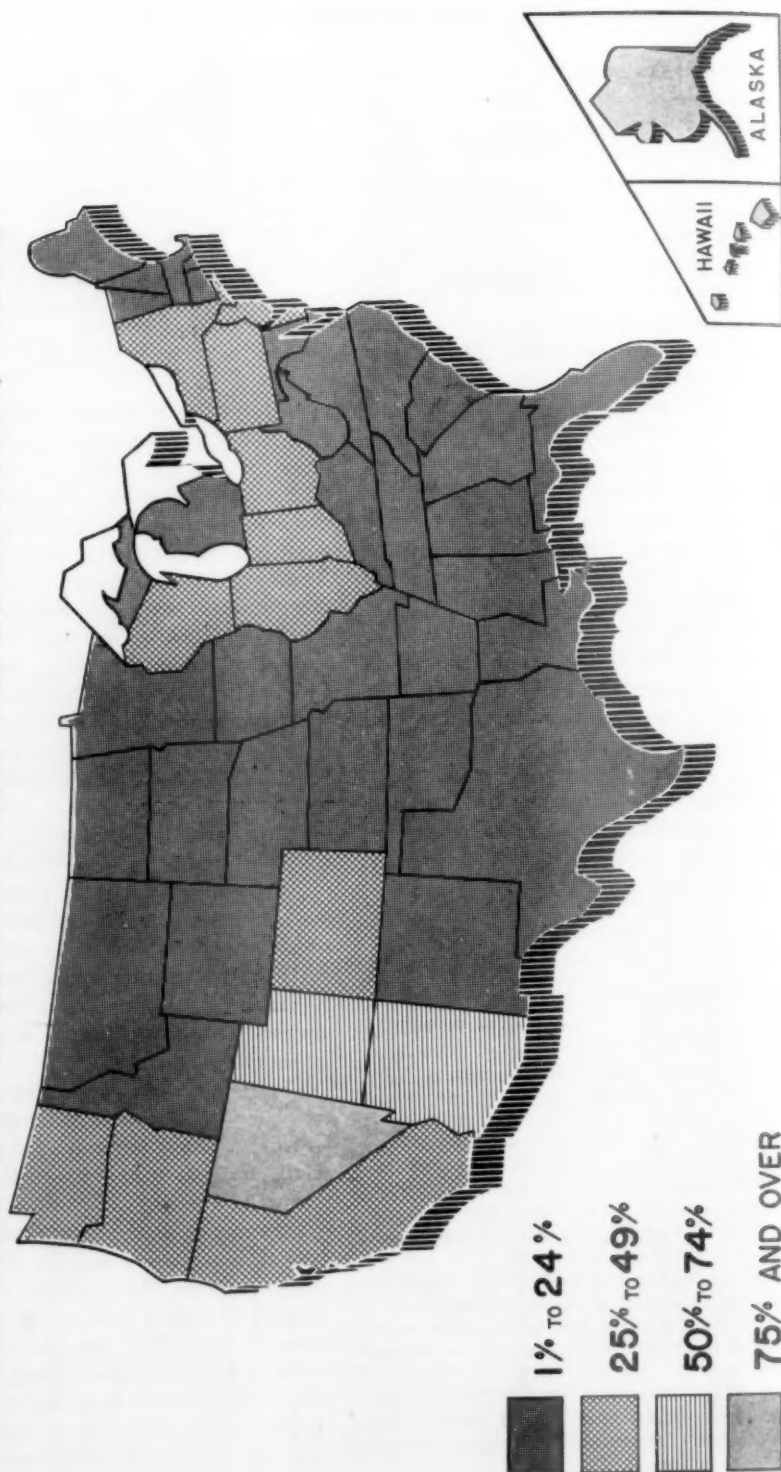
In 17 of the 33 states making statewide legal provision for retirement there are also some separate local retirement systems operating. In nine additional states, legislatures have provided for or permit the establishment of retirement systems in cities of a certain class or size. There are also in operation nine local retirement systems which were established by city charter or schoolboard resolution without state legislative action. At present there are at least 64 local retirement plans operating in 28 states. The provisions of the majority of these plans follow the same lines as the typical statewide systems. Alaska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and South Carolina, so far as is known, make no state or local provision for old-age or disability retirement of their teachers.

