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# An examination of teacher migration in a large, urban school district

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**AN EXAMINATION OF TEACHER MIGRATION IN A LARGE,  
URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICT**

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Doctor in Philosophy

in

The Department of Curriculum and Instruction

by

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May, 2005

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends who have been an unfailing source of support. My husband, Lou, and our sons, Benjamin and Gabriel, always believed that I would complete this work. I am glad that I did not let them down since they are the most important part of my life.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Teaching is professional work that as an occupation is characterized by many of the same rules of employment as other white-collar jobs. It is typically steady work with predictably rising pay, requires limited physical effort, a fixed amount of work time, and occurs in organizations that are rule-bound. Teaching is also uniquely complex, in that it requires a high degree of autonomy, responsibility for others, and extensive management activities. It is also work that has been the focus of significant public criticism for more than twenty-five years as students test scores have declined, the achievement gap among the races has widened, and student discipline problems have increased. Most importantly, it is work that is attracting fewer and fewer new entrants into its ranks at the same time it is losing teachers at a higher rate than other occupations.

The purpose of this study was to better describe the complexity of the school staffing problem by examining teacher migration, one form of teacher turnover. The synthesis of research to date indicates that turnover destabilizes schools and that such instability has a direct effect on the success of students. Using quantitative and qualitative research methods, the personal characteristics of teachers who migrated during a four year period within the Duval County, Florida public schools were identified as were the organizational characteristics of the schools from which they migrated. Factors that influenced the decision to migrate were analyzed to determine the ways in which personal characteristics or school characteristics were associated with migration or influenced the decision to migrate.

The findings of this study indicate that teachers migrated almost equally for personal reasons and because of the conditions and characteristics of the schools.

Teachers migrated more frequently from poorer schools or lower-achieving schools due to an imbalance they experienced among the hard work that teaching in poorer schools takes, the time away from home that working so far away requires, and the kind and quality of administrative support that was received.

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

This Chapter provides an overview of the current debate about the quality of teachers and teacher education and a historical review of the development of teaching in the United States. Teaching is discussed using a conceptual framework consisting of three parts: teaching as calling, teaching as science, and teaching as craft. Critical events in the development of teaching are presented and the more recent 25 year-long reform of public education environment is described in terms of policies and trends that have impacted teaching and teachers. Statistics highlighting the shortage of teachers nationally and within Florida are presented. Finally, the school staffing problem in Florida is described as the elements of this study are discussed, that is: the statement of the problem; the purpose of the study; the significance of the study; delimitations and limitations of the study; and the definition of terms.

### **The Quality of Teachers and Teacher Education**

Public critiques of teachers and teacher education are not new but have become increasingly politicized in recent years. Those who prepare teachers, employ teachers, or assess the performance of teachers are keenly aware that the criticism of public education has now become almost solely focused on the quality of teachers and teacher education. As the public has become increasingly concerned about declining student test scores, student discipline and school safety, policy makers at all levels have responded with calls for accountability and increased regulatory emphasis on the testing of students and their teachers. The debate centers almost exclusively on the quality of teachers and the training, preparation, and licensing of teachers.

The Progressive Policy Institute's 21<sup>st</sup> Century Schools Project (2001) notes that there is a growing body of evidence that illustrates just how important teacher excellence is to student achievement. The research in Tennessee schools by William Sanders and June Rivers (1996) identified the cumulative effects of even one or two bad teachers on a student. Other studies have revealed similar results (The Education Trust, 1998). Rothman (2001) found that addressing teacher quality and teacher shortages has become a state and national policy priority.

At the turn of this century, the debate about the quality of teachers and teacher education became highly politicized with the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) through the *No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act 2001* and the emergence of two focused but contrary national agendas: the thrust to further professionalize teaching and teacher education, and the movement to deregulate teacher preparation.

The *No Child Left Behind Act*, signed into law by President George W. Bush on January 8, 2002, (U. S. Department of Education, 2004) has been both lauded and vilified. The Act's four key aims: stronger accountability for results, more freedom for states and communities, encouraging proven educational methods, and more choices for parents, are designed to provide direction for the improvement of public education and student outcomes. Opponents, such as the National Education Association, however, contend that the Act ". . . presents real obstacles to helping students and strengthening public schools" (National Education Association, 2004). Such detractors opine that the *NCLB Act* focuses on punishment rather than assistance to schools and note that it is based on mandates that come with little or no financial support. Further, the NEA and

others believe that the political agenda behind the Act is the ultimate privatization of public schools.

The agenda to professionalize teaching and teacher education is a broad-based effort to develop a consistent approach to teacher education nationwide based on high standards for initial preparation, licensing, and certification of teachers. It is linked to the K-12 curriculum standards movement and the work of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF). This agenda is promulgated through the joint efforts of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS).

According to Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001), the professionalization agenda is supported by foundations including the Carnegie Corporation, the Pew Charitable Trusts, the Ford Foundation, and the DeWitt Wallace Reader's Digest Fund, who advocate standards-based teacher preparation and professional development as well as teacher assessment based on performance across the professional lifespan of a teacher. It is, however, not new. The professionalization agenda has been a feature of American schooling and school reform efforts periodically for more than a century (Cuban, 1993).

In contrast to the professionalization movement is the agenda to deregulate teacher preparation and certification. The deregulation agenda can be described as serving a dual purpose, that of quality and quantity. Proponents support dismantling traditional teacher preparation programs and eliminating the requirements of state licensing because they present unnecessary hurdles to entry into the profession, thus keeping academically talented young people and mid-career job changers out of teaching (Hess, 2002). Alternate routes into teaching would have rigorous teacher testing as the

major gatekeeper for the profession. There is considerable support for the view that traditional teacher education is of questionable value (Feistritzer and Chester, 1996; Sedlak, 1989; Uhler, 1987). Supporters of deregulation seem to believe “that if they could influence the supply, quality, and performance of public school teachers, both the quality of education and the economic well-being of the country would be restored” (McPhail-Wilcox & King, 1988, p.100).

Central to the debate about the quality of teachers and teacher education is the question of a knowledge-base in teaching and teacher education that is grounded in rigorous research and professional consensus about what teachers should know and be able to do, as exists in other professions like medicine, law or accounting (Darling-Hammond, 1990). Professionalization has been conceptualized in various ways in the literature. Pratt & Rury (1991) list four criteria that shape the traditional view of a profession: remuneration, status, autonomous or authoritative power, and service. Burbeles & Densmore (1991) identify a taxonomic approach, in which the characteristics of a profession are identified- professional autonomy; a clearly identified, highly developed, specialized and theoretical knowledge base; control of training, certification and licensing of new entrants; self-governing and self-policing authority, especially with regard to professional ethics; and a commitment to public service.

The professionalization movement asserts that there is a body of knowledge as noted by Burbeles & Densmore. Corrigan and Haberman (1990) assert that, at minimum, the agreed upon professional knowledge base consists of the content and processes needed for preparing teachers to teach job-related and basic skills. Teacher educators also focus on a knowledge base that includes what is known about human growth and

development, brain research, the development of the mind, the act of cognition, subject matter expertise, pedagogy and best practices in the development and management of classrooms and learning communities. Further, noted professionalization proponents such as Linda Darling-Hammond (1999), contend that failure to imbue teachers with this professional knowledge and to license teachers accordingly amounts to putting under-prepared and unqualified teachers in classrooms who then fail to effectively educate their students.

Conversely, deregulation supporters believe that there is no canon, that is, no body of principles, rules, standards, or norms that is widely accepted and that forms a rational basis for preparation and licensure of teachers. While they note that there is some agreement within the profession on what teachers should know and be able to do, there is no consensus on how to train good teachers or ensure that they have mastered essential skills or knowledge (Hess, 2001).

### **Historical Context of Teaching**

Historically, the cycle of criticism and reform of public education is not new. Debate over teacher education has recurred for almost two centuries (Warren, 1989). During the early years of the Democracy, children in the United States were educated with the primary purpose of being enabled to read the Bible. Home schooling by a parent was the prevalent means of education with the exception of the upper classes, wherein a classical education was provided by means of tutors or at the early American institutions of higher education, notably Harvard and Yale. In 1792, Thomas Paine suggested that the state should provide poor families with the funds necessary to secure a basic education for children, perhaps the first in a long line of suggested reforms to education.

In the 1840s, Horace Mann passionately advocated for common schools as a way of improving society (Tyack and Cuban, 1995). According to Tyack and Cuban (p.24), “By the 1890s the common school movement had spread across a growing nation.” In 1892-93, the National Education Association established the Committee of Ten, comprised mainly of college presidents, to study the issue of school curriculum. The Committee, led by Charles Eliot, president of Harvard University, ultimately determined that schools should maintain a single academic curriculum and all students should master an equally rigorous curriculum. The Committee recommended eight years of elementary education and four years of secondary education (Ornstein & Levine, 1993). Public schools in 1890 were already diverse, however, with 224,526 school buildings housing some 13 million students in elementary schools, including grades 7 and 8, and 222,000 students in high schools (Cuban, 1993). More than three quarters of these students attended school in rural areas.

Demographic pressures continued into the 20<sup>th</sup> century, as educational aspirations of the general population climbed. As in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the debate over public education in the 20<sup>th</sup> century had at its root the national well-being. “For over a century and a half, Americans have translated their cultural anxieties and hopes into dramatic demands for educational reform” (Tyack and Cuban, 1995, p.1). In the early twentieth century, many influential leaders in the educational establishment acted as expert social engineers, and sought to perfect society through a movement of progressivism. Coupled with the new science of education, the course to a perfect society could be guided.

Throughout the latter half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the majority of teachers taught in common (public) schools, wherein they secured their jobs and began their teaching assignments before they sought formal preparation or pursued advanced studies (Warren, 1998). For the most part these were young women who were willing to work for lower pay than their male counterparts and who, according to Donald Warren, “passed along the level of education they had completed” (p. 90).

Normal schools emerged during this period beginning with the opening of the first state funded school specifically for teacher education in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839 (Harper, 1970). The normal school served to provide prospective teachers with a laboratory for learning using model classrooms as places to practice their new skills. Late in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, these institutions still functioned at the level of secondary education, some having been established as normal departments in urban high schools.

The impetus for the spread of institutions for teacher preparation came from the rapid growth of teaching positions, fed by rising enrollments in the common schools formed across the country. From the 1830s onward, as local and state systems of common schools formed across the country, the number of jobs multiplied, doubling and, in some states, even tripling every decade through out the 19<sup>th</sup> Century (Warren, 1998). State legislators responded gradually with funds for teacher institutes and later for normal schools.

### **Three Models of Teaching**

In general the educational level of teachers has remained at the national average. When common schooling met the aspirations of most people, it was good enough for teachers. As secondary school enrollments grew, the level of teacher

preparation rose. The institutions created for the purpose of preparing teachers served both to socialize teachers to a particular professional ethic and to legitimize to the public the “profession” of teaching (Adler, 1984).

In considering the history of teacher preparation in America, three models can be identified: 1) teaching as calling, 2) teaching as science, and 3) teaching as craft. Influenced by the context of the time in which it predominated, each model of teaching is representative of the political and social constraints and pressures that were present.

Teaching was not considered a full-time or long-term profession in the early nineteenth century. It was an occupation one might hold before engaging in other professional work or while performing another job, such as farming (Urban, 1990). Schooling and teaching were rooted in religion, with ministers maintaining an interest in teaching, even while the actual job was taken over by laymen. Oversight of the operation of the school was often assumed by the minister, on behalf of the community, as was earliest called for by Cotton Mather, foremost minister in Boston in the late 1600s.

In his treatise The Education of Children (Campbell, 2004), Mather preached that “Where [Godly] schools are not vigorously and honourable encouraged, whole Colonies will sink apace; into a degenerate and contemptible condition, and at last become horribly barbarous.” Mather further called for “well-ordered and well-instructed and well-maintained schools” to be the honor and defense of the land. Thus, teaching as a calling, based on religious authority and patriotism, became the model of the times, continuing into the early 1800s with the establishment of the Lyceum movement.

The lyceum movement was conceived by Josiah Holbrook in New England in the 1820s and was first intended to be a local study group. The leaders of American

Transcendentalism, Thoreau, Emerson and Hawthorne, embraced the concept, but none more than Amos Bronson Alcott, the father of Louisa May Alcott and the first superintendent of the public schools of Concord, Massachusetts (Stambler, 1981). Led by Alcott, the lyceum movement was used as a model to provide an institutional form for the education of the public and of teachers. This took the form of a voluntary association for both the community and teachers in order to observe and discuss teachers and teaching alike and to allow teachers to establish a sense of professional kinship (Mattingly, 1975). Rooted in his profound spirituality and Transcendentalist beliefs, Alcott proposed that the key to good teaching was to be found in the teacher's character, and sense of discipline and dedication, not in specific skills or practices. The preparation of teachers, within the context of teaching as a calling, meant the development of commitment and devotion, and of a willingness to undergo personal sacrifice on behalf of one's students and the community (Urban, 1990).

In 1832, Samuel Read Hall, along with others dissatisfied with the then unsystematic preparation for teaching, founded the School Agents Society. Circuit schools, institutions intended to bring the benefits of established seminaries to the people, were founded by the Society. According to Mattingly (1975), agents traveled a circuit, disseminating notions of educational standards and developing methods of "preparing" teachers. While teaching was still conceived as a calling, more emphasis was placed on the awakening of an individual's potential rather than the development of discipline and dedication (Adler, 1984). From these circuit schools emerged the teacher preparation institutes that were major influences up to the 1850s. Experienced teachers in the 1850s and 1860s attempted to define specific measures for teacher training. By the end of the

1860s teacher institutes were seen as a requirement for the preparation of teachers who did not receive their education in normal schools (Urban, 1990).

These early developments in the nineteenth century began the effort to make teaching a profession, albeit a temporary or seasonal one. Education was still viewed as a religious endeavor, characterized best by Henry Barnard's statement calling for a "priesthood of teachers" (Curti, 1978). And, since effort to gain acceptance of any occupation as a profession depends on the public's view of the profession's base of authority, the model of teaching as calling relied on the accepted base of authority at the time – religion.

The primary institutions for preparing teachers in the mid- to late nineteenth century were normal schools. Normal schools grew up in close connection with the common school. Prospective teachers attended normal schools directly from the common school and then returned to the common school to teach (Adler, 1984). Normal school leaders emphasized the importance of duty and dedication. They also, however, began to develop a focus on the learning of technical knowledge and by the late nineteenth century, it was the normal school with its technical emphasis that provided the primary training for and socialization into teaching and the dominant ideology of the occupation (Urban, 1990).

Instruction of students during this period was exclusively teacher-centered. Cuban (1993) notes that "embedded within teacher-centered instruction were assumptions about the social and economic role of schools . . . schools were expected to not only to build citizens but to also to teach students the skills needed to work in an increasingly complex industrial society" (p. 38).

