CAA FOUNDATION

May 12, 2000

Bethany Little
Domestic Policy Council
2nd Floor
West Wing
Washington, DC 20502

RE: National Teacher Recruitment Campaign

Dear Bethany:

We look forward to seeing you in New York on Monday, May 22nd from 2:30pm to 5:00pm. Peter Wolff has been gracious to host this exploratory meeting. Everyone has agreed that a small, agile group is needed to start this conversation. Generally, though, everyone has said that they are interested in seeing a potential public/private partnership develop which is not exclusive, but rather centered on various forms of capital contributions: human, financial, intellectual, social.

The following issues will be covered:

- Is there a viable need for a national teacher recruitment campaign?
- If so, whom are we targeting?
- What is on the backside of this? In other words, how does a campaign connect to other primary issues such as standards, salaries, portability, certification, etc.?
- What elements of strength does each party bring to the table?
- What would our common goal be?
- Who is not at the table that should be?
- Timeframe

Included is a list of attendees and their affiliate organizations, location of the meeting, and some articles and information on the issue which most of you are familiar with.

Please call in advance with any questions and we look forward to seeing you in New York.

Sincerely,

Morgan Binswanger

9830 WILSHIRE BOULEVARD, BEVERLY HILLS, CALIFORNIA 90212 - 1825 • TELEPHONE: 310-288-4545 • FACSIMILE: 310-288-4800

The National Teacher Recruitment Meeting Attendees are:

Amanda Broun	Public Education Network
~~Kathy Bushkin~~ Michelle Gambino	America Online Incorporated
Terry Dozier - phone	U.S. Department of Education
David Eisner	America Online Incorporated
Arnold Fege	Public Education Network
Bibb Hubbard	Scholastic, Inc.
Mildred Hudson	Recruiting New Teachers
Craig Jerald	Education Week
Wendy Kopp	Teach for America
Bethany Little	Domestic Policy Council
Peter Wolff	Time Warner

The meeting will take place at Time Warner on Monday, May 22nd from 2:30pm to 5:00pm. The address is:

Time Warner
75 Rockefeller Plaza
Committee Room
29th Floor
New York, NY 10019
*The cross street is 51st Street.
#212-484-8000
*Check in at the reception desk in the lobby and you will be directed to the room.

If you have any problems or questions please call Shannon Mabrey at 310-288-4545 ext. 5958.

Who Should Teach? The States Decide

States are not doing enough to attract, screen, and retain competent teachers.

Good teaching matters. Savvy parents have long known this, and research is confirming it. With U.S. schools needing to hire about 2 million teachers in the next decade, the push is on to make sure that the people who take those jobs are qualified to teach to the higher academic standards now expected of students.

Quality Counts 2000, the fourth annual 50-state report by *Education Week*, looks at one of the most critical questions in education: What are states doing to attract, screen, and keep good teachers? The answer, based on the most exhaustive survey of state teacher policies to date: Not enough.

Despite universal agreement that teachers should have basic literacy skills and know the subjects they teach, *Quality Counts* found states playing an elaborate shell game. While they set standards for who can enter the profession on the front end, most keep the door cracked open on the back end. As a result, millions of students sit down every day before instructors who do not meet the minimum requirements their states say they should have to teach in a public school. And far too many teachers who have acquired basic credentials are not receiving the training, support, and encouragement they need to remain—and grow—in their profession. For example:

- Thirty-nine states require prospective educators to pass a basic-skills test. But 36 of those states have loopholes that allow at least some people to teach who have failed such exams.
- Twenty-nine states require high school teachers to pass tests in the subjects they plan to teach, and 39 require them to have a major, a minor, or an equivalent number of course credits in their subjects. Yet all of those states, except New Jersey, can waive those requirements, either by granting licenses to individuals who have not met them or by permitting districts to hire such people.
- The situation is even worse for middle school teachers. Fewer than half the states expect middle school teachers to earn secondary licenses in the subjects they plan to teach. The rest allow them to use "generic" elementary school certificates. Only nine states require all middle school teachers to pass tests in their subjects.
- Moreover, even licensed teachers are often assigned classes for which they have not been trained, a practice known as "out of field" teaching. Eleven states do not require special permission for teachers to spend part of the day teaching outside their areas of expertise. Only 22 states have the authority to penalize schools or districts for having out-of-field teachers, such as by revoking accreditation or cutting state aid. Only one state requires notification of parents when their children are taught by out-of-field teachers. And no state has published information about out-of-field teaching on school report cards for the public.

Quality Counts 2000 also looked at the incentives states offer to attract bright college graduates into teaching. It found that most such incentives are weak and rarely focus on the schools or subjects where teachers are needed most.