At present, practically one-fourth of the teachers in the country can look forward to no retirement or disability security whatsoever. Fifty percent are protected by actuarially sound retirement plans; the remaining teachers are under various non-actuarial retirement systems or pension plans.

Protection by retirement law does not necessarily insure adequate retirement allowance, however. A study made in 1935-36 showed that, of the teachers who were employed where retirement laws operated at that time, 48 percent could expect \$50 or less per month upon withdrawal from active service; 39 percent could receive between \$51 and \$100 per month; only 13 percent looked forward to a retirement income of over \$100 per month. Usually the states and communities which pay the lowest retirement benefits are also the ones paying salaries below the annual national average. It is unlikely that individual savings of teachers can supplement small retirement allowances to assure sufficient financial security.

FIGURE VIII

PROPORTION OF TEACHERS IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 1939



Source: "Membership in Education Associations - 1939," JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION 28: 181; September 1939.

VIII. Professional Associations of Teachers

The *Educational Directory* of 1913 listed 110 national and sectional educational associations and 135 state educational groups; the 1940 *Directory* lists 451 national and sectional associations and 119 state groups. Local professional associations number several thousand.

Most professional associations for teachers accept the point of view set forth by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association: that, in order to achieve their purposes, professional organizations in the field of education should strive toward "continuous study and research with respect to the process of education, the conditions under which the process is carried on, the results achieved, and the means of its improvement; promotion of all movements which will give stability and progressive character to educational undertakings; provision which will insure the continued professional growth of those engaged in the service of education; and the maintenance of such relations with the public as will secure economic welfare, social security, and civil liberties for those who serve the public in carrying on education."

Trends in the membership of the National Education Association are indicative of the development of teachers' interest in professional solidarity. Before 1920 the membership was small. During the four years from 1919 to 1923 the Association added about 100,000 members; and from then to 1932 there was a steady annual increase. The depression caused a drop in membership but a peak of 201,682 was reached in 1939.

In themselves these national membership figures are large, but the growth in the proportion of educators belonging both to this Association and to the various state education groups has been slow. In 1925, 19 percent of the public school teachers in the United States were members of the national body and 70 percent were affiliated with their respective state groups. Today, 21 percent are in the National Education Association and 86 percent are affiliated with their state associations. The proportion of teachers in the states who are members of the national group ranges from 5 percent in two states to 77 percent in Nevada, 87 percent in Hawaii, and 103 percent in Alaska. Twelve states have enrolled 100 percent of their teach-

ers in their own state associations and 17 others have enrolled over 90 percent.

Among the groups with principal activities in the field of teacher welfare is the American Federation of Teachers. It is a national federation of local associations which are designated as "teachers' unions." The unions are made up almost entirely of classroom teachers, altho supervisory officers other than superintendents may be admitted upon approval by three-fourths of the voting members. The Federation is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

The Progressive Education Association is a professional association primarily active in stimulating and sponsoring educational experimentation in an effort to build a body of educational practices based on the philosophy of "progressive" education. There are no local associations, but regional conferences are held annually.

In addition to national organizations such as the above, which are working in the general educational field, there are numerous professional associations which concentrate their efforts in special fields. The departments of the National Education Association, as well as a number of groups not officially affiliated with the Association, are examples of this type of specialized teacher organization.

A recent survey of the membership of rural teachers in professional organizations showed that approximately 59 percent belong to local or county teachers' groups, 87 percent belong to state associations, and 16 percent are affiliated with national associations. Among the teachers in the smallest open-country schools, 53 percent hold memberships in local or county groups, 75 percent belong to their state groups, but only 9 percent have affiliation with any national association.

Local and state organizations increase the professional unity of teaching, but certain national objectives demand strong national organization. At present, with the largest national association enrolling only a little more than one-fifth of the teachers in the United States, it is difficult to achieve unanimity of purpose and solidarity of action on problems such as the equalization of educational opportunity for children in all states or the improvement of professional standards.

FIGURE IX

GENERAL HEALTH STATUS OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS



• EACH SYMBOL REPRESENTS 2 1/2% OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHERS.

© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers. *FIT TO TEACH, Ninth Yearbook, Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1938. Diagram II, p. 17.*

IX. Mental and Physical Health

In 1926 a study of the health of the teacher concluded that, as compared with workers in other fields, teachers were relatively longer lived and free from sickness.

According to a 1937 survey of a representative group of teachers, about one-third have abundant energy, a constant feeling of vigor, and exceptionally good health. Approximately half of the teachers have general good health sufficient to stand extra strain and occasional illness. The remaining 15 to 20 percent lack the kind of sustained vigor necessary for regular and effective classroom work. Some have energy enough for ordinary work but have little resistance to colds or periods of extra pressure; others have low vitality and are inclined to worry over their work; approximately 2 percent have chronic ill health and carry their responsibilities only with effort. About 285,000 teachers are away from their jobs one or more days each year and lose annually no less than a total of 2,000,000 working days.

Expert opinion has concluded that personality maladjustment is responsible for failures in teaching more often than physical disorder. In answer to direct questioning, superintendents, principals, and school physicians agree that, serious as are physical handicaps and diseases of the body, lack of mental or emotional poise is the prime detriment to successful teaching; inability to make necessary social adjustments is second; and physical ill health, third. Available evidence indicates that the percent of maladjustment among teachers is somewhat lower than that of the general population.

Physicians have reported the following eight factors as the leading causes of poor health among teachers: (1) incorrect personal health habits, (2) general weaknesses and physical handicaps, (3) an unfavorable out-of-school environment, (4) unfortunate personnel relationships with administrative officers, supervisors, or fellow teachers, (5) an excessive amount of school work, (6) improper school-housing facilities, (7) diseases contracted from pupils, and (8) accidents.

Among the leading physical handicaps and diseases of teachers are colds, grippe, tonsillitis, and all the common respiratory diseases; digestive disorders, including constipation; disorders associated with "nervousness"; heart trouble;

menstrual disorders; rheumatism; and abnormal blood pressure.

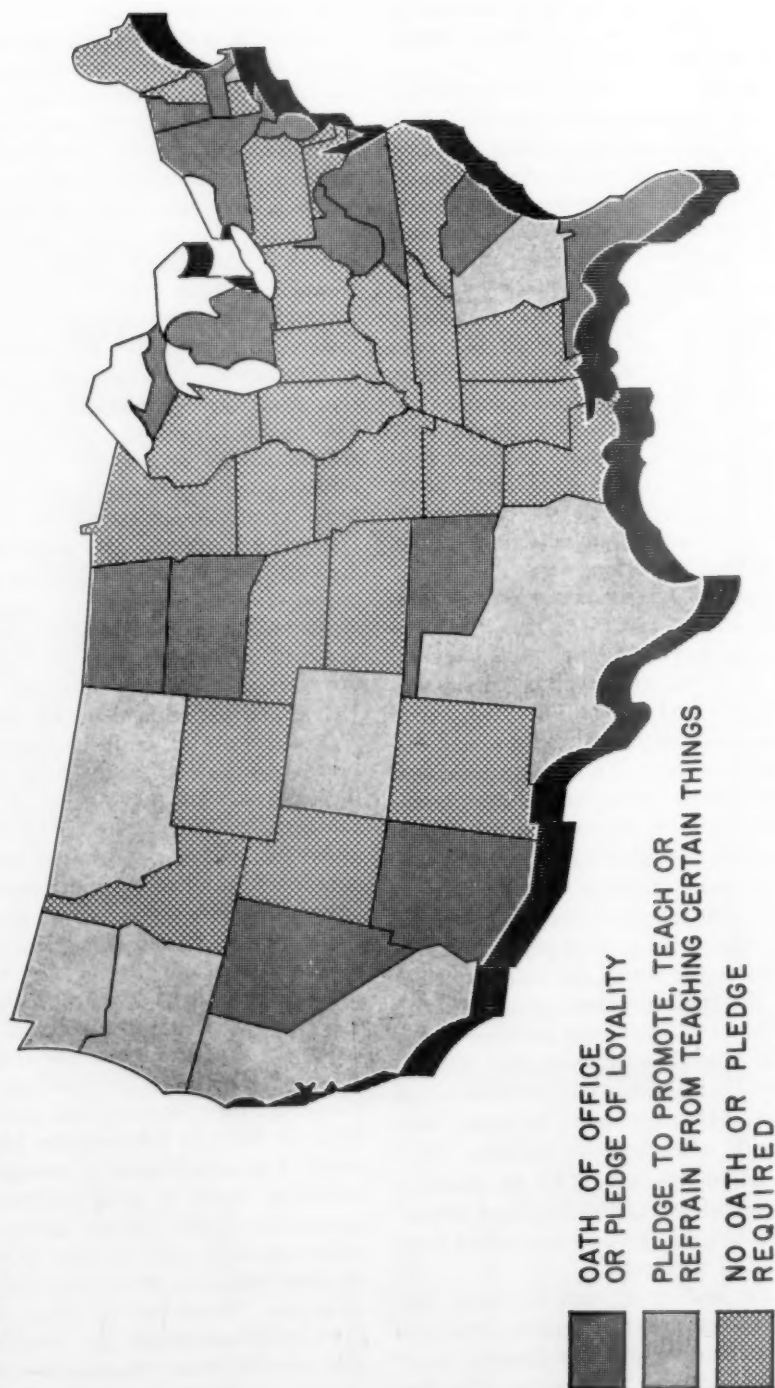
Altho the teaching profession offers no safeguard against mental hazards and personality maladjustments, there are certain aspects of teaching which are conducive to mental health. Among such advantages are the following: that teaching (1) is socially useful work, (2) involves a continuous series of challenging new problems, (3) encourages creativeness, (4) provides opportunity for self-analysis, (5) stimulates broad interests, (6) requires an unusual amount of self-control, (7) affords unexcelled opportunity for growth, and, generally speaking, (8) is done amid surroundings that are relatively pleasant and comfortable. On the other hand, the following factors contribute to the personality maladjustment or mental instability of many teachers: (1) overpressure of required work, (2) underpay, (3) insecurity of tenure, (4) constant sharing of the burdens of others, (5) puritanic restrictions on out-of-school activities, (6) repressive, autocratic administration and supervision, (7) aloofness on the part of the general public, (8) necessary attention to numerous details, and (9) association with immature minds.