Noted influences during the late nineteenth century and the first quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> century were the development of student-centered instruction and Progressivism. Informally, it was the one-room school with its isolation and lack of materials that fostered instructional practices wherein students helped one another and learned content derived from their surroundings. Formally, it was the theorizing, writing and teaching by example of Froebel and Pestalozzi in Europe, and Sheldon, Parker and Dewey in America that resulted in the training of practicing and potential teachers in student-centered instructional practices and scientific pedagogy (Cuban, 1993).

Teachers during this period had to accommodate the changing practices and emphasis in the classroom and the increased scientific focus of their own training. According to Cuban (1993), “teachers created mixtures of practices that mirrored broader conflicts between cultivating individual children’s growth and preparing children to find a useful niche in the social order, between scientific efficiency and creative expression, and between education and socialization” (p. 454). It seems reasonable, then, to assume that some persisted in viewing teaching as a calling while others embraced the role as based in science.

In the early twentieth century, there was an increasing focus on the systemization of rules based on a growing body of scientific research. A “science of education”, based in the universities, incorporated advances in statistics and behavioral psychology and provided the foundation for an empirical approach to education. With the increasing popularity of quantitative studies to provide reliable information, a belief was formed that all teaching problems could be researched and solved in systematic ways (Mattingly, 1975).

By the mid-twentieth century, most teachers' colleges had become all-purpose colleges and teacher education came to be lodged in departments and schools of education within broad purpose institutions of higher education (Haberman and Stinnett, 1973). Undergirded with the authority of scientific research, teacher preparation programs continued to emphasize the development of skills and techniques based in scientific theory and technological expertise. University colleges of education came to be seen as centers for the production of the technology of teaching. Through a combination of research and training, teachers could be trained to become experts who could practice skills and implant knowledge within specific contexts (Adler, 1984). Thus, the shift from teaching as calling to teaching as science was institutionalized.

Attempts to balance the scientific and technical emphasis in teacher preparation and teaching itself with a broader, more liberal view reemerged in America in the late 1950s and 1960s. Both Dewey and George Counts wrote reflectively after this period that the social dimensions of education could not be stressed enough and that, properly educated, teaching "has at its disposal, as no other group, the knowledge and wisdom of the ages" (Counts, 1982, p.26).

The return to some emphasis of calling was reinforced by the social and political movements of the 1960s and 1970s and found expression in the schools of the time. The teacher moved beyond "what works" in the scientific knowledge base of teaching to developing personal knowledge and insight into the psychological and social contexts of teaching thus making decisions mindfully, with an awareness of constraints, possibilities, and alternatives. Thus practioners, that is, teachers themselves, brought into being

teaching as craft, in that a craftsman may be defined as one who creates or performs with skill and dexterity.

Inherent in the conceptualization of teaching as craft is knowledgeable decision making and the execution of theory into practice. According to Popkewitz (1977), teaching as craft may be seen as the difference between “knowing how” and “knowing that”. Appropriate teacher education within this context incorporates a liberal education, one that provides education students with a broad perspective of time and culture, with an ability to think critically and analytically, and with knowledge of the basic principles on which the science of education exists. It then provides an environment for potential teachers to construct knowledge and practice the art of facilitating learning.

Teaching as craft incorporates instructional practices that are both teacher centered and student centered and found some basis in the effective schools movement that began in the late 1970s as well as the neo-progressive movement that focused on the whole child. The effective schools movement harnessed research findings about what constituted effective teaching in the context of student academic performance. From an ideological perspective, the effective schools movement was based on high expectations for students, aligning instruction with curricular materials and tests, and frequent monitoring of student performance (Cuban, 1993).

However, in the wake of the school reform environment of the 1980s and 1990s, teaching as craft may be a model that can best be described as the incorporation of both the teacher centered practices of the standards and accountability movement with the student centered practices of active learning by students and constructivist practices. Perhaps Jerome Bruner was considering teaching as craft in 1998 when he wrote, “We

need a surer sense of what to teach to whom and how to go about teaching it in such a way that it will make those taught more effective, less alienated, and better human beings (p.118).

### **The Environment of School Reform**

Between 1930 and 1980 the number of one room-schools declined from 130,000 to less than 1,000 (Tyack and Cuban, 1995), which was mirrored in reverse by the increase of state boards of education and administrators at the state and local level. With the increase of those overseeing public education, a corollary increase in regulations governing education occurred. And, given the public's intense faith in education to improve both society and the individual, it is understandable that when the public's investment in education through its comprehensive system of public schools shows disappointing results, blame will be placed.

Tyack and Cuban (1995) have defined educational reforms as "planned efforts to change schools in order to correct perceived social and educational problems" (p. 4). And Hess (1999) has stated that reform "becomes a tool that legitimizes the performance of urban school districts" (p. 5). While criticisms of schools and periodic calls for the reform of schools have always been with us, the last 25 years has been a period of constant reform.

The educational reform movements of the 1980s sorted into two categories: calls for more rigorous academic standards for students and more recognition and higher standards for teachers (Haberman, 1987), stimulated in large part by the publication of the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education, A Nation at Risk. The report, issued in April of 1983, was commissioned by

U. S. Secretary of Education, Terrell H. Bell. The Commission was formed to examine the quality of education in the United States in light of the Secretary's stated concern about the public perception that something was remiss in our educational system. The Commission's primary charge was that of assessing the quality of teaching and learning in public and private schools, colleges, and universities.

States played out their responsibility in the reform efforts through legislative action and gubernatorial leadership. The resulting policy and statutory changes covered such topics as: school board powers; training, evaluation, and testing of administrators; school planning and accountability; school financing; district reorganization; class size; instructional resources; early childhood programs; intervention programs for at risk students; discipline; teacher certification, training, testing and evaluation; career ladders and merit pay; and curriculum content change.

The focus of reform did not change dramatically in the 1990s but the pressure on public schools and those institutions that prepared teachers for the schools intensified. In their analysis of the discourse of reform in teacher education, Cochran-Smith and Fries (2001) observed

Arguably, however, there have never before been such blistering media commentaries and such highly politicized battles about teacher education as those that have dominated the public discourse and fueled legislative reforms at the state and federal levels during the last five years or so (p.3). The New American Schools Development Corporation (NASDC) proposed as its goal "Imagine a new generation of American schools that are light years beyond those of today" (Tyack and Cuban, 1995, p. 111). The Corporation was chartered as a part of U. S. President's George Bush's "America 2000" education strategy which sought not merely to reform existing schools but to assume that they did

not exist. President Bush admonished Americans to “Think about every problem, every challenge we face. The solution to each starts with education (p.110).”

Given such a high stakes proposition, it is little wonder that the discourse has been so politicized and so divisive.

None of the arguments, both within and outside of the educational establishment, have been more rancorous, however, than those that have centered on the quality of teachers and teaching. The credibility of teacher education and the quality of the teaching force have long been a concern. Credibility problems with teacher quality have been linked historically to the public’s perception of the place of university-based teacher training. Since the days of “buying schoolmasters” in the 18<sup>th</sup> century (Sedlak, 1989), there has been a persistent public view that anyone with the inclination and some content knowledge can teach without completing a formal teacher education program. Pinar’s description of Philip Jackson’s main theme . . . “that teaching is more complex than is commonly regarded” and “(his) questioning of the public assumption that everyone knows how to teach, as long as the subject matter is known” (1996), p.750) is a pertinent reflection on this paradox. Within the current understanding of cognition and cognitive development, teaching and learning represent complex interactions in which knowledge is negotiated, distributed, situated, constructed, developmental, and affective.

The view expressed by Murray about the process of teaching and learning, demands disciplinary, pedagogical, and cultural understandings that even bright, well-educated, enthusiastic people do not automatically possess. Yet, the

increasing lack of credibility in the completion of a teacher education program as the primary measure of beginning teacher quality and the typical layperson's idea of what constitutes teacher knowledge, skills and dispositions, continue to undermine the perceived value of formal teacher education and the worth of teaching as an occupation.

In 1986, the Holmes Group called for the making of the education of teachers intellectually more solid, expanding the role of the liberal arts and sciences in teacher preparation, and creating professionally relevant and intellectually defensible standards of entry into the national teacher corps. During the same period of time, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher education also advocated for greater rigor in teacher preparation, and its revised standards and procedures placed stronger emphasis on the knowledge bases for professional education (Melnick and Pullin, 2000). The imperative to enhance the quality of teachers and teacher preparation led to what the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) called "an audacious goal . . . by the year 2006, America will provide all students in the country with what should be their educational birthright: access to competent, caring, qualified teachers" (p.5).

By the late 1990s, all states had adopted or seriously considered increased curricular and/or testing standards for minimally competent student performance in elementary or secondary schools (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1998). The school reform movement demanded more thoughtful and rigorous instruction in elementary, middle, and high schools (Cohen and Spillane, 1993)

and it was incumbent on institutions of higher education to deliver teachers into America's classrooms who were prepared to do just that.

Although the efforts of NCTAF, NCATE, and other organizations are promising, there have been critiques of these endeavors. One argument made by Ballou & Podgursky (1998) is that NCTAF's proposal is that it proposes to shift the power to regulate teacher training and licensing from public officials to private professional organizations. Despite emerging consensus about strategies to strengthen teacher education to achieve high and rigorous standards for teaching and learning, Fullan, Galluzzo, Morris and Watson (1998) suggest that reform efforts over the past two decades in effect have constituted parallel but anomalous trends; at once, moving toward more rigorous teacher preparation as defined and described by educators themselves, and at the same time, a public agenda of externally mandated, prescriptive federal and state policies, such as teacher competency tests and limitations on the number of hours of pedagogical training, among others.

### **The Shortage of Teachers**

Within this context and paralleling the reform debates of the past twenty-five years has been heightened concern about the emerging shortage of teachers, even though there is disagreement about the nature and extent of the teacher shortage . Individuals enter the teacher labor market as in other occupations with unique sets of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values. While the body of research indicates there are multiple reasons given for the teacher shortage, running throughout is discussion about the value, real and intrinsic, of the human capital that teachers bring to the profession

and how that human capital is leveraged in terms of student achievement and rewarded in terms of teacher retention.

About one-third of new teachers leave the profession after three years and almost half leave after five years (Darling-Hammond and Sclan, 1997). Teacher turnover, that is, those who leave the field and those who change jobs, is 15.7%, higher than the 11% that is present in non-teaching occupations (Berry and Hirsch, 2003).

Johnson, Birkland, Kardos, Kaufman, Liu & Peske (2001) noted that of the 2.2 million vacancies projected by 2010, high poverty schools will have the greatest need and certain subjects, such as math, science and foreign languages and certain programs, bilingual and special education, will have the greatest number of vacancies to fill. In 1999, the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education noted that the majority of elementary and secondary school teachers were female (74%) and white (87%). Other estimates indicate that the percentage of white teachers in public schools has increased to as high as 90 percent, while African- Americans comprise only 7 percent of public school teachers (Snyder, 1999). It appears that schools with the greatest need for teachers will also find that the labor pool of available teacher candidates will not be representative of the diversity of the student body or the communities to be served.

There are conflicting reports about teacher supply and demand in the United States. During the 1990s, the supply of public elementary and secondary teachers grew, and in 1999 was estimated to be 3.1 million, 2,666,034 of whom were teaching in the public schools (Snyder, 1999). Over a million of those teachers, approximately 40 percent were in the six states of California, Florida, Illinois, New York, Ohio, and

Texas. The National Center for Educational Statistics calculated that 3.0 million full-time-equivalent teachers were working in public elementary and secondary schools in 2000-01 (website).

The number of elementary and secondary school teachers is projected to increase annually to a total of 3.46 million by the year 2008. This follows the trend of the 1990s in which the number of teachers nationally increased by 23.1% while the number of students for the same period increased by 14.65 (NCES, 2004). It is also projected that the number of teaching vacancies nationally will be about 2.2 million between 1998 and 2008, averaging over 200,000 annually. It appears, then, that the United States does not and will not have a shortage of teachers nationally in the near future.

However, the projected demand for new teachers may outpace the projected growth in the supply of teachers, particularly in urban school districts. Shortages exist as a result of inequities in the distribution patterns and can be connected to the type of schools or specific programs and subjects or both (Darling-Hammond and Sykes, 2003). Urban and poor communities will have the greatest need for teachers due to rising student enrollments and teacher retirements. Urban communities also face the added challenge of retaining their teachers who may be attracted to the higher salaries and newer school physical plants in wealthier suburban communities (Yasin, 1999).

### **Statement of the Problem**

Research conducted by the Florida Office of Economic and Demographic Research, The Florida Legislature, shows that the problem of teacher supply and demand in Florida mirrors that of the nation (December, 2000). In the first decade of this century, Florida will need to recruit about 162,000 teachers to meet the needs of the growing

student population. It is important to note that this estimate was projected before a constitutional amendment approved by the state's voters in November of 2002 requiring school districts to reduce the teacher-pupil ratio.

In Florida, traditional teacher preparation programs produce only about 60% of the teachers hired each year. Further, the state of Florida mirrors the national dilemma in that some 50% of students who graduate with a degree in education either never teach or leave the profession within the first five years of initial employment. While an estimated 21 percent of teachers ages 55 and older will leave Florida's classrooms between now and 2010, it is also estimated that 72 percent of teachers younger than age 55 will leave the profession by 2010 (Florida's Teacher Shortage Report, Florida School Board's Association, 2001).

Research conducted during the past 25 years has focused our attention on the multiple and complex factors in the school staffing problem (Ingersoll, 2001). The largest body of research (Bobbitt, Leich, Whitner & Lynch, 1994; Chapman & Green, 1986; Haggstrom, Darling-Hammond, & Grissmer, 1988; Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple & Olsen, 1991; Weiss & Boyd, 1990; Grissmer & Kirby, 1992; Boe, Bobbitt & Cook, 1997) has been primarily concerned with the individual characteristics of teachers who are more prone to leave teaching and why. A survey of 2,200 individuals with Florida teaching certificates who were not teaching, conducted by the Florida Office of Economic and Demographic Research in the spring of 2000, found that 29 percent of the respondents said they left the classroom due to pregnancy or childrearing. 20 percent stated they were dissatisfied with teaching while salary and benefits were cited by 14 percent as the impetus for their departure. Only 10 percent of those responding to the

survey indicated that retirement was the primary reason for their departure from the profession.