- Only Massachusetts offers "signing bonuses" to lure talented people into teaching. Maryland will begin doing so next school year.
- Twenty-seven states have scholarship or loan-forgiveness programs for prospective educators. But only 18 target such programs to specific shortage fields, such as math and science. Only 10 aim those programs at candidates who are willing to work in urban or rural schools, schools in impoverished neighborhoods, or low-performing schools.
- Forty states have programs that provide an accelerated pathway into teaching, particularly for career-switchers and liberal arts graduates. But with the exception of California, New Jersey, and Texas, such alternative routes serve few comers.
- Twenty-seven states have Web sites that list teacher vacancies in their states, but most do not require all districts to participate. Only nine permit teachers to submit résumés, job applications, or related personnel information electronically.

Beyond such shortcomings in the "pipeline" for beginning teachers, states are not doing nearly enough to help teachers reach their full potential as educators and to keep them from quitting the profession.

A special study conducted for *Quality Counts*, based on data from the U.S. Census Bureau, found a growing salary gap between public and private school teachers and other college graduates.

- Teachers ages 22 to 28 earned an average $7,894 less per year than other college-educated adults of the same age in 1998. The gap is three times greater for teachers 44 to 50, who earned $23,655 less than their counterparts in other occupations.
- The gap is worst among those with master's degrees ages 44 to 50. Teachers in that category earned $43,313 in 1998, compared with $75,824 for nonteachers—a difference of $32,511.
- From 1994 to 1998, the average salary for master's-degree holders outside teaching increased 32 percent, or $17,505, after adjusting for inflation; the average salary for teachers with master's degrees increased less than $200.

Moreover, salaries alone won't keep teachers in the classroom, and studies show that far too many leave the profession within the first five years. Many states have induction programs that give new teachers support and advice from more experienced colleagues. But while 28 states have laws that require or encourage districts to offer such programs, only 19 states require districts to provide that help to all beginning teachers; of those states, only 10 foot some or all of the bill.

- Though 27 states require principals or other individuals to observe and evaluate beginning teachers, only four states require that the evaluations be conducted by a team that includes someone outside the school. And only Connecticut and New York require novice teachers to pass a state-administered performance assessment.

Together, these piecemeal policies and lackluster incentives steer people away from teaching. The result is a teacher pipeline that more closely

resembles a leaky faucet.

For *Quality Counts 2000, Education Week* conducted a special analysis of the first federal study to follow college graduates into the workplace.

Based on that analysis:

- Nearly half (49 percent) of the 1992-93 college graduates who prepared to teach while in school had never worked in a K-12 public school four years later.
- At every step of the way, the less academically able chose teaching, as measured by college-entrance exams. Both those who prepared to teach as undergraduates and those who went on to do so were less likely to have scored in the top 25 percent on such tests than their peers who chose other professions.
- Of the college graduates who began teaching by 1993-94, nearly one in five had left within three years.
- The brightest novice teachers, as measured by their college-entrance exams, were the most likely to leave.
- Poor working conditions contribute to the high turnover. Teachers who did not participate in an induction program, who were dissatisfied with student discipline, or who were unhappy with the school environment were much more likely to leave than their peers.

This year's edition of *Quality Counts* also continues to chart the progress—or lack of progress—toward education improvement in the 50 states. In addition to the analysis of teaching policies, here is what *Education Week*'s reporting found:

Achievement—Seven states posted significant gains from 1992 to 1998 in the percentage of 4th graders reading at the "proficient" level or above on the National Assessment of Educational Progress: Colorado, Connecticut, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Minnesota, and Mississippi.

Standards, Assessments, and Accountability—Every state but Iowa has adopted academic standards in at least some subjects, and 44 have standards in all four core areas.

The number of states that administer tests matched to their standards in at least one subject climbed from 35 in 1997-98 to 41 this school year. The number of states that test whether students are meeting standards in all four of the core academic subjects rose from 17 to 21. Less movement occurred on the accountability front. For example, while California added monetary rewards for successful schools, Oregon and South Carolina killed funding for such programs.

School Climate—Since last year, three more states have passed laws permitting charter schools. And 29 states now allow parents to shop among public schools within a district or across the state. But few states have made noticeable gains in increasing parent or student involvement.

Resources—Forty-three states increased their per-pupil spending from 1997 to 1998. In 38 of those states, the increase was large enough to at least keep pace with inflation. Twenty-two states increased per-pupil spending by more than 5 percent, and eight had gains of more than 10 percent.