A certificate of health before appointment is required of teachers in about two-thirds of the cities over 100,000 population; and in one-third of the cities 5000 to 10,000. Some provision for teacher sick leave is made in about nine-tenths of all cities. About two-fifths of the cities offer care by a school nurse when a teacher wishes it, and almost one-fifth provide medical advice and treatment by a school physician or periodic health examinations.

To the workers in many occupations, illness is largely a personal loss affecting few other persons. In the case of teachers, directly or indirectly, their illnesses and their health defects are likely to influence the health of their pupils. Teachers themselves consider sick leave, sabbatical leave, a good retirement plan, a nonteaching period during the day, a definite salary schedule, and security of tenure to be the most important health aids in their teaching situations. Communities which have taken these health safeguards into consideration, and also provide some recreational facilities, are making outstanding contributions to the adjustment of their classroom teachers.

FIGURE X

OATHS REQUIRED OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS



© Research Division, National Education Association

Source: Adapted from National Education Association, Research Division, *TEACHERS' OATHS*, Revised 1937, Figure I, p. 2, brought up to date, 1939.

X. Academic Freedom

Apprehensive citizens sometimes view discussions of controversial subjects in public school classrooms with disfavor. They become concerned that boys and girls are studying questions surrounding which strong opinions, vital economic interests, and powerful emotions have long persisted. Various intangible pressures have been brought to bear upon outspoken teachers; legal controls have taken the form of new oaths of allegiance. Prior to 1930, ten states required pledges of loyalty from their public school teachers. In the two years 1931 and 1935, thirteen additional pledges were put into force. Half of the states are now making it obligatory for teachers to take an oath of allegiance to the United States Constitution.