The Florida School Board Report proposes that “the state could avoid the projected shortfall altogether, by retaining at least 21% of departing pre-retirement teachers” (p.3, 2001). Richard Ingersoll (2001) proposes that education and policy initiatives will not solve the school staffing problem if they do not also address the “primary underlying problem- the manner in which teachers and schools are managed” (p. 525). Studies that address organizational factors are fewer in number and have tended to emphasize primarily teacher attrition and rarely the other important component of teacher turnover- that of teacher migration, that is, the voluntary movement of teachers from one school to another. A limited number of studies have examined teacher migration (Murnane, 1981; Grissmer & Kirby, 1987, 1992; Rollefson & Broughman, 1995; Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Barkanic & Mailsin, 1998) but it was not until Ingersoll’s (2001) extended study of the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and its supplement, the Teacher Followup Survey (TFS), primarily using data from 1991-92, that the importance of the organizational conditions of schools and the effects of teacher migration on the school staffing problem fully emerged.

Given Florida’s projected need for teachers during the present decade, more research about the problem of teacher migration in Florida’s largest school districts is warranted.

This study poses the following questions:

1. What are the individual characteristics of Duval County Public School

teachers who migrate?

2. What are the organizational characteristics of the schools from which Duval County Public School teachers migrate?
3. In what ways is migration associated with a teacher's personal characteristics?  
In what ways is migration associated with the school's organizational characteristics?
4. How do teachers who migrate perceive that their decision was influenced by their personal mode of growth or career stage at the time of migration?

### **Rationale/Purpose of the Study**

Recently, there has been increased emphasis among educators and public policy makers on the need to understand the complexity of teacher turnover and its impact on school staffing in the face of significant teacher shortages nationwide. Ingersoll (2001) cites the need "to examine teacher turnover and school staffing from an organizational perspective" (p. 504). This study attempts to better describe the complexity of the school staffing problem by examining the teacher migration phenomenon in the Duval County Public Schools over a four-year period to identify the individual characteristics of teachers who voluntarily transfer and the organizational characteristics of the schools from which they transfer. A second goal is to reveal the ways in which migration is associated with a teacher's personal characteristics and the school's organizational characteristics. The third goal is to determine if a relationship exists between a teacher's decision to migrate and the personal mode of growth and career stage present at the time of migration. The fourth and final goal of the study is to more fully understand teacher migration as a phenomenon that has implications for public policy.

## **Significance of the Study**

This study is undertaken to add to the body of research that examines the complexity of the school staffing problem. The synthesis of the research to date indicates that teacher turnover destabilizes schools and that such instability has a direct effect on the academic success of students. Organizational management theorists have opined that the extent to which an organization is or is not dependent on particular types of employees is indicative of their vulnerability to the disruption caused by separating employees. “In this perspective, employee turnover is especially consequential in organizations that have uncertain and nonroutine technologies and production processes requiring extensive interaction among participants” (Ingersoll, 2001, p.5). Schools can be characterized as such organizations by this definition. Additionally, as personnel costs comprise 75 to 85 percent of the typical school district budget (Webb & Norton, 1999) and these costs are greater in times of teacher turnover due to the increased costs of enlarging the teacher supply, reducing “excess demand” could be a cost effective response.

Many strategies will be needed to address the school staffing problem. Current efforts, such as increasing the number of prospective teachers in the college and university teacher preparation programs, and attracting highly talented non-education majors, mid-career job changers, and recent retirees through incentive programs and fast-track alternative certification routes are policy responses to the problem of supply. A different approach, conceptually, is to address the problem of demand by understanding the organizational and individual factors that lead to teacher turnover other than attrition.

### **Delimitations of the Study**

This study will confine itself to the examination of teachers who voluntarily transferred from one school to another in the public schools of Jacksonville, Florida (Duval County) during a four-year period beginning in the spring of 2000. For the purposes of this study, counselors and librarians will be included since they are defined as teachers in the collective bargaining unit of the school district.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The study is not framed in a true experimental research design with random assignment of subjects to treatment and control groups. Rather, it is envisioned as a parallel simultaneous single study that has elements of a traditional heuristic investigation (Moustakas, 1990). Therefore, the design used limits the generalizability of the results to only teachers who migrate and to only those schools wherein teacher migration occurs. However, since the research design uses individual teacher and school data, the results can provide valuable information to school leaders, school district leaders, and policy makers at the local and state level as decisions are made regarding the implementation of policies and administrative actions intended to increase teacher retention.

### **Definition of Terms**

**Urban schools:** A designation that applies to schools that serve to educate children who reside in cities. Education in urban schools can be defined as all education that occurs in, and is affected by, the various factors generated by an urban environment. The characteristics of urban schools include: 1) a large population of poor, 2) a weak tax and funding base, 3) a variety of socially and economically different and unique groups, 4) racially segregated or identifiable populations, 5) violence, 6) large school populations, 7)

old school buildings, 8) low student achievement, and 9) significant teacher turnover (Kapel, Gifford & Kapel, 1991, p. 590-91).

**Teacher turnover:** A term used in the research examining the school staffing problem to identify the departure of teachers from their teaching jobs. It is used interchangeably with teacher attrition (Ingersoll, 2001). For the purpose of this study, teacher turnover is broadly defined as any movement of a teacher from a school.

**Teacher attrition:** According to Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary (1986), attrition is defined as "a reduction, as in personnel, usually as a result of resignation, retirement, or death" (p. 115). Several types of attrition categories appear in the literature and can be sorted into two classifications- permanent attrition and temporary attrition. Permanent attrition occurs when teachers leave the profession of teaching and do not return.

Temporary attrition occurs when teachers leave the school, school district or state but remain in or return to the teaching profession at a future point. Permanent attrition will be the definition used in this study.

**Teacher migration:** This term describes a kind of teacher turnover in which the teacher remains in teaching and within the school district but moves from one school to another, either voluntarily or involuntarily (Ingersoll, 2001). It is synonymous with the term "teacher transfer".

**Transfair:** The event conducted by the Duval County School District each spring wherein teachers who applied for a voluntary transfer and who are eligible to transfer are interviewed by principals who have or are anticipating vacancies in their schools.

**State University System (SUS):** The state university system of Florida is governed by a Kindergarten through Grade 20 board of education led by a commissioner appointed by

the Governor of Florida. Each university within the SUS has a governance board made up of local citizens who are also appointed by the governor. Each university within the SUS is led by a president who is appointed by its board of trustees. Two universities in the SUS are charged with a statewide mission- the University of Florida and Florida State University. The other universities have a regional responsibility that is determined by their geographic location. All have NCATE approved teacher education programs and award a bachelor's degree in education, at minimum.

**Region:** A designation used by the Duval County Public School Board (Jacksonville, Florida) to identify a geographically linked set of elementary, middle and high schools and special centers for organizational and management purposes. There are five regions in the school district, each of which is led by a Regional Superintendent who reports to the Duval County Superintendent of Schools.

Chapter one provided an overview of the current debate about the quality of teachers and teacher education. The researcher presented a historical review of teaching in the United States and discussed a conceptual framework for understanding the act of teaching. Critical events in the development of teaching were presented as was an overview of the more recent reform of public education environment. In addition, the school staffing problem in Florida was described. The concluding sections described the components of the current study and laid its foundation by presenting its problem statement, rationale, significance, delimitations, limitations, and definition of terms.

Chapter two will review the literature related to occupational choice and employment satisfaction found in traditional social and economic theory. Research

findings in the literature related to the school staffing problem and teacher turnover will be presented.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

Chapter Two is comprised of three parts. The opening sections discuss three theoretical frameworks of occupations and careers as found in traditional economic and social theory. Next, research findings related to the school staffing problem and organizational conditions are presented within the context of the existing and projected teacher shortages of this period. Finally, the principal section of Chapter Two is presented- a review of the research on teacher turnover from the 1970s through the turn of the current century.

#### **An Overview of Key Frameworks of Occupations and Careers**

A theoretical framework can be described as a structure of ideas that researchers provide as means to assist others in understanding the theories or concepts proposed. Three frameworks of occupations and careers are discussed in the following sections that serve to broaden the conversation about teacher recruitment and retention. Teaching, as an occupation and as a career, is like other occupations and careers in many ways. Therefore, the decisions that individuals make to become teachers and, subsequently, to stay in or leave teaching are influenced by many of the same factors as any other occupation or career, that is, by the real or perceived value of the job versus the investment an individual has made to become a teacher (human capital theory) and by the personal and professional stage of the career in which a teacher finds himself or herself (modes of growth) and (stages of career development).

## Human Capital Theory

Theodore Schultz (1970) proposed that skills and knowledge, acquired as a result of deliberative investment in education, are a specific form of human capital. The term “human capital” was first coined by Schultz in a 1961 *American Economic Review* article, “Investment in Human Capital”. The generally accepted definition of this economic theory suggests that human capital comprises skill, experience, and knowledge. Becker (1993), in his 1992 Nobel Lecture, used it to analyze social issues in his belief that individuals are not “motivated solely by selfishness or material gain” (p.385). Davenport (1999) further refined the definition by breaking it into ability, effort and behavior.

Individuals increase their store of human capital through formal schooling, vocational education, on-the-job training or staff development. At any given time, the value of one’s stock of human capital “depends on whether it has been properly used, it’s age, the depreciation and obsolescence it has been subject to, and on the extent to which it contains maldistributions for reasons of supply and demand” (Schultz, 1970, p.35-36). Within the context of human capital theory, people may be seen as investing in themselves through education in order to have more choices, higher earnings, and greater satisfaction.

The traditional view of human capital is that skills gained through education and training can alter earnings. This view is based on the logic that skilled workers must necessarily be in lower supply relative to less skilled workers (Jacoby, 2004) and, it follows that any more skilled worker always can enter the labor market to perform less skilled work, if they choose. Due to the principles of supply and demand, it is reasonable

to expect that earnings for skilled workers will be higher than those for less skilled workers. However, when unskilled work is disagreeable, risky or unsatisfying, “the supply of these unskilled workers will likely be reduced and higher wages will be necessary to command an adequate work force” (Jacoby, 2004, p.1). In addition, when the supply of skilled workers is high relative to the demand in a particular occupation, even skilled workers with a large store of human capital may find their earnings depressed.

A more recent extension of the traditional view human capital theory is the return on investment that a worker will experience in terms of earnings growth when the store of human capital is increased, relative to the costs incurred. The question to be asked is for the occupation or work under consideration, how much should a person spend to acquire skills leading to better paying jobs? Using a standard investment model within a relatively risk free environment, a calculation can be performed that will show how much a sum invested today will generate in the future. Considerations regarding monetary returns are also influenced by intrinsic factors such as job satisfaction, locus of control and the social contributions of an occupation, among others (Goldsmith, Veum, & Darity, 1997). Further, Davenport (1999) notes that while most economists agree that human capital comprises skills, experience, and knowledge, others add personal characteristics, such as personality, appearance, reputation and credentials. Davenport (1999) has framed a return on investment model in which the traditional elements are multiplied by behavior, effort, and time.

Human capital theory may be applied to teaching as a profession. It appears that individuals who complete a liberal arts education before pursuing teacher education may

possess more human capital than those who pursue specialized undergraduate teacher education. The liberal arts graduates pursue a broader course of study that could facilitate career mobility over a lifetime. Both graduates of liberal arts programs and graduates of traditional teacher preparation programs have invested in four years of education to increase their store of human capital. Both groups expect future choices, earnings, and job satisfaction. Both groups incurred educational costs and lost earnings as a function of time outside the labor market while they were enrolled in their undergraduate programs (Bradshaw, 1998). If one program is more interesting or rewarding than the other, those intrinsic costs and benefits should also be considered.

Teacher education graduates have pursued a specialized course of study designed to develop professional knowledge and skills they expect to be valued and rewarded in their chosen occupation, as do all other graduates who pursued a specialized curriculum. In contrast, liberal arts graduates have added to their store of human capital the value of extended general education (Bradshaw, 1998). Upon graduation, with the increasing availability of alternative certification programs, members of either group may enter the profession and become a teacher. If the financial rewards are identical for both groups, they fail to recognize the traditionally prepared teachers' specialized human capital.

Supply and demand affect the value of a worker's human capital. Historically, policies that govern teacher hiring and licensure requirements have been influenced by supply and demand (Darling-Hammond, Berry, Haselkorn, & Fideler, 1999) and teacher salary levels have also been found to be influenced by local economies, fluctuations in student enrollment, legislative action, and state and local program priorities (Anthony, 1987). These policies and other factors have operated within a framework designed to

keep salaries relatively low, in part due to the perceived part-time nature of teaching, and to keep supply plentiful (Goodlad, 1990).

Within this artificially depressed environment, typical teacher salary schedules that are differentiated by years of experience and degrees held, and without regard to quality, “rob the profession of an enlarged pool of high-quality entrants, the opportunity for a more rigorous course of study, a higher proportion of higher-quality teachers within the profession, and a more equitable distribution of high-quality teachers across school districts” (Grissmer & Kirby, 1987, p. 54).

This traditional approach to compensating teachers is in direct opposition to the prevailing return on investment model of human capital. Davenport (1999) states “workers produce the greatest value for companies when companies generate the greatest value for workers” (p. xiv). The traditional teacher compensation approach also appears does not recognize that teachers are investors as owners of their human capital.

Human capital theory provides one means of understanding some underlying factors that may contribute to an individual’s decision to become a teacher, and subsequently, to remain in or leave teaching. But it does not provide insight into all the possible factors that influence such decisions. One’s personal mode of growth and stage of career also provide a context for the interactions that occur in the decision-making process.

### Modes of Growth

Richard Boyatzis and David Kolb have proposed a theory for understanding the choice that those in professional, managerial, and executive roles within organizations exercise with respect to the use of the competencies they possess. This theory integrates

twenty years of Kolb's research, with its focus on experiential learning, and of Boyatzis, with his focus on competence and performance. Kolb's concept of experiential learning can be described as learning that is achieved through reflection upon everyday life experience, that is, "education that occurs as a direct participation in the events of life" (Houle, 1980, p.221). Kolb focuses on making sense of concrete experiences and the different learning styles that may be involved. Boyatzis' emphasis has been on competency acquisition and development as it is reflected in actual performance on the job. The result of their work together is a reconstruction of "experiential learning theory as it is applied to lifelong adaptation and integrates the competency acquisition process" (Boyatzis & Kolb, 1993, p.2).

According to Boyatzis and Kolb (1993), "Each of us may be at any one of three modes regarding growth in our career/life at any one point in time (p.3)." The modes of growth are identified as performance, learning, and development and are explained in terms of themes: underlying theory, intent, preoccupation, key abilities, and best measurement methodology.

The intent of the individual in the performance mode is job mastery. People in this growth mode are preoccupied with success and use skills that are specific to the situational demands of the job. Behavioral observation through direct observation on the job, simulations, and critical incident interviews can best measure behavior in this growth mode. According to Boyatzis and Kolb (1993), "once people experience success, or mastery, they may be ready to move on to the next mode" (p. 3).