Quality Counts 2000 is divided into two sections. "Who Should Teach?" focuses on our theme for this year. "The State of the States" looks at student performance and more than 75 indicators of the health of each state's public education system. State-by-state updates relate state policy changes in education over the past year. **–THE EDITORS**

Quality Counts *is produced with support from the Pew Charitable Trusts.*

Recruiting Teachers

- **Briefing Paper**

Current Status

The Demands of Current School Reforms

- **Recruiting Teachers**

The Current Status of Teaching and Teacher Development

Teaching and Teacher Development Abroad

Possibilities for Transforming Teaching

Developing a New Paradigm for School Reform

Notes

Return to the Commission

Recruiting Teachers

Over the next two decades the demand for teachers will increase substantially. Higher birth rates and immigration have caused the teaching force to grow from 2.5 million in 1980 to 2.8 million in 1991 and a projected 3.3 million by the year 2002.14 (See Figure 1.) The teaching force has also aged considerably since the 1970s, when the last major hiring boom occurred. Nearly one fourth of teachers were over 50 in 1991, which means that we will be faced with replacing large numbers of teachers who will be retiring over this decade and the next; many of them -- such as the older-than-average population of mathematics and science teachers -- in fields where there are already shortages. Over the next decade, more than 200,000 teachers will need to be hired annually.15

Therefore, investment in teacher recruitment, preparation, licensing, induction, and ongoing development is crucial at this time. While demand for new teachers is increasing, the supply of newly prepared teachers dropped sharply throughout the 1970s and '80s and is just beginning to increase once again. Between 1972 and 1987, the number of bachelor's degrees conferred in education plummeted by over 50%, from nearly 200,000 annually to under 100,000.16 The decline was especially severe for academically able minority candidates and women, who shifted their preferences from education to business, health professions, law, and other occupations during those years.17 As these other professions opened up to women and minorities, the captive labor force for teaching -- which had given teaching more capable entrants than its salaries would otherwise have attracted -- began to disap pear, forcing it to compete with other occupations for talented entrants.

Since the late 1980s, attractions to teaching have improved somewhat, with salary increases closing some of the gap between teaching and other occupations, and returning teachers to the wage level they had received in 1972 before a decade of decline in real salaries.18 This has helped propel increases in teacher supply and quality. In contrast to the 1980s, current teacher education students have better

academic records than most other college students.19 At current rates of increase in supply, we might optimistically expect the number of newly prepared teachers to soon reach 150,000 annually for the more than 200,000 openings to be filled. Beyond that, a wide range of policy choices yet unmade will determine future trends. Obviously, teaching vacan cies are being, and will continue to be, filled from other sources. Both attracting and retaining qualified teachers at higher rates will be essential to school quality.

While teachers' salaries have improved in recent years, they remain lower than those of other similarly-educated workers. Overall U.S. teachers earn 20 to 30% less than other workers with the same amount of education and experience. In 1991, U.S. beginning teachers' salaries of $19,100 ranked above those of service workers, but below those of every other occupation held by recent college graduates, including clerical workers, technicians, and laborers, and

FIGURE 1

substantially below the $30,000 or more paid to beginning computer programmers, engineers, and health professionals.20 (See Figure 2).

Teachers' salaries vary greatly among districts and states. For example, average salaries in 1990-91 ranged from $20,354 in South Dakota to $43,326 in Connecticut.21 Even within a single labor market, there is often a marked difference in teachers' salaries based on the wealth and spending choices of various districts. Typically, teachers in affluent suburban districts earn more than those in central cities or more rural communities within the same area. These variations contribute to surpluses of qualified teachers in some locations and shortages in others, and they influence teacher retention, especially early in a teacher's career. Those who are better paid tend to stay in teaching longer than those with lower salaries.22

Recurring shortages of teachers have characterized the U.S. labor market for most of the twentieth century, with the excep tion of a brief period of declining student enrollments during the late 1970s and early 1980s.23 Currently, shortages are most pronounced in areas like bilingual education, special education, physics, chemistry, mathematics, and computer science,24 in central cities, and in growing regions of the country, such as the South and West.25 In 1991, nearly 10% of all teachers and one fourth

of new teachers lacked a proper license in their field; however, the proportions were more than twice as high in central cities. In New York City, for example, 2,600 of the 4,500 teachers hired in 1992 were unlicensed, bringing the total number of such teachers in the city at that time to 9,600.**26**

Maintaining an adequate supply of well-prepared recruits is even harder during times of substantial new hiring, because new teachers leave at much greater rates than mid-career teachers,**27** particularly if they do not receive mentoring or support during their first years of teaching. Typically, 30 to 50% of beginning teachers leave teaching within their first five years.**28** Teach ers in shortage fields, such as the physical sciences, also tend to leave more quickly and at higher rates.**29** New teachers often leave because they are given the most challenging teaching assignments and left to sink or swim with little or no support. The kinds of supervised internships provided for new entrants in other professions -- architects, psychologists, nurses, doctors, engineers -- are largely absent in teaching, even though they have proven to be quite effective in the few places where they exist.**30**