The simplest pledge required of teachers is one "to support" the United States Constitution and the constitution of the state—the regulation in four states. Six additional states have enlarged the pledges "to support" the Constitution to include the promise "to discharge faithfully" the duties of a teacher. Four states require teachers to both "support" and "defend" the Constitution. In eight states there has been added to the constitutional pledge the requirement "to teach by precept and example" love, respect, and/or undivided allegiance to: (1) the national flag, (2) the state flag, (3) law and order, (4) the government, and/or (5) American institutions. Prescriptions designed to prevent the teaching of specific theories of government and economics are found in one state, where the law requires the teacher to "refrain from directly or indirectly subscribing to or teaching any theory of government, or economics, or of social relations which is inconsistent with the fundamental principles of patriotism and high ideals of Americanism."

In nineteen states there do not exist any definitely prescribed penalties for failure to observe the law, but state and county authorities can refuse to grant certificates to, and local officials can withhold contracts from, nonconformists. Penalties are imposed upon nonconformists in all other states.

What may constitute violation of teachers' oaths is subject to widespread speculation. The broad and logical inference is that a teacher sworn to support the federal and state constitu-

tions (and in most instances state laws) is bound in conscience to uphold the provisions and principles of said laws. Thus, the questions arise: Should a teacher be required to teach only "things as they are" or should he be free to review ways of improving existing laws or public policy in order to meet new and changing conditions? Would a teacher sworn to support federal and state constitutions and state laws be free to teach the facts concerning all sides of controversial social or political questions without fear of molestation? Or, would this result in restricting the academic freedom of the teacher and the freedom of the student "to learn"?

Some state legislatures have become aware of the dangers of too strict application of oath laws. Pennsylvania and Utah, for example, have protective legislation safeguarding teachers from dismissal for their religious or political views. One state recently proposed a legislative measure which would direct the state department of education and the state superintendent to stress the significance of tolerance as a basic American principle, to define the meaning of intolerance, and to provide for the inclusion of instruction of tolerance in the public school system. A proposed law in another state would provide that removal or disciplinary measures against a teacher should not be based on expression of opinion on any political, social, or economic subject, or on out-of-school activities in public affairs, or on membership in or adherence to the principles of any lawfully constituted party or group.

A recent study of the opinions of 785 laymen and teachers on the issue of academic freedom indicated that while few teachers are dismissed, demoted, or otherwise disciplined for exercising academic freedom, a majority of them deal carefully with controversial subjects because of fear of punishment. These subjects include religion, sex, politics, and economics.

It is probable that in many cases where teachers feel their freedom of speech is being curtailed, communities are only asking that the teachers refrain from imposing their personal opinions upon pupils. However, when teachers must refrain from presenting, within the limits of good taste and sound scholarship, facts available on any subject, academic freedom is endangered.

Trends Affecting the Future Status of Teachers

The last two decades have seen a significant upgrading in the general professional and economic level of the teaching population. It is clear, however, that the present status of classroom teachers, especially in rural areas, is not now satisfactory in view of the important responsibility these teachers have to the nation at large. What of the future? Will desirable trends persist? What forces now operating may affect the status of teachers in the next few years? This final section of the bulletin suggests some of the pressures which may have an influence, favorable or unfavorable, upon the teaching population of the United States.

Movements within the profession to improve the quality of the teaching service—Educators, the lay public, and professional associations of teachers recognize the need for continuous improvement of the teaching service. Colleges and normal schools have often graduated many young persons who expect to become teachers but who obviously lack the personal, social, and intellectual qualifications essential to successful teaching. State education departments or other authorities have too frequently granted certificates to teach only on evidence that the technic of conducting a class exercise has been mastered, that subjectmatter can be reproduced in writing, and that a required number of "courses in education" have been carried. Many school systems have often failed to provide a truly professional environment for teachers, with the result that, under the monotony of daily routine, teaching methods have become out-dated and ineffective, and initiative and enthusiasm have been dulled.

Recognition of these needs has resulted in action. Three movements toward improvement stand out. The first is a growing tendency among normal schools and teachers colleges to select their students intelligently on the basis of personal, social, and intellectual qualifications rather than only on their expressed desires to "learn to be teachers." The teaching profession is no longer as easy to enter as it once was. Selective admission to schools offering courses in teacher preparation has begun to condition the quality of the teaching service at the very beginning, by determining the kind of man or woman who eventually will seek employment as a teacher.