When in the learning mode, people seek to develop capability and expand their perspective, based on learning theory. Learning skills and self-image and efficacy are the

relevant skills in this growth mode. The preoccupation of people is with the generalizing what they know and can do. Movement to the next mode is usually precipitated by the passage of time, life experiences, or cathartic events. Self-report methods are useful for understanding the behavior of those in the Learning Mode.

Fulfillment of purpose or calling is the intent of the person in the development mode. The preoccupation of those in this growth mode is with perpetual human and social dilemmas. Adult development theory is used to identify the relevant skills and abilities, which tend to be traits and core values. “They may be focused on a quest for wisdom in the context of certain values or a vision for the future, or focused on establishing a sense of connectedness to others in the global environment” (Boyatzis and Kolb, 1993, p.3). Individuals in this mode rely on key abilities that are primarily unconscious. Therefore, interactive and interpretive methods, such as the Thematic Apperception Test (McClelland, 1984), may be useful in identifying the presence of this mode of growth as they are designed to reveal motives, traits, and core values.

According to Boyatzis (1993), people enter and exit these modes at various stages of life. The movement appears to be related to a person’s career and personal development rather than any particular age. It is believed that one mode is primary and dominant at any one point in one’s career and life but all may be present. It is this primary or dominant mode that affects one’s choices, behavior, and determines what one finds stimulating and challenging with respect to one’s work.

While Boyatzis and Kolb have framed their modes of growth theory as one that is recursive and non-hierarchical, Huberman (1993) found that there are specific stages in

teaching that may be related to the professional life cycle of a teacher. These career stages seem to follow one another in a specific order.

### Career Stages in Teaching

Huberman (1993) proposed that there is a professional life cycle of teachers that may be construed as a career in the classical sense. Building upon the findings of earlier researchers (Super, 1957; Lightfoot, 1985), Huberman proposed seven stages or phases of the teaching career: entry, stabilization, experimentation and diversification, reassessment, serenity and relational distance, conservatism and complaints, and disengagement.

At the entry stage, a beginning teacher can be described as experiencing a period of survival and discovery. The survival aspect has to do with uncertainty, discrepancy between the ideal and the reality of the classroom, and preoccupation with self. The discovery aspect has to do with a teacher's trial and error in terms of classroom management, relationship with students, and teaching materials, to name a few. Research conducted on teacher induction and socialization supports this view of survival and discovery, and also notes the effect of interactions with pupils, colleagues, and the school itself in mediating successful completion of this stage (Zeichner & Gore, 1990).

Stabilization begins when a teacher makes "the decision to commit oneself to the order of teaching" (Huberman, 1993, p. 6). This stage in a teaching career is characterized by independence and assertiveness while at the same time becoming a member of the professional community. Lightfoot (1985) has noted that the easing of pressure that occurs in the stabilization phase results in a general feeling of reassurance and relaxation.

A stage of diversification occurs after stabilization that Huberman (1993) identifies as experimentation and diversification. In one sense, this stage can be conceptualized as a period experimenting with one's ability to have more impact: in the classroom and on one's colleagues through diversification. In another sense, this stage can be characterized as one in which teachers seek new challenges.

The fourth stage in Huberman's framework is called reassessment. While traditionally this period could be thought of as one of uncertainty and even crisis, there is "no indication in the empirical literature that the majority of teachers pass through a phase of uncertainty (Huberman, 1993, p. 9). What is known about this stage in the career life of a teacher is that teachers experience reactions to the monotony of classroom life, disenchantment with successive reforms, unpleasant working conditions and concerns about professional advancement.

For teachers who choose to remain in the classroom, reassessment is followed by the stage of serenity and relational distance. In this stage, Huberman (1993) proposes that levels of ambition decline, concerns about one's ability to teach have been resolved, and differences of age and experience between teachers and students result in more professional distance.

For teachers who chose to remain in the classroom, a stage of conservatism occurs and is based on many of the same elements as noted immediately above. Huberman (1993) notes that this stage is characterized by "less of a quest for what one doesn't have, more protection of what one already has" (p.11). While often related to a teacher's age and number of years in the classroom, conservatism and complaints may also be related to a teacher's personal biography and social environment.

Finally, the career stage of conservatism is followed by disengagement, which is generally viewed as a positive stage. According to Huberman (1993), a person in this career stage could be expected to detach from professional commitments first and then from professional relationships, as is noted in the literature. He is also careful to point out however, that little research on this stage specific to the teaching career has been conducted.

### **Teacher Shortages and the School Staffing Problem**

The United States annually produces more new teachers than its schools hire yet significant shortages exist by locality, content area or subject field, school level, and quality (Boe & Gilford, 1992). This misdistribution ranges from the surplus of teachers of English and social studies in the Midwest to shortages nationally in mathematics and science fields.

Regarding the distribution of the teacher labor pool, shortages are ultimately field-, grade-, and location-specific (Stoddart & Flodden, 1995). School enrollments vary by geographic location. State boundaries, characterized by unique licensure requirements, hamper the mobility of the teacher labor pool. Economic, geographic, and cultural variations in teacher labor markets have also been observed as “local definitions of what constitutes a quality workforce that are translated into specific, everyday needs, limitations, and actions (Berry & Hare, 1985, p. 29). Teacher supply and demand balance at the national level can be accompanied by large field-specific surpluses or shortages in a particular location (Haggstrom, Darling-Hammond, and Grissmer, 1988). Gross (2000) notes that the largest shortfall of teachers is in the area of special education nationally. And, there are shortages of trained teachers at all levels and programs in

states with high levels of immigration and enrollment growth (Darling-Hammond, Berry, Haselkorn & Fideler, (1999).

### Teacher Shortages in Urban Schools

Since 1800, there has been a continuing shortage of teachers qualified to teach in urban schools, with intermittent fluctuations in the teacher supply (Haberman, 1987). In the 1930s, many urban high schools were able to hire teachers with Ph.D.s. In the 1970s, there were reductions in the teaching force in many urban school districts. However, beginning in the 1980s, the shortage of teachers has been more or less consistent in urban schools and in some rural schools.

Yasin (1999) found that urban and poor communities will have the greatest need for teachers due to rising student enrollments and teacher retirements. Urban communities were found to also face the challenge of retaining their teachers, who may be attracted to the higher salaries and newer physical plants offered by wealthier suburban school districts.

### Staffing the Urban School

Staffing schools in urban school districts has been a problem throughout the past two decades and the shortfall has been exacerbated by policy decisions, desegregation efforts, hiring practices, and assignment patterns. The National Center for Alternate Teaching Certification (2004) reported an increasing number of alternatively certified individuals being hired to teach at risk children in high poverty areas. They estimated that only about 15% of teacher education graduates apply for teaching positions in urban public school systems.

In general, supply and demand contractions affect the employment of teachers in the same way that other occupations are affected. In periods of high demand, college students may view teaching as a worthwhile and desirable occupation because the possibility of immediate employment upon graduation exists. In periods of over-supply, teaching may not be an occupation of choice due to the number of candidates available for each position. Haberman (1987) proposed, however, that this view is simplistic when the urban school is the subject of the supply and demand conversation.

David Haselkorn (2003) stated that the projected need to hire approximately 2.2 million teachers for America's schools is "roughly equivalent to hiring every doctor in this country two and half times over (p. 10)." There are four factors driving the school staffing problem, according to Haselkorn (2003). They are rising enrollments, accelerating retirements, high attrition or turnover, and policy initiatives, such as class size reductions.

Haberman (1987) noted other factors that are specific to urban schools. He asserted that the expansion of out of teaching career opportunities for women and minorities has negatively impacted the supply of teachers for urban schools. Haberman (1995) also identified the conditions of teaching, that is, fear, racism, the general perception that teaching does not occur in urban schools, and the plain hard work that it takes to teach effectively in urban schools as factors that limit the pool of quality teachers for urban schools.

Haberman (1987) also posited that the organizational characteristics of urban schools and of universities and their teacher education programs also negatively affect the recruitment and retention of teachers in urban schools. While the university may place

great value on the individual, urban schools are generally large bureaucracies whose routines and practices are depersonalized in favor of efficiency. Ingersoll (2003) concluded that it is the organizational characteristics of urban schools, particularly those related to the control of teacher's work, that provides the basis for a teacher's employment satisfaction.

### **Teacher Turnover**

The phenomenon of teacher turnover has been the subject of research since the 1970s. According to Boe, Bobbitt and Cook (1997), the research on the teacher turnover phenomenon requires two different approaches. They noted that "quantification of the need for replacement teachers requires data on the components of turnover, whereas understanding the reasons for turnover requires data on other variables predictive of turnover (p. 380).

#### Components of Teacher Turnover

Teacher turnover, as defined by Boe, Bobbitt and Cook (1997), is a "generic term for all changes in teacher status from one year to the next" (p.380). The components of turnover include: 1) attrition (exiting teaching altogether), 2) teacher transfer between schools within a district, and 3) teacher transfer between school districts within a state or to another state. Billingsley (1993) identified another form of turnover, described as teaching-field transfer wherein a special education teacher may transfer to teaching a general education grade, such as second grade, or to a subject specific field, such as social studies. Teaching-field transfer also may involve the movement of teachers to special education.

Teacher attrition historically has been viewed through the lens of supply and demand and often has focused on teacher retirements and reductions in force as the primary component of attrition. In the 1960s and 1970s, the demand for teachers significantly increased and was met by graduating college students (Darling-Hammond, Berry, Haselkorn, and Fideler, 1999). By the late 1970s, demand had decreased and the over-supply of teachers resulted in lay-offs in many school districts nationally. In the early 1980s, attrition rates for public school teachers were estimated to be 8% but by 1989, the rate was 5.6% nationally (Bobbitt et al, 1991). According to Boe and Gilbert (1992), “the lower attrition rate is one of the main reasons why the predicted teacher shortage did not materialize (p. 28)”.

The lower attrition rate of that time was attributed to a smaller proportion of young teachers in the late 1980s than in the 1970s. Middle-age teachers exit teaching in lower numbers than do young teachers. In addition, women were leaving teaching much less frequently than at any time in the past decades, and when they did leave, they more often returned and took shorter breaks (Grissmer & Kirby, 1992).

While research identifies looming retirements, burgeoning enrollments, and class size reductions in some parts of the country as primary factors in the school staffing problem (Hussar, 1999), other researchers have found that retirements actually account for a much smaller part of the demand problem. Richard Ingersoll (2001) found that retirement accounts for about 25% of attrition but only 12% of total teacher turnover. Administrative decisions and budgetary constraints resulting in layoffs, reorganizations and even the closing of schools account for more turnover than do retirements, and “a third category of turnover- termed family and personal reasons- which includes

departures for pregnancy, child rearing, health problems, and family moves” (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 6) account for more turnover than retirement and school staffing decisions combined.

Teacher transfers between schools within a school district and between school districts, both in and out of state also are components teacher turnover. This is referred to as teacher migration (Boe, Bobbitt & Cook, 1997; Ingersoll, 2001). According to Ingersoll (2001), teacher migration “has been largely de-emphasized as a component of teacher turnover because it does not decrease the overall supply of teachers (p.2).”

#### Variables Predictive of Teacher Turnover

The research of Chapman and Green (1986) examining four cohorts of University of Michigan graduates with teaching certificates found that there were differences in personal characteristics, educational experience and initial commitment, professional integration into teaching, external influences, and career satisfaction between the four cohorts studied. The cohorts were 1) taught continuously, 2) taught intermittently, 3) left teaching, and 4) never taught. The researchers concluded that teacher turnover is a result of socialization in that the beginning teachers observed and modeled the behavior, attitudes, and emotional reactions of other teachers.

Theobald’s (1990) study of teachers in the state of Washington between 1984 and 1987 found that a teacher’s decision to continue teaching in the same school district the following year was negatively related to the property wealth of the community and positively related to salary. Theobald concluded that teachers seem to be economically rational decision-makers in that the amount of compensation that the teaching job offered figured predominately in a teacher’s decision to stay or leave the school district.

Murnane and Olsen (1989) built upon the earlier work of Kershaw and McKean (1962) that linked teachers' compensation to differences in opportunity costs. Murnane and Olsen (1989) used a longitudinal data set that provided information about the career histories of 13,890 teachers in North Carolina. The researchers found that: 1) teachers who are paid more stay longer in teaching, 2) that teachers with high opportunity costs (as reflected in test scores and subject or field specialties) stay in teaching less long than do others teachers, and 3) that salaries influence duration less for teachers with high test scores than for teachers with lower test scores.

Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple and Olsen (1991), using teacher information from North Carolina and Michigan, determined that teacher turnover is high in the first years; mature women stay and younger women leave; elementary school teachers stay the longest periods; physics and chemistry teachers stay the shortest; teachers with high test scores are more likely to leave earlier; teachers who are paid more stay longer; regardless of race, teachers who work in large, urban school districts tend to have shorter teaching careers than do teachers working in smaller suburban districts; and, after controlling for district differences, Black teachers were less likely to leave teaching than White teachers. In general, the findings of Murnane, et al. (1991) supported the earlier conclusion of Schlechty and Vance (1981), that brighter teachers are more likely to leave teaching. The 1991 findings of Murnane and colleagues also supported the earlier finding of Dworkin (1980) that majority teachers in urban areas are more likely to leave teaching than are minority teachers, although several other studies found that race is unrelated to teacher turnover (Chapman & Hutcheson, 1982; Heyns, 1988).

More recent studies have noted that increasing maximum salary for men would have the effect of reducing male teacher attrition and that significantly increasing the wages of teachers in high-need districts can reduce both exit and migration to other school districts (Imazeki, 2001). School districts with large minority, low-income, and low-achieving school populations tend to have the most difficulty attracting and retaining highly qualified teachers (Odden & Kelly, 2002).

School-related factors have also been studied, such as teacher/student ratio, teachers' involvement in decision-making, administrative support, teaching level, student characteristics, and school location, but less frequently than individual teacher characteristics. Teacher retention was found to be positively correlated with larger class-size (Theobald, 1990), more involvement in decision-making by teachers (Bacharach, 1990; Darling-Hammond & Wise, 1983), and having more support from the administration (Bobbitt, Faupel, & Burns, 1991; Metzke, 1988). Secondary teachers were found to have higher attrition rates in urban schools (Corcoran, Walker & White, 1988; Haberman, 1987). Special education teachers were found to have higher turnover rates than general education teachers (Brownell & Smith, 1992; Boe, Bobbitt, & Cook, 1997).

Ingersoll's (2001) more recent research has focused on teacher turnover as a function of the characteristics and conditions of schools. Using the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) data and its supplement, the Teacher Followup Survey (TFS), Ingersoll examined teacher turnover and school staffing problems from an organizational

perspective. As described, the

SASS administers survey questionnaires to a random sample of about 55,000 teachers from all types of schools in all 50 states. In addition, a year later, the same schools are again contacted and all those teachers in the original sample who moved from or left their teaching jobs are given a second questionnaire to obtain information on their departures. This latter group along with a representative sample of those who stayed in their teaching jobs comprises the TFS (p.3).