Some states and districts have addressed shortages by increasing salaries and providing scholarships and other incen tives for prospective teachers. Others have instead reduced standards for entry by establishing alternative routes to certif ication or expanding the use of substandard and/or temporary credentials.**31** Despite current efforts to raise licensing stan dards for new teachers, more than one in four new hires in 1991 held either a substandard certificate or none at all. (See Figure 3.) Not surprisingly, those who were hired without certification were concentrated in shortage fields. One-third or more of all new teachers assigned to teach mathematics, science, social studies, physical education, and special education were neither certified nor eligible for certification in those fields.32 These unlicensed entrants were younger and had signif icantly lower GPAs in college than other new teachers.33

FIGURE 2

Back to Top

FIGURE 3

The curricular implications of these shortages have not yet

been fully reckoned with. Chronic shortages of mathematics and science teachers over the past 40 years, for example, have created a vicious cycle in which generations of students have received suboptimal instruction in these fields. These shortages reduce students' access to higher-level content in mathematics and science by preparing too few students to take advanced courses and by offering too few teachers to teach them. Interna tional studies show that U.S. students receive less rigorous and less well-taught science and mathematics from at least the upper elementary grades throughout secondary school than do students in most other industrialized countries.**34** In any given year, one third of U.S. high schools do not even offer a physics course.**35** And only about 3% of American students have access to calculus, as compared to four or five times that ratio in other counries.**36**

Overall, 15% of all schools and 23% of central-city schools reported in 1991 that they had vacancies they could not fill with a qualified teacher. Schools with higher minority enrollments had the most difficulty filling vacancies.**37** (See Figure 4.) English as a Second Language and bilingual positions were the most difficult to fill; followed by special education and physi cal sciences**38**. To deal with these shortages, principals hire less qualified teachers, use substitutes, cancel courses, raise class sizes, or ask other teachers to teach outside their field of preparation.

Out-of-field teaching is common. Fully one in five public school teachers reported in 1987-88 that they were not teaching in the area in which they felt best qualified. As a result of these problems, inner-city high school students in high-minority schools, for example, have only have a 50% chance of being taught by a qualified mathematics or science teacher.**39** (See Figure 5.) Many children in central city schools are taught throughout their entire school careers by a parade of short-term substitutes, inexperienced teachers who leave before their first year is up, and beginners with little or no preparation.**40**

The prevalence of unlicensed teachers and out-of-field teaching poses real concerns for the quality of education stu dents receive. A large body of research shows that fully quali fied teachers are more effective with students than those whose background lacks one or more of the elements required for a license -- subject matter preparation, knowledge about teaching and learning, or guided clinical experience.**41** Research also shows that the differences in teacher qualifications across schools account more than any

other factor for the differences in student achievement.**42**

Ironically, while shortages lead to the hiring of unquali fied entrants, a great many prospective teachers do not enter the profession after they complete their preparation. Of those who prepared to teach in 1990, only about three fourths applied for teaching jobs and only 58% actually entered teaching the year after their graduation; the proportion is even lower for minority teacher candidates.**43** This happens for a number of reasons. Many prospective teachers have trouble finding employment in areas where they want to work. Although most jobs for new teachers are in less affluent central cities, most teacher education students want to teach in well-heeled suburban schools that tend to have lower turnover

FIGURE 4

FIGURE 5

and that hire experienced teachers rather than new teachers.44 Some have prepared to teach in fields where there is an oversupply of teachers rather than in fields where there are shortages. Others have prepared to teach in fields like mathemat ics or science but find the alternative jobs in business and industry more appealing. Still others take time off to do something else (graduate school, other employment, travel, or homemaking) after graduating. Some of these individuals enter teaching later; others do not. Some education students prepare to teach as a kind of insurance, while pursuing other possible career opportunities. Finally, some teachers decide not to enter the profession when they encounter difficulties in negotiating the shoals of districts' hiring procedures or when they experience unprofessional hiring practices.**45**

To heighten the paradox, while hiring statistics show more teachers entering low-income districts with marginal qualifica tions, the overall academic quality of new recruits is stronger than ever before. Nearly one in four newly hired teachers in 1990-91 held at least a master's degree**46** , and a growing number are prepared in much more extensive and rigorous programs than previously. Thus, a dual standard increasingly characterizes entry to teaching; one that provides teachers of dramatically different qualifications for different students, exacerbating growing educational inequalities between the rich and the poor. These trends are related to the different policy choices made by states and districts about how to meet the demand for teachers. The

structures and conditions under which teachers' work takes place also influence the distribution of qualified and under-qualified teachers.