Secondly, enriched curriculums for prospective teachers are giving greater assurance to parents and to communities that new teachers in their schools will be better educated men and women, possessed with a broader general background of social knowledge, a more adequate specialized training to teach, and a greater competency to accept the responsibilities of professional service and useful citizenship.

In the third place, the emphasis on in-service education is helping teachers already employed to enrich their classroom contributions. In a number of communities there are increasing opportunities for active teachers to improve their professional equipment. Wise counsel and supervision, participation in curriculum construction, opportunities for special study and travel, and summer school attendance have helped many to do more effective teaching.

With improvement in the quality of teaching service, the future should bring a rise in the economic status of teachers, a reduction in teacher mobility, increased provisions for tenure and retirement, and a general stability in the profession. External pressures, however, may turn the tide in another direction.

Population trends—The decline in the number of children of school age, resulting from a slowing down of population growth, may, on the one hand, mean smaller classes, lighter teaching loads, more individual guidance, and expansion of needed service both to the pre-school child and to adults. On the other hand, fewer children may lead to a cut in teaching staffs and unemployment.

With proportionately more children in rural areas than in urban areas, increased attention should be given to improvement in the preparation of rural teachers, to elimination of inferior economic conditions in many rural places, to outside financial aid to the poorer school districts, and to better salaries for teachers in those districts. Without such changes, rural teachers will remain transients, seeking to obtain positions in cities.

The rise in the average age of the population is turning certain efforts of the nation toward security for adults. Vast sums necessarily are being spent on relief and for old-age pensions. Rather than increase taxes some communities and states are diverting funds from public edu-

cation to these channels. Such a tendency to curtail expenditures for education of youth in order to care for older adults creates a real threat to boys and girls as well as to the economic position of teachers.

On the other side of the picture, an aging of the general population would naturally imply an aging of the teaching population. This trend should be watched in order that teachers on permanent tenure, lending stability to the profession, are not permitted to work too long at their jobs because of lack of retirement provisions.

Unless adequate adjustments are made, the migration of families from one section of the country to another leaves unemployed teachers in the deserted areas and places unreasonable professional loads on teachers in the places which receive the migrant families. The mental and physical health of teachers and pupils alike suffers in overcrowded schools when adjustments in school revenues fail to keep pace with shifts in population.

Occupational trends—The current occupational shift is from the productive and extractive occupations to the mechanical, managerial, professional, and service occupations. Formerly, the home guided the child in his choice of vocation and retained control over his occupational training. The classroom teacher who was responsible for academic instruction only was largely isolated from other professions and trades. Today, much occupational guidance and training has become a responsibility of the teacher. Cooperation with and the respect of persons working in the mechanical, managerial, professional, and service fields must be maintained. Working cooperatively with business, industry, and the professions in carrying out certain school policies may change the status of classroom teachers in the eyes of the communities where such cooperation is necessary.

Another occupational trend is the increased tendency for married women to seek gainful employment. Upon the teaching profession this trend has already had a pronounced effect. Many communities, recognizing that married women are usually efficient and experienced employees, permit women teachers to marry and retain their positions. Teaching will become more of a career service if selection is on the basis of personal and professional fitness to do the required work, regardless of factors such as marital status.

Trends in acquiring and spending public revenue—Because public school teachers are paid from public funds, trends in acquiring and spending those funds will affect the future status of teachers.

After the World War, wealth in the United States became increasingly concentrated in cities and in property other than real estate. The decline of real property values during the depression brought the states face to face with the inadequacy of their tax policies. In local areas, where the property tax had long been the chief source of public revenue, money could not be raised to maintain the customary public services. Such conditions have forced states to revise their systems of taxation in the direction of lessening taxes on property and increasing revenues thru personal or corporation income taxes, general sales taxes, chain-store taxes, inheritance taxes, or taxes on tobacco, alcoholic beverages, and gasoline. Tax collections, altho redistributed and diversified, have continually increased. No longer are public revenues collected and disbursed *principally* within the local governmental units. What was emergency state and federal aid to local areas during the depression has, in many instances, become permanent policy. Government, in general, has continued to take over added functions. In other words, out of the breakdown of local financial support of public functions has come a dependency of the nation at large upon state and federal money to finance expanded social services.