The Teacher Followup Survey (TFS) includes items related to teacher migration, teacher attrition from the occupation, and a wide range of information on the characteristics and conditions of schools.

Ingersoll(2001) reported that retirement counts for only a small part of teacher turnover (12%); cutbacks due to layoffs, school closings, and reorganization account for a larger proportion of teacher turnover than does retirement; family and personal reasons account for more turnover than retirements and staffing actions combined. More revealing, however, is Ingersoll's finding that the most prominent sources of teacher turnover, representing 42% of all departures, are two reasons--job dissatisfaction (low salaries, lack of administrative support, lack of student motivation, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over decision-making) and the desire to pursue another job, another career, or to improve job opportunities in or out of education (p.6).

Ingersoll (2001) has concluded that "school staffing problems are a result of a revolving door through which large numbers of teachers depart teaching for reasons other than retirement (p.6) and the body of related research supports his conclusion. Teacher turnover is related to the individual characteristics of teachers and to the organizational conditions of schools. One approach to addressing the school staffing problem is to lessen the demand for additional teachers by decreasing turnover.

This chapter presented three theoretical frameworks of occupations and discussed the school staffing problem and organizational conditions within the context of historic and current teacher shortages and over-supply. A review of the literature examining teacher turnover from the 1970s to the present was presented. Chapter 3 which follows will describe the research methodology that will be employed in the study.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Chapter Three describes the research methodology used for this qualitative study which attempts to describe the complexity of the school staffing problem by examining the teacher migration phenomenon in one large, urban school district in Florida over a four-year period. Migration is treated as a phenomenon as defined by Gall, Borg, & Gall (1996), that is, “a process, event, person, document or other things of interest to the researcher” (p.766).

The study problem and research questions are restated and a description of the setting and subjects are presented. A discussion of the research design follows and the data collection and data analysis procedures are then described in detail.

#### **Study Problem**

Moustakis (1990) observed, “Discovering a significant problem or question that will hold the wondering gaze and passionate commitment of the researcher is the essential opening of the heuristic process” (p.40). The school staffing problem has held the attention of the researcher for more than a decade. The researcher served three different school districts in Louisiana and Florida over a 10 year period as the district-level administrator responsible for selecting and assigning teachers to individual schools. In this capacity, the researcher was intimately involved with school principals and their teachers when questions of employment satisfaction or the stability of school staffing complement arose. The researcher also worked closely with school district regional superintendents and directors in developing numerous strategies designed to reduce the

attrition of teachers from urban and low-performing schools in certain regions. Thus, the commitment to understanding migration as a phenomenon and to finding ways to represent its complexity to others, particularly those who hold public policy responsibilities, has become a primary professional focus for the researcher. Therefore, this study is guided by the principles associated with heuristic research and uses qualitative methodology as it is qualitative research that helps one “to achieve a fuller or more satisfying way of understanding a phenomenon” (Salomon, 1991, p.16).

### **Setting**

The study was conducted in a large, urban school district in Northeast Florida. The state of Florida is organized into public school districts that conform to the geopolitical boundaries of the county governance structure. There are 67 such school districts managed by elected school boards. The residents of each county have the option to vote to elect the school superintendent or to have the school superintendent appointed by its school board. The Duval County Public School district (DCPS) is among the largest twenty-five school districts in the nation and is the seventh largest in Florida, serving 124,300 students in 157 schools. The teaching force, including counselors and librarians, numbered approximately 7,500 during the period of the study. Its school superintendent is appointed by the school board, serves at their pleasure through a contractual relationship, and is the school board’s sole employee. All other employees of the school district are appointed by the school board at the superintendent’s recommendation and work under the direction of the superintendent.

The DCPS district covers the largest geographical area in Florida, stretching from just below the Georgia state-line at the Nassau County boundary to the St. Johns County

boundary (north to south). The school district is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and on the west by the Baker County and Clay County lines. The largest city within the DCPS district is Jacksonville with a population of approximately one million residents. There are several smaller municipalities within the school district, including the towns of Atlantic Beach, Neptune Beach, Jacksonville Beach, and Baldwin, Florida.

The DCPS district is organized by its school board into five regions each led by an appointed regional superintendent who reports to the school superintendent. The regions are roughly equal in the number of schools located within their boundaries but vary widely in terms of the age, size and condition of their facilities and the characteristics of the student populations served. Regions I, II, and III extend from the center of the city of Jacksonville to the northeast, north, northwest and west. These three regions are populated predominately by poor, lower and middle-income residents, in urban and semi-suburban neighborhoods, with small pockets of wealth located along the Ortega River and the St. Johns River. In contrast, Regions IV and V extend from the center of the city of Jacksonville east to the Atlantic Ocean and south and southwest to the St. Johns County line. These two regions are populated predominately by lower, middle and upper income residents including areas of wealth, in suburban, riverfront, and oceanfront neighborhoods. There are some small, contained pockets of poverty within regions IV and V.

Four public and private higher education institutions are located within Duval County. They are the University of North Florida (state university system), Florida Community College at Jacksonville (state community college system), Jacksonville University (private university), and Edward Waters College (private college). All four

provide teacher preparation programs. UNF and JU award degrees in education and supply a majority of the new teachers hired by the DCPS district. Edward Waters, a historic black college, has a program of study in elementary education and has been a source of teachers for the school district in the past. At the present time, FCCJ, JU, and UNF are accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) and the education preparation programs at UNF and JU are NCATE approved. There are also a growing number of proprietary institutions of higher education located within Duval County and one distance learning education preparation program.

### **Subjects**

The subjects of this study have been identified as the entire population of Duval County Public School District teachers who migrated from one school to another during a specific period in time. All teachers employed by the Duval County Public School District in elementary, middle and high schools at the beginning of the academic year 1999-2000, 2000-2001, 2001-2002, or 2002-2003 who voluntarily sought and received a transfer during the four years one or more times to a school other than the one in which they were teaching at the time of the application for transfer are considered migrants for the purposes of this study.

The four-year time period was selected for three reasons: 1.) to provide a sufficiently large sample of teachers and schools, 2.) the information about teachers contained in the Duval County Public School's human resources personnel database during the period in question was stable as the school district's legacy automated personnel system had been replaced in response to Y2K concerns, and 3.) the State of Florida had implemented its' school accountability program, resulting in the standardized

annual reporting of certain school organizational characteristics for each public school in the state.

In order to select the subjects, it was necessary to determine which DCPS teachers requested and received voluntary transfers of all teachers employed by the school district. The researcher identified the subjects by using the DCPS district's personnel system report: Employee Transfers for School Year 2000, 2001, 2002, and 2003 (ZRHTRTEM), and report: Transfer By Responsibility Center (ZRHTRPAM) for the same years.

The first report (ZRHTRTEM) identified all teachers who made a request for transfer during February of the academic year in question. While any teacher may apply for a transfer, only teachers who have taught three or more years in the Duval County Public Schools are eligible for interview and transfer, according to Article VIII of the master agreement between Duval Teachers United (Union) and the DCPS Board (See Appendix A). Teachers with fewer than three years experience in the school district may be selected for transfer but only after all others who apply have been considered and accepted or rejected for transfer. The second report (ZRHTRPAM) provided a listing of teachers who actually received a voluntary transfer. Both reports are restricted to a single academic year, therefore, it was necessary to review the reports for each of the academic years identified for study.

### **Research Design**

The researcher determined that understanding the point of view of teachers who had migrated would be critical to the primary research goal of gaining knowledge about teacher migration and understanding and representing its complexity. Since the purpose of phenomenological research is to reveal or extend significant new knowledge of

everyday experiences through a participative kind of methodology (Moustakas, 1994), the qualitative research approach was selected. Qualitative research is not concerned with collecting the facts of human behavior but rather has the goal “to better understand human behavior and experience” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p.38).

The data collection procedures and the data analysis procedures are discussed in this section for each research question. The procedures were envisioned and constructed to “guide the research through the preparation phase and facilitate the collection and analysis of data” (Moustakas, 1990, p. 43). Data collection occurred sequentially, but data analysis was recursive as is appropriate to a heuristic investigation, although the researcher did not engage in all facets of a traditional heuristic investigation. While there was no attempt made to develop a creative synthesis of the data on the part of the primary researcher, participants in the interview phase of the present study were asked to review their own interview transcript and definitions of the modes of growth and framework of career stages in teaching in order to provide the researcher with additional data to broaden the scope of the investigation and to reflect upon and respond to the findings as they emerged.

The researcher reviewed and analyzed documents and electronic information, developed and administered a survey and tabulated the results, and conducted interviews with teacher informants. The interview results were transcribed and analyzed. Member checks and peer debriefing were conducted.

The qualitative concept of trustworthiness was uppermost in the mind of the researcher in designing the data collection and data analysis procedures. Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted that four criteria could be combined to determine the trustworthiness

of an investigation: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) proposed that “credibility is the most important component in establishing the trustworthiness of the results and inferences from qualitative research” (p.90). Consistent with Tashakkori and Teddlie’s (1998) viewpoint and suggestions, the researcher engaged with the migration phenomenon, survey results, interview subjects and resulting interview data over a prolonged period of time in order to fully understand the “contextual factors and multiple perspectives of informants” (p.90). The researcher used triangulation techniques to arrive at conclusions and inferences, such as peer debriefing sessions regarding the design of the research and to clarify interpretations and check for biases, and member checks to confirm the analytic domains.

#### Data Collection Procedures

As stated in the introductory chapter, four research questions were addressed:

1. What are the individual characteristics of Duval County Public School teachers who migrate?
2. What are the organizational characteristics of the schools from which Duval County Public School teachers migrate?
3. In what ways is migration associated with a teacher’s individual characteristics?  
In what ways is migration associated with the school’s organizational characteristics?
4. How do teachers who migrate perceive that their decision was influenced by their personal mode of growth or career stage at the time of migration?

The purpose of the first two research questions was to describe the teachers who migrated and the schools from which they migrated in order to understand the scope of

the phenomenon. Ex post facto data collection was conducted by the researcher through a review of the documents provided by the DCPS Human Resources Office to identify each teacher's race, sex, school migrated from and school migrated to, year of migration, and years of experience as a teacher in the DCPS. The data collected were entered into a spreadsheet using the Microsoft Excel application.

The researcher's review of information provided by the DCPS on its website, [www.educationcentral.org](http://www.educationcentral.org), provided information about each school from which each teacher migrated, including the school's grade configuration, regional assignment, most recent school accountability grade, socio-economic status of the school's student population as represented by the percentage of students qualifying for free and reduced price lunch, and the racial make-up of the student population represented by the percentage of white students and the percentage of black students (See Appendix B). The data collected were entered into a spreadsheet using the Microsoft Excel application.

A survey instrument was developed by the researcher and used to gather additional information about teachers who migrate and the schools from which they migrate. A questionnaire was chosen as a data collection method due to the size of the sample and to protect the privacy of the participants (Gable & Wolf, 1993). Ten survey items were developed. Nine items provided closed-end response choices related to the respondent's academic preparation and achievement, occupational characteristics, and the transfer process. The tenth item provided the respondents with an opportunity to rank five of eleven factors in order of their importance in the teacher's decision to transfer. The factors were gleaned from the body of research on teacher attrition, since migration is a form of teacher attrition (Ingersoll, 2001). Respondents were also invited to add

comments to the response to survey item ten. A copy of the questionnaire is found in Appendix C.

The researcher developed an introductory letter to convey to each respondent the purpose of the survey and other information related to the study and the researcher. Following the recommendations of the American Statistical Association (2000), the researcher paid particular attention to simplicity in the design of the questions in order to ensure to the extent possible that “there be no guesswork for the respondent when it comes to understanding exactly what information is being requested” (p.10).

The researcher also used the introductory letter to address ethical considerations associated with participating in research (See Appendix D). An informed consent agreement was provided that proposed that the participant enter the study voluntarily and that assured to the extent possible that the participant would not be exposed to any risks greater than the gains that might be derived by the participant. Each participant was promised confidentiality and was informed that the identity of each would be protected. The members were asked to sign the agreement giving their consent.

A basic concern was addressed pertaining to surveys as a method of data collection. According to Tashakkori & Teddlie, (1998), of concern is whether or not true measurement or recording of what is intended to be measured or recorded occurs (validity). An instrument is said to have face validity if it looks like it is measuring what it is intended to measure. Schumacher & McMillan (1993) distinguish between face validity and content validity thusly: “face validity is the judgment that the items appear to be relevant, while content validity establishes the relationship more specifically and objectively’ (p. 224). In order to determine if the survey items had face validity, the

researcher solicited the assistance of two teachers who had migrated from the same school in two separate consecutive years by voluntarily transferring to other elementary schools. Both teachers agreed to complete the survey and were asked to respond using only the one instance of migration from the same school since both had subsequently migrated at later points in their careers. Each teacher had similar academic and occupational background in that both were trained in colleges of education with overall grade point averages of 2.0 or better, had begun their teaching careers upon graduation from college, and at the time of the earliest instance of migration, had taught continuously. Each was then asked to review the instrument for perceived relevance and to provide comments and suggestions for improvement.

The survey was sent to all subjects in the study by U.S. Postal Service in February 2004 and was resent to non-respondents in April 2004. The responses received were collected and entered into a spreadsheet using the Microsoft Excel program.

Research question three looked at the ways in which migration was associated with the personal characteristics of teachers and the organizational characteristics of the schools from which they migrated. The purpose of this question was to understand how the decision to migrate was influenced by the teacher's personal characteristics and the school's organizational characteristics. Survey item number ten provided data for analysis as did structured interviews with ten teacher migrants conducted by the researcher.

Interview subjects were selected using the technique of purposeful sampling. Purposeful sampling has been described by Bogdan and Biklen (2003) as "choosing subjects to include in your research to enlarge your analysis or to test particular emerging

themes and working hypothesis” (p. 261). It has also been described as “a sample from which one can learn the most” (Merriam, 1988, p.48). Boyatzis (1998) opined that “four types of sampling may affect the dependent variable, criterion, or phenomenon of interest: setting, events, people, and relationships” (p. 550). Concerning sampling by people, Boyatzis (1998) cautions the researcher to “include different people with regard to any characteristic of concern” (p.58).

At the time of administration of the survey, participants were asked to indicate their interest in being contacted for an interview at a later date. Forty survey respondents indicated a willingness to be interviewed at a later date. This sub-group of the study population was sorted first by regional assignment of the school at the time of migration and then within each region, by school grade level configuration. The sub-group was then sorted by the factor that each said was most important in their decision to transfer. Care was taken by the researcher to ensure that teacher interview subjects were representative of the population of teacher migrants in terms of race, sex, number of years of teaching experience, grade level configuration of the school from which the teacher migrated, and frequency of migration in the region.

Potential interview subjects were contacted by the researcher by telephone in October and November 2004. While the researcher wanted to conduct 12 interviews, not all respondents who originally indicated an interest were available. The time that had elapsed between responding to the survey and the first contact by the researcher to schedule the interview, along with the very difficult fall that teachers had encountered due to a series of hurricanes and tropical storms that struck the area resulted in several potential interviewees declining to participate further.

A structured interview guide was developed by the researcher, who is a certified job analyst and trained to develop and use interview guides. The use of a structured interview guide ensured that informants had the opportunity to respond to the same questions and statements. Time was allowed during the interview for the informant to reflect on the experience of migration and to provide additional insights or comments. The ten interviews lasted from 65 to 150 minutes. Each interview was audio-tape recorded and the researcher made notes about the setting of the interview and the informant's demeanor while the interview progressed. The audio tapes were subsequently transcribed into written documents and attached to the researcher's interview notes. Interviews and follow-up activities were completed by the first week of January, 2005. The interview guide is found in Appendix E.

The last research question had to do with the teacher migrant's perception of the influence of their personal mode of growth or career stage at the time of migration. Each interviewee was asked at the conclusion of the interview if he or she would be willing to continue with an additional phase of the investigation of the migration phenomenon. Each agreed to review the written transcript of the individual tape-recorded interview and the domains or themes that the interviewer provided based on the preliminary data analysis and to comment freely on the preliminary findings. Each also agreed to respond in writing to questions posed by the researcher about modes of growth and career stages in teaching based on the theoretical frameworks proposed by Boyatzis and Kolb (1993) and by Huberman (1993).

### Data Analysis Procedures

The ex post facto data collected from the DCPS reports and website and the results of the administration of the survey were transferred from the initial Excel spreadsheet into a Microsoft Access file in order to use the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software for data analysis purposes. The survey instruments were assigned a number that corresponded to an individual teacher in the migrating population prior to the initial mailing; that number became the respondent's identifier throughout all phases of the study.

The data collected was classified by nominal scale and ordinal scale and then organized into frequency tables. Survey response options one through nine were variables that involved name only value with no implication of relative quality or relative value in the order presented. As such, a nominal scale frequency table was appropriate to display the data (Kachigan, 1986). Question ten of the survey, however, asked respondents to rank five of 11 factors present as most important in their decision to migrate, in order of their importance. Therefore, because the order in which the factors selected were ranked was important, the data was reported as an ordinal scale (Kachigan, 1986).

Data analysis was a continuous and recursive process in this study, consistent with the best traditions of the field. As the results emerged from the post hoc data collection and the analysis of the survey responses, questions were formed for the interviews. As the interviews proceeded and transcripts were reviewed, domains emerged into which large chunks of narrative were placed. As member checks were conducted and peer debriefings held, the analysis scheme was revised.

The tape-recorded interviews were transcribed and the transcriptions provided the data for analysis. Boyatzis (1998), states “when people from different countries who speak different languages meet for the first time, a translator facilitates communication” (p.vii). One translator of those speaking the language of qualitative analysis is thematic analysis, according to Boyatzis (1998). The primary researcher used thematic analysis to clarify, interpret and understand the data gleaned from the informant interviews.

First, each interview was treated as a story of the teacher’s work/personal life of the events surrounding the decision to migrate. This approach required the primary researcher to develop a preliminary outline to organize the information. Second, chunks of narrative were extracted from each transcript to begin to develop domains or clusters of like material. The researcher then assigned tentative names to each domain and reread each transcript, writing the name of the domain in the margins wherever a statement or critical incident appeared to be related. The domains were: travel/geographic location, administrative support/principal, new challenge, discipline and behavior, collegial or peer relationships, and left behind/leaving.

Once the domains were finalized, the researcher looked for themes within the domains for purposes of comparison of the information across interviews. For example, within the travel/geographic location domain, several themes were identified and labeled: personal and family life, professional commitment, personal inconvenience, and safety. Each theme was defined and descriptive indicators were listed. The researcher then revisited the transcripts to confirm examples of the themes and to search for non-examples of each theme, using the definitions and indicators.

A copy of the transcript was provided to the informant who was invited to make comments about the preliminary themes. Concurrently, informants were asked to reflect on and respond to the definitions of modes of growth and the theoretical framework for career stages in teaching and to select the mode and career stage that best fit their particular situation at the time of migration. A final review of the data was conducted by the researcher considering the comments of the informants in order to develop the universal themes.

After identifying universal themes, a composite depiction of the migration phenomenon was developed that encompassed the qualities and themes inherent in the migration experience and that intertwined the findings from the post hoc data analysis. The researcher then met with two former colleagues who had been school staffing supervisors and who subsequently became a school principal and a school vice-principal. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss the procedures and data analysis used to arrive at the results and to confirm that the themes that emerged resonated with their experiences. Where discrepancies were noted, the researcher reviewed the data and amended the themes. In this manner, the researcher triangulated the data thus providing a richer description of the migration phenomenon and a deeper understanding of the influence of the teacher's personal characteristics, the school's organizational characteristics, and the teacher's mode of growth and career stage in the decision taken to migrate. The final step was to re-label the universal themes more creatively in an effort to reflect the poignancy of the experiences of teacher migrants and to express their voice: *so far away, the other side of the tracks, the grass is always greener, push me-pull you, and the tipping point.*

The determination of the teacher's mode of growth and career stage in teaching was arrived at by using the informant's self-assessment as the basis for analysis. For each informant, the researcher listed the indicators of the mode of growth selected and re-analyzed the transcript, once again searching for examples and non-examples in the narrative. Likewise, the indicators of the career stage were listed and, in addition to the transcript review, the details of the teacher's age, years of experience, and undergraduate teaching preparation were reviewed. Since one teacher did not return the follow-up materials, the researcher assigned the mode of growth and career stage in teaching based on the review of the individual transcript and comparisons with the other nine informants. The results were collapsed into descriptions of the teachers in a particular mode of growth and career stage at the time of migration.

In summary, Chapter Three presented the research methodology used in the current study. It provided the rationale for the methods selected and was organized to: restate the problem, describe the setting and the subjects, overview the research design and review the research questions, and discuss the data collection and data analysis procedures. Chapter Four which follows explores the results of the current study.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS**

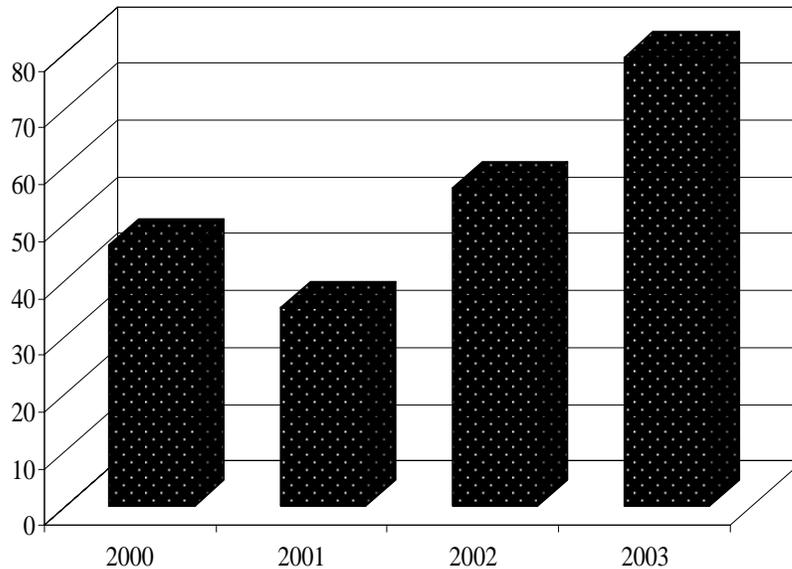
Chapter four provides a summary of the results of this study. First, the teachers who migrated during the period in question are described in terms of their personal, academic, and occupational characteristics. The schools from which they migrated are also described in terms of their organizational characteristics. Next, survey and interview results are reported exploring the ways in which migration is associated with teachers' personal characteristics and schools' organizational characteristics. Finally, interview results are presented portraying the perceptions held by teachers regarding their personal mode of growth or career stage at the time of migration.

#### **An Overview of the Migration Phenomenon in the Duval County Public Schools**

The Duval County Public Schools (DCPS) personnel data reports identifying teachers who received voluntary transfers from one school to another were reviewed for a four-year period: 1999-2000, 2000-2001, 2001-2002, and 2002-2003. During the four-year period, of approximately 7500 full-time teachers, 200 teachers applied for and received a voluntary transfer to a school of their choice and subsequently migrated to that school. An additional 16 teachers were identified as migrants though they did not transfer from school to school but rather from other school district assignments to a school. While the number of migrating teachers represented only one-half to one percent of the total teacher population in the school district, depending on the year, migration caused five to ten percent of the number of annual teacher vacancies. Further, in the

regions with the highest annual teacher turnover, migration represented about 18% of the total need for new teachers. Table 4.1 shows the number of teachers who migrated for each year of the study.

Table 4.1 Teacher Migrants by Year



Of the five DCPS regions into which schools were organized for the period of the study, teachers migrated from schools in every region. Teachers also migrated from all school grade configurations: elementary, middle, high, and special schools. Of 157 schools, teachers migrated from 100 schools. Figure 4.2 on page 66 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the migration phenomenon in the Duval County Public Schools for 2000-2003.

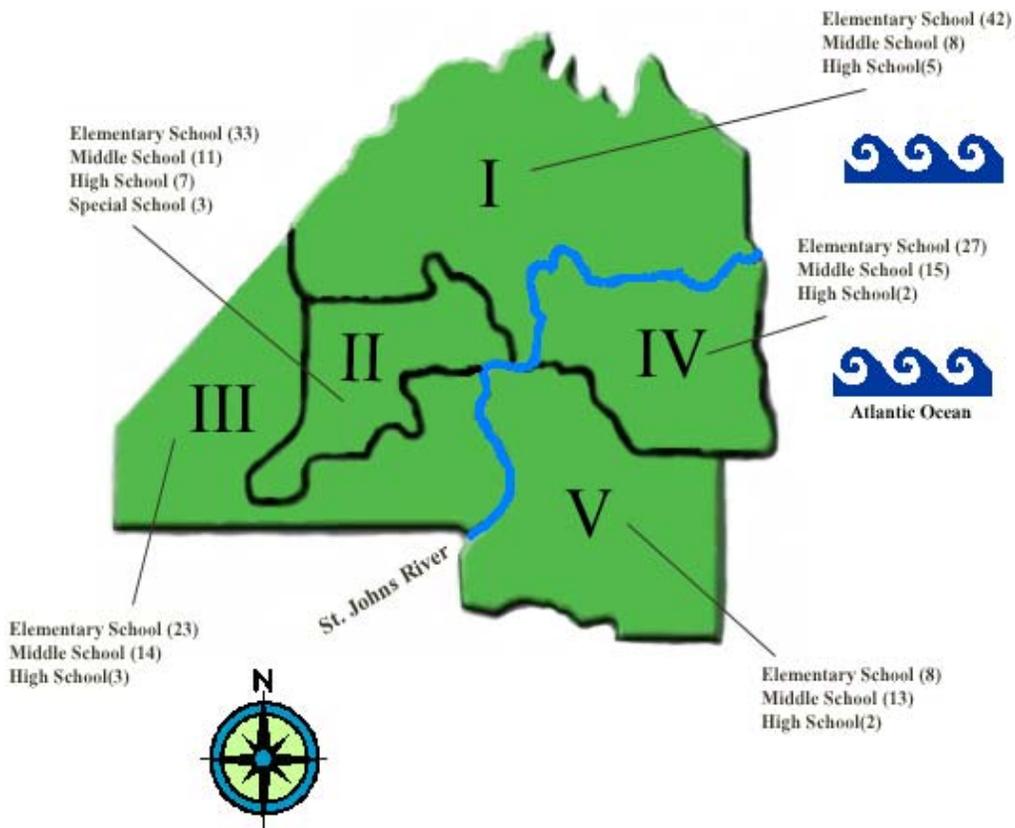
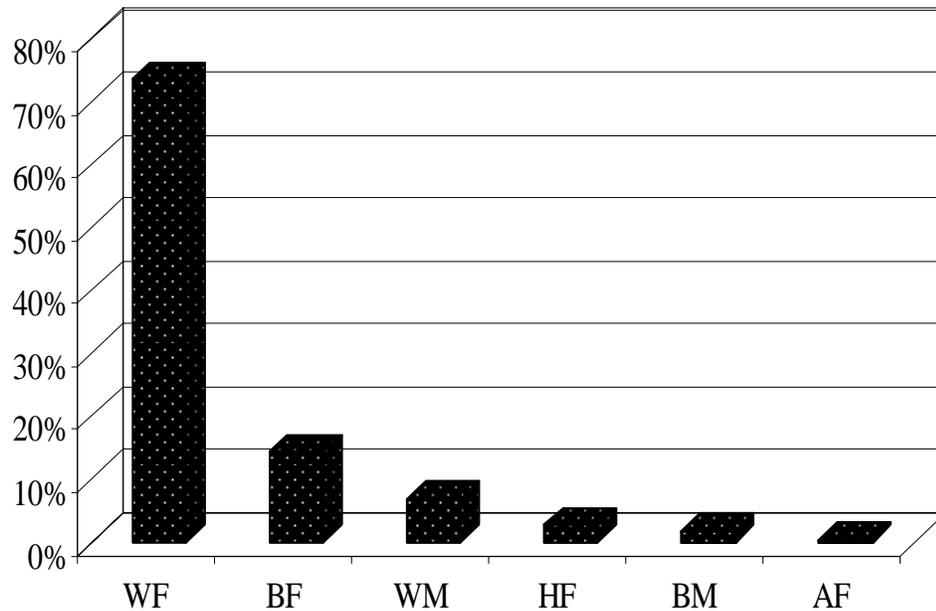


Figure 4.2 Duval County Public Schools Teacher Migration by Region 2000-2003

Table 4.3 describes the sex and race of teacher migrants. One hundred ninety-five female teachers migrated during the period in question, significantly outnumbering male

migrants (n=21). White teachers migrated in larger numbers (n=174) than did blacks (n=35), Hispanics (n=6) or Asians (n=1).

Table 4.3 Migrant Teachers' Sex and Race



**Results of Data: Research Questions Investigating Teacher and School Characteristics**

Research Question One

What are the individual characteristics of Duval County Public School Teachers who migrate?