These shifts in the collecting and spending of public revenues carry important implications. Education, traditionally a function of local government, required and obtained a limited amount of state and federal aid in the emergency. However, since the early days of the depression, schools have been receiving a steadily decreasing proportion of government funds. At a time when expenditures for all types of public education were *declining* 26 percent, the costs of other government services *rose* more than 32 percent. Currently, many taxpayers are building up resistance to further taxation and at the same time are demanding continuation of government expenditures for relief, old-age assistance, housing, and additional expenditures for new types of government service. Wars in other parts of the world are causing American people to demand greater appropriations for national defense and, unless

taxes are increased, public services will have to be curtailed. There is a determined and alarming drive against educational expenditures in many communities and states.

Diversion of state funds from schools in localities where local financial support is impossible means disaster. In many rural areas, outside financial assistance is necessary to make the educational service more adequate than it now is. Bills are pending in Congress to grant permanent federal aid to public education in order to equalize educational opportunity among the wealthier and poorer communities. Unless there is continuation of state assistance *plus* financial aid from the federal government, the status of classroom teachers and the quality of the entire public school service will fall in the very communities where improvement is most needed.

Current public discussion and reinterpretation of education in a democracy—During 1939 public forums, institutes and conferences, the radio and the press, classroom discussions and professional meetings, all have given increased time and attention to the problem of education for democracy. In face of world events which challenge the democratic principles of living enjoyed by American citizens, the forces of education and reason are examining their structures and procedures in order that this country will not fall into the ways of totalitarianism or war.

Such emphasis on the democratic way of life holds important implications for the academic freedom of classroom teachers. An apprehensive public, fearing that teachers may not emphasize the advantages of a democracy over and above other forms of government, may make further attempts to dictate what is taught in American classrooms. On the other hand, if the public is made to realize that the effectiveness of democratic government lies in the freedom of the people to discuss and evaluate all policies and to work conscientiously for their improvement, the classroom teacher in the future will be allowed to encourage his pupils in impartial and independent thinking about current social, economic, and political problems.

Discussion of the importance of democracy in the national life has made educators increasingly aware of the need for more democratic procedures within the administration of the

public schools. The trend is toward greater recognition of the potential contribution of classroom teachers in the determination of administrative policies. National educational conventions, regional professional meetings, and institutes of professional relations in various sections of the country are offering classroom teachers increased opportunity to express themselves as an articulate branch of their profession.

In the third place, if this widespread re-evaluation of education in a democracy is taken seriously, the forces currently at work to threaten the financial support of public schools will be halted. It may be that a growing respect for the unique function education must perform, apart from all other governmental services, will turn the tide of government spending toward rather than away from the schools.

Finally, constant reference to the important place of the teacher today may result in greater social recognition of his role. Too often his contribution is taken for granted. As teachers acquire more and more civic influence, as they participate in community activities and draw the community into cooperation with the schools in pupil projects of civic importance, the social status of classroom teachers will change for the better.

Recognition of the need for professional unity of teachers—Teachers have not been as united as have certain trades and professions. Disunity has worked to the teachers' disadvantage in cases where social and economic trends have imposed unfavorable conditions upon the profession. Educational leaders have recognized these disadvantages and agitation for greater professional solidarity is increasing in teachers colleges and among teachers in service. Professional associations of teachers are giving special attention to this need.

If the majority of teachers would unite on pertinent issues and launch a well-organized effort to promote or to offset influences on education growing out of national trends, public opinion would probably not be unfavorable. Thus, by and large, the future status of classroom teachers rests with the teachers themselves. No matter what external pressures are brought to bear upon this branch of the education profession, if teachers are sufficiently concerned about their own economic and professional positions the future need not be feared.

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WE CANNOT emphasize too strongly the fundamental importance of improving the status of the teacher if we would improve child service. To provide an adequate supply of well-trained teachers, we must equip and support more and better teacher-training schools and colleges; we must offer salaries adequate to attract high-minded and well-educated youth into the profession; we must insure to them promotion on merit alone as well as permanent tenure while they render satisfactory service; we must remove from them the fear of destitution by adequate retirement annuities and pensions; and we must recognize their right to express their professional opinions and to develop in every proper way personal initiative.—*Resolution of the National Education Association, 1923.*