In addition to extracting and analyzing data from personnel reports provided by the Duval County Public Schools (DCPS), the researcher provided a survey to all teachers who were identified as having migrated during the period of the study in order to identify the personal characteristics of teachers that were not elements contained in the

personnel reports. The survey was mailed in late February 2004 to the 216 teachers who had migrated. Twenty-five percent of the teachers (n=54) responded to the first mailing. In mid-April, the survey was mailed to those teachers who did not respond to the initial mailing. 24 teachers or 15% returned the survey. The researcher determined that six of the surveys that were returned were not usable since the teachers did not provide a ranking of importance as directed for question ten.

The survey asked a number of questions about the teachers' personal characteristics, including academic and occupational information. The tables that follow provide the statistical information describing responses to questions one through eight.

The teachers were asked to indicate their highest degree earned. While the majority of teachers reported that the highest degree earned is a bachelor's degree (n=39; 54.2%), 26 teachers or 36.1% reported earning a master's degree, and 7 teachers or 9.7% reported earning an education specialist degree or other degree.

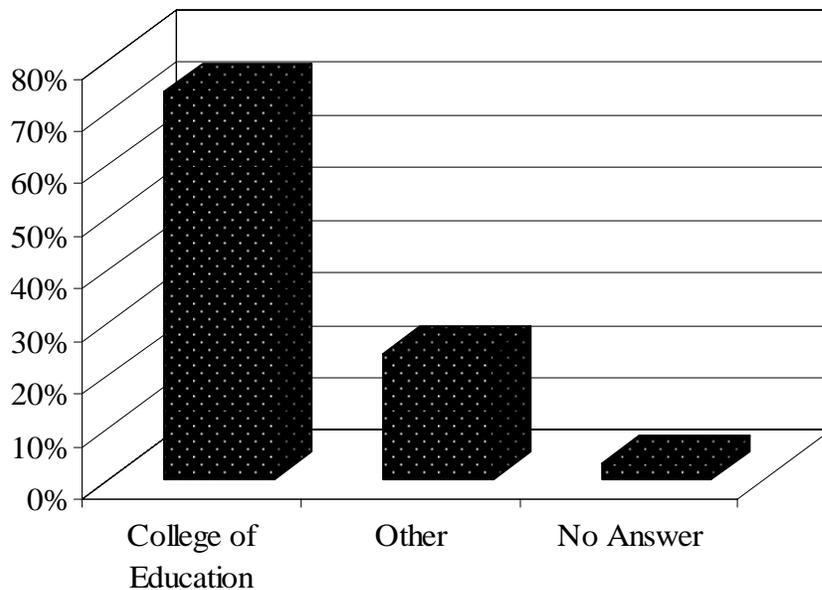
The teacher migrants were also asked to describe the type of Florida Professional Educator Certificate that was held. Two types of certificates are issued by the Florida Department of Education: Permanent, which is issued for 5 years and may be renewed through approved in-service credit or college coursework, and Temporary, which may be issued for one three year term and is not renewable. All teachers reported that they held a permanent teaching certificate at the time of migration (100%; n=72).

Survey question three was concerned with the field status of the teacher's current assignment. The term field was used to describe either the subject area or discipline for which the teacher was certified, such as English, Biology, special education, etc. or the grade level for which the teacher was trained, such as elementary grades 1-5, middle

grades 6-8, etc. Sixty-seven teachers or 93.1% reported being assigned “in-field” at the current time while 4 teachers or 5.6% reported being assigned out of field. One teacher did not respond to this question. Conversely, survey question four asked the teachers to indicate their field status at the time of migration. The purpose of this question was to determine if the act of migrating had resulted in a change in the number of teachers who are assigned in-field. More teachers were assigned out of field before migration than after migration (n=5), thus improving the in-field status of teacher migrants by one.

Fifty-three teachers reported that their bachelor’s degree academic preparation was in education in response to survey question five. Seventeen teachers earned a bachelor’s degree in a field other than education before entering the teaching profession.

Table 4.4 Undergraduate Major of Teacher Migrants

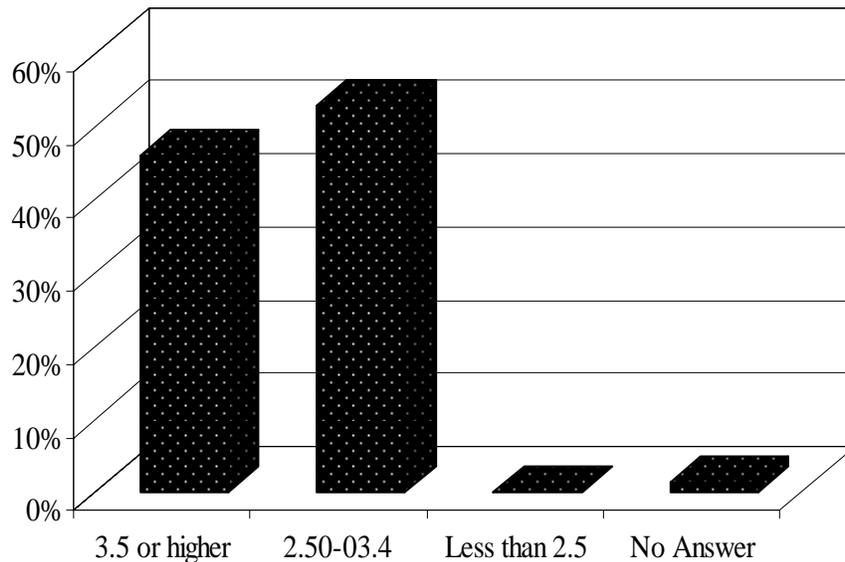


Survey question five did not identify fields of academic preparation other than education. Two teachers did not respond to this question.

Survey question six asked teachers to describe the grade point average that each earned at the bachelor's degree level. Thirty-three teachers reported earning an overall undergraduate grade point average of 3.5 or higher while 38 reported earning an overall grade point average less than 3.5. No teacher reported earning an overall undergraduate grade point average of less than 2.5 but one teacher did not respond to this question.

Table 4.5 illustrates the range of undergraduate grade point average earned by teacher migrants.

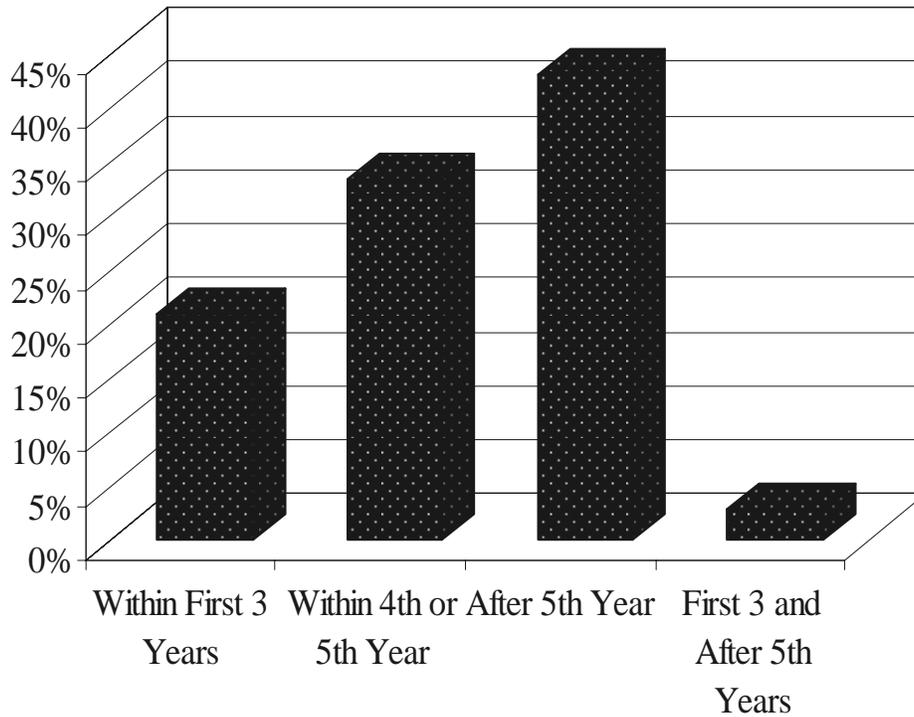
Table 4.5 Earned Undergraduate Grade Point Average



While migrating teachers reported an average of 12.9 years of teaching experience, the career point at which a transfer was first requested varied. Fifteen teachers first requested a transfer during their first, second, or third year of teaching. Twenty-four teachers reported a first transfer request during the fourth or fifth year of teaching. Thirty-one teachers first requested a transfer after the fifth year of teaching. Two teachers indicated requesting a transfer from two different schools, once during the

first three years of teaching at one school, and again after the fifth year of teaching at another school.

Table 4.6 Point of First Transfer Request



In response to survey question eight, teachers reported that they did not always migrate at the time of their first request for transfer; however, the majority did so. Sixty-one teachers migrated at the time of the first request. Six teachers migrated at the time of the second request. Only four teachers requested a transfer opportunity three or more times before migration occurred. One teacher reported transferring twice, once within the first three years of teaching and again after the fifth year of teaching.

Survey question nine asked if the teacher migrant was interviewed prior to the transfer. Ninety-three percent of teachers (n=67) reported that they were interviewed by the principal of the school to which they ultimately migrated prior to the transfer.

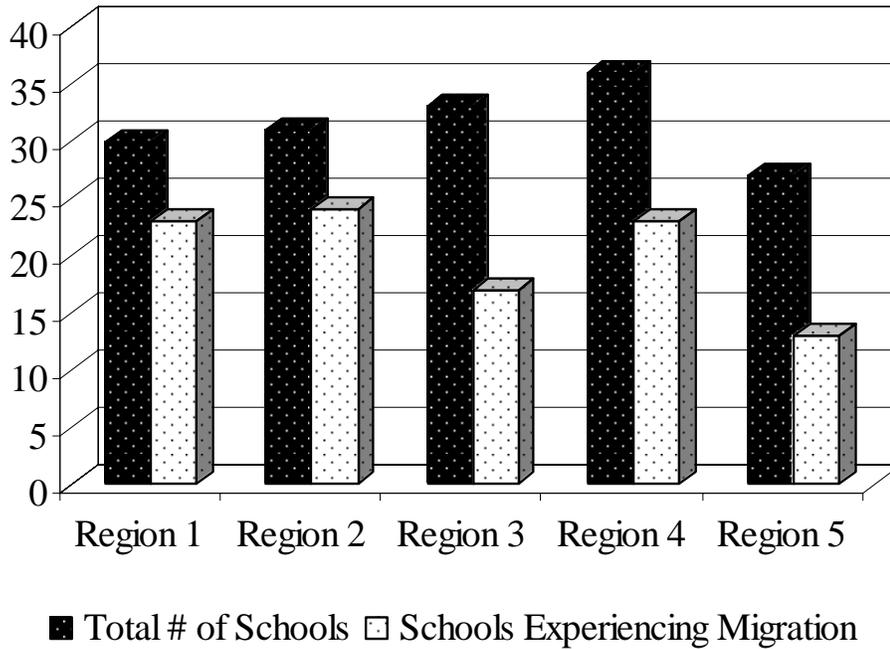
## Research Question Two

What are the organizational characteristics of schools from which teachers migrate?

Data used to describe the organizational characteristics of schools from which teachers migrate was attained from several sources. First, the schools were identified through a review of the Duval County Public Schools personnel reports which listed teachers who had requested and received voluntary transfers from one school to another during the four year period of the study. The researcher then accessed the Duval County Public Schools website for the school information link. This link provided information about the location of each school, its organizational assignment, and detailed demographic information about each school's student population and teacher complement. Academic achievement data for a three year period as required by state and federal legislation is also reported on-line as are the results of the school's climate survey.

An examination of the total population of teachers who migrated reveals that schools in Region II had the highest percentage of schools experiencing migration (77%; n=24) while schools in Region V had the lowest percentage of schools experiencing migration (48%; n=13).

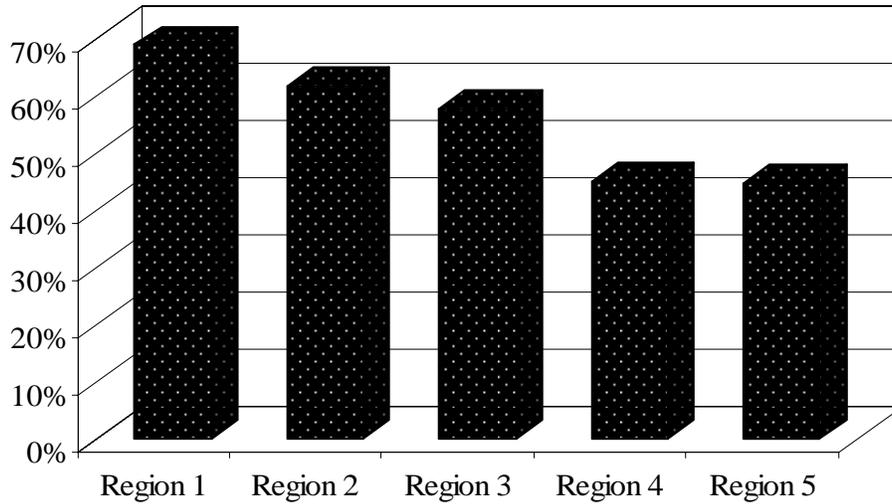
Table 4.7 Schools Experiencing Migration by Region 2000-2003



While more elementary schools experienced migration than did middle, high, or special schools, middle schools had a higher percentage of schools affected. Sixty-five elementary schools or 62.5% of elementary schools experienced migration while 22 middle schools or 84.6% of middle schools and 10 high schools or 52.6% of high schools were affected by migration. Only one special school or 12.5% of special schools experienced migration.

Table 4.8 describes the socio-economic status of students in schools that experienced migration, expressed as a percentage of the number of students qualifying for free or reduced-price lunch by regional assignment of the schools.

Table 4.8 Students Qualifying for Free or Reduced Price Lunch by Region



Schools in Regions One, Two and Three had the greatest percentages of students qualifying for free and reduced price lunch. More than 68% of students in Region One qualified for free or reduced-price lunch while 41.1% of students in Region Four qualified. Schools experiencing migration had a widely varying number of students qualifying for free or reduced price lunch, from a low of 8% to a high of 95% of the school's population. Thirty-nine schools had less than half of the student population that qualified for free and reduced price lunch. Fifty-nine schools had more than half of the student population that qualified for free or reduced price lunch. Thirteen of 22 middle schools, which experienced the greatest percentage of migration, had student populations of which more than half qualified for free and reduced price lunch. Special schools did not report the percentage of students qualifying for free or reduced price lunch individually.

Each school that experienced migration during the time period of the study is described in terms of its overall academic achievement. Overall academic achievement is reflected as the most recent school grade assigned by the Florida Department of Education, based on the results of the school's students' Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT) scores. Schools experiencing migration earned a Florida School Accountability Grade of A, B, C, D, and F. Of those schools that experienced migration, 29 earned an A; 20 earned a B; 30 earned a C; and, 14 earned a D. All schools that earned an F experienced migration (n=6). Schools that did not experience migration earned a Florida School Accountability Grade of A, B, C, and D. Special schools did not report Florida School Accountability grades individually. Schools from which teachers migrated earned on average a Florida School Accountability grade of C. The average grade earned by schools that did not experience migration was B.

## **Results of Data: Research Questions Investigating Influences on the Decision to Migrate**

### Research Question Three

In what ways is migration associated with a teacher's individual characteristics?

In what ways is migration associated with a school's organizational characteristics?

The responses to a survey sent to all teachers who migrated during the time period of the study provided some of the data to answer this question. Data was also collected by interviewing teachers who responded to the survey and who volunteered to participate in the interview and follow up activities.

## Survey Results

Teachers were asked to respond to a survey question in which they were to identify 5 of 12 factors that were important in their decision to migrate, and then to rank the factors selected in order of importance, from one to five, with one being most important, two next most important, and so on. The factors were derived from the body of research on teacher attrition since migration is a form of attrition (Boe, Bobbitt & Cook, 1997; Ingersoll, 2001). The results are displayed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Frequency Distribution of Five Factors (Ranked in Order of Importance) in Making Decision to Transfer

Factor	Response Choice In Order Of Importance	Response	Percent
Convenience for Travel to and from Home N = 47	1st	N = 18	38.3%
	2nd	N = 13	27.7%
	3rd	N = 6	12.8%
	4th	N = 3	6.4%
	5th	N = 7	14.9%
Desire for a New Challenge N = 46	1st	N = 17	37.0%
	2nd	N = 8	17.4%
	3rd	N = 5	10.9%
	4th	N = 9	19.6%
	5th	N = 7	15.2%
Administrative Support N = 38	1st	N = 14	36.8%
	2nd	N = 13	34.2%
	3rd	N = 7	18.4%
	4th	N = 2	5.3%
	5th	N = 2	5.3%
Discipline Problems in the School N = 29	1st	N = 7	24.1%
	2nd	N = 6	20.7%
	3rd	N = 3	10.3%
	4th	N = 9	31.0%
	5th	N = 4	13.8%

(Table 4.9 continued on page 77)

Geographic Location of the School N = 26	1st	N = 8	30.8%
	2nd	N = 4	15.4%
	3rd	N = 7	26.9%
	4th	N = 6	23.1%
	5th	N = 1	3.8%
Collegial or Peer Relationships N = 16	1st	N = 5	31.3%
	2nd	N = 2	12.5%
	3rd	N = 4	25.0%
	4th	N = 3	18.8%
	5th	N = 2	12.5%
Parental Involvement N = 16	1st	N = 1	6.3%
	2nd	N = 0	0.0%
	3rd	N = 5	31.3%
	4th	N = 7	43.8%
	5th	N = 3	18.8%
Socio-economic Status of the Students N = 14	1st	N = 0	0.0%
	2nd	N = 3	21.4%
	3rd	N = 4	28.6%
	4th	N = 4	28.6%
	5th	N = 3	21.4%
Availability of Classroom Supplies & Materials N = 13	1st	N = 0	0.0%
	2nd	N = 1	7.7%
	3rd	N = 5	38.5%
	4th	N = 5	38.5%
	5th	N = 2	15.4%
Convenience for Child Care N = 8	1st	N = 1	12.5%
	2nd	N = 2	25.0%
	3rd	N = 1	12.5%
	4th	N = 2	25.0%
	5th	N = 2	25.0%
Size of School N = 3	1st	N = 0	0.0%
	2nd	N = 1	33.3%
	3rd	N = 0	0.0%
	4th	N = 0	0.0%
	5th	N = 2	66.7%

Five factors were included as survey items that are related to a teacher's individual characteristics, circumstances, or preferences: convenience for travel, desire for a new challenge, convenience for child care, collegial or peer relationships, and other. These personal factors were reported 117 times as important in influencing the decision

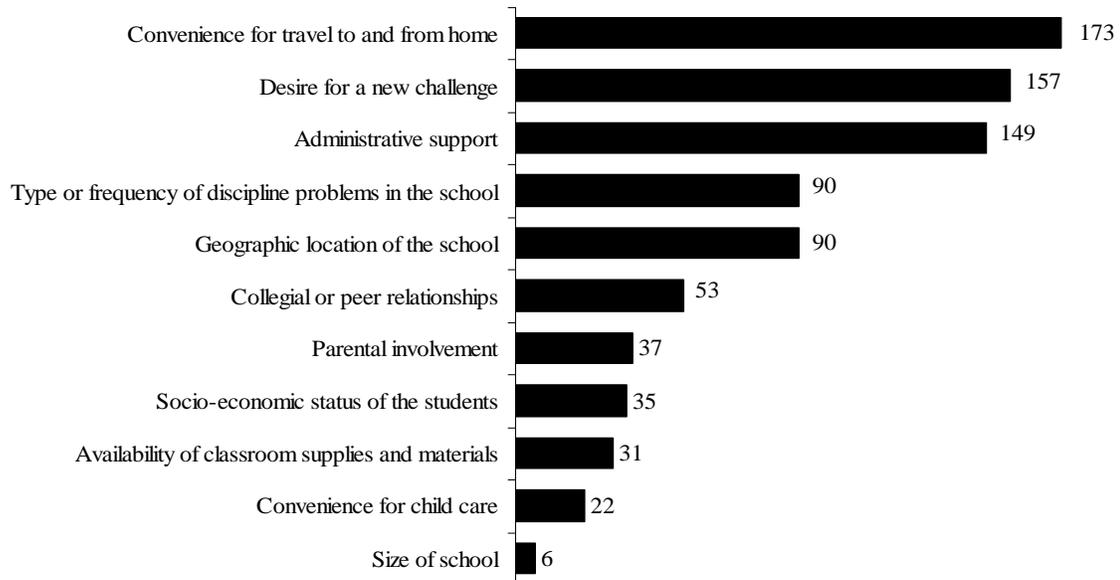
to migrate. Of these, convenience for travel and a desire for a new challenge were reported most frequently as the most important factor in influencing the decision to migrate. Three (3) respondents who selected Other as the most important factor in the decision to migrate, defined it as: “wanted earlier work hours”, “newly married”, and “change from middle to elementary school”.

School organizational factors were reported 142 times as important in influencing the decision to migrate. The factors that were included as survey items that are school organizational factors are: administrative support, type or frequency of discipline problems, geographic location of the school, collegial or peer relationships, parental involvement, socio-economic status of the students, availability of classroom materials and supplies, and the size of the school. Administrative support was reported 14 times as the most important factor in the decision to migrate while the geographic location of the school was reported eight times. The type or frequency of student discipline problems was reported as most important seven times. One teacher reported parental involvement as the most important factor in the decision to migrate. Two teachers reported Other as the most important factor in their decision to migrate, defining Other as: “low enrollment eliminated my position at the school” and “volunteered for the CORE program” (a program designed to attract effective teachers to low-performing schools by offering differential pay and the promise of an automatic transfer to a school of their choice after three years).

Table 4.10 displays the ranking of the level of importance of each factor by weighted score (most important=5, second most important=4, third most important=3, fourth most important=2, fifth most important=1). The weighted score for each factor

was determined by multiplying the ranking of each response by the weight assigned to arrive at the sum.

Table 4.10 Factors Ranked by Weighted Score



### Results of Teacher Interviews

Ten teachers of the original fifteen selected participated in the interview portion of the study, nine females and one male. Eight of the interview subjects were elementary school teachers and two were middle school teachers. The interviews were conducted at the teacher's work site. Nine interviews took place after school had ended for the day and one interview was conducted during the teacher's extended planning period before the school day began.

Each interview was tape recorded with the teacher's permission. The tapes were subsequently transcribed and the documents provided the basis for analysis. For

purposes of clarification, the school from which the teacher migrated was identified as A School. The school to which the teacher migrated was identified as B School. For the purpose of answering this question, the interviews focused on the reason(s) for migration based on the top five factors cited by survey respondents, the experience of migrating, the differences between the two schools with regard to the school administration, students and parents, collegial or peer relationships, and the availability of resources and materials.

The teachers interviewed migrated from schools in Regions One (n=7), Two (n=2) and Four (n=1) to schools in Regions One (n=1), Two (n=1), Four (n=4) and Five (n=2). The interview subjects migrated from elementary schools to elementary schools and from middle schools to middle schools. Five teachers experienced a change in the specific teaching assignment by migrating. Two teachers interviewed were certified by the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards and three others were actively working toward certification. The range of experience reported by the teacher informants at the time of migration was from four years to 32 years.

Six teachers interviewed reported that the most important factor in their decision to migrate was personal in nature. Four migrated primarily because of convenience for travel while two sought a new challenge. Four teachers interviewed reported that most important to their decision was administrative support, an organizational factor.

### So Far Away

Teachers who reported convenience for travel as the most important factor in their decision to migrate characterized it as a personal, economic and professional issue. These teachers described the impact of distance and the stress of a long commute. They

talked about the ways in which so much time spent on the road affected professional commitment, such as arriving early and staying late or participating in professional development. One of these teachers linked the long commute to the geographical location of the school and safety concerns, thus identifying one school organizational characteristic as a sub-set of a personal characteristic.

For some, the effect of a long commute on their personal lives and health was unacceptable. “If you forgot something, you went home for the day or went without” said one teacher. Another stated, “had I minded the drive I wouldn’t have stayed there so long, but then my husband’s mother became ill”. One teacher said it was the wear and tear on her vehicle that finally became a source of dissatisfaction, as did the cost of fuel. She explained:

It was only a 30 minute trip on the road each way but 70 miles a day, five days a week puts a heck of a lot of miles on your car, and a heck of a lot of gas that you go through.

Another teacher remarked that the personal convenience factor related to unanticipated situations of daily life, such as her own child falling ill while at school or day care, or spilling something while driving. One teacher thoughtfully described the moment that she knew she would leave the school that she had been committed to for so long:

I think my realization came late one evening when I was still at (A school), and this being an inner-city school, it’s not a great place to be late at night. I wondered why I was still there so late and it dawned on me that I didn’t want to get in the car because it just hurt too much to finally get out of the car. Long trips - I tend to be very stiff with my condition, and it was very painful.

Teachers also reflected that professional commitment was undermined by traveling a long distance from home to school and back again. Teachers described the long commute of up to 40 miles one way on a daily basis as impacting their ability to

arrive at work on a timely basis, to attend evening programs and meetings, or to stay “late” each day to meet with other teachers informally or provide additional meeting opportunities with students or parents. “That’s what I have to do (arrive early) and anyone who is actually promoting that progress in the classroom, showing that progress is being made, is staying late...couldn’t do that because of traveling so far”, said one.

Another described living out her professional commitment despite the long commute:

I was one of the first people at school every day when I was at (A school). Anything that I got finished I did in the morning time. If I left school beyond 3:30 in the afternoon, it was an hour/hour and one-half for me to get home. I would take things home with me and work there.

Some of these teachers remarked that convenience for travel was important as it affected their ability to attend university classes.

### The Other Side of the Tracks

The geographic location of the school, related to safety concerns, was also described by a teacher interviewed who cited convenience for travel as the most important factor. This teacher was newly married, and the concern repeatedly expressed by her husband about the possibility of breaking down on the road or in the unsafe neighborhood surrounding the school, had to take precedence. She explained, “With him, pressing as soon as you can get out, of course, I needed to make the change not only for the traffic but also to help him feel more comfortable with my position”. She talked about the stress of feeling unsafe, not in the school or on its campus, but in the neighborhood, recounting “April, three years ago, we were locked down three times for gun activity in the area”.

## The Grass Is Always Greener

The other personal factor reported by the interviewees as most important in their decision to migrate was a desire for a new challenge. Teachers who reported a desire for a new challenge in their survey response did so for several reasons. For some, the opportunity to be a part of opening a new school was attractive. Others said a school's reputation for excellence drew them because they were interested in affiliating with a faculty known for excellent results to see "if they could meet the challenge". For yet others, the opportunity to teach in a new or different role was the stimulus, either to apply recently acquired knowledge or skills or to be a part of a new program, grade, or field.

Teachers interviewed said some of the same things in regard to working in their preferred grade or area of expertise. But they also talked more specifically about seeking a change to feel more motivated, less stressed, or in the hope of finding a school that was "a better place for me to work". One teacher noted that serving in the role of design coach for three years was very draining, and so migrating presented the opportunity to give up a professional role that had become "too demanding". Another stated, "I knew the teacher I would be replacing; we taught so much alike, I thought it would be a good place to go".

Most often, teachers talked about a desire for a new challenge in ways that could really be described as a desire for a less stressful, more satisfying work environment. "We used to joke that once October came that we would be so tired that we'd just want to go home and put our pajamas on," said one, describing the energy expended to help children in an at-risk school prepare for testing. Another noted that "it was just high expectations for me to make sure my kids and the kids on my grade level made the right

scores...just very stressful to make sure that they improved every year, despite the odds”. A middle school teacher said, “I’m grateful I made that decision (to migrate) primarily in terms of my health”. This teacher subsequently left the school district but is hoping to return to education, at some point, in a student advising or counseling role, preferably in higher education.

Four teachers interviewed reported a school organizational factor as most important in their decision to migrate. Concern about the kind and quality of administrative support was reported in terms of the principal’s vision for the school, the leadership style of the principal, the experience of the principal, decisions made by the principal, confidence, trust and integrity, and the relationship of the teacher with the principal. Discipline matters and resources were discussed as secondary concerns and had to do with the principal’s leadership and ability, as perceived by these teachers. While four teachers reported administrative support as most important, every teacher interviewed talked about the school’s administration when as to describe the differences between the school left behind and the one to which they moved.

### Push Me, Pull You

Teachers reporting administrative support in their survey responses as most frequently influencing their decision to migrate noted that it was a lack of support at the school from which they migrated or the perception that administrative support would be better at the school to which they transferred. Administrative support was reported a source of dissatisfaction for some teachers with regard to a principal’s style in dealing with parents or discipline matters, providing needed resources, or managing change effectively. Some teachers reported that the principal was frequently absent with no

controls in place, or was unprofessional in dealing with some members of the faculty, or, as one teacher remarked, “was unethical in treatment of my peers, especially teachers she thought were weak”.

Principals were described as having a vision for the school when they stood up for instructional issues or had non-negotiable beliefs about students and behavior that they acted upon. “She did believe that our children were capable and she would become very frustrated with people who didn’t want to work or couldn’t control the class,” said a teacher of the principal of a very low-performing school. This teacher respected the principal because she was principled about her vision, and stated “I do think the principal’s leadership is what makes all the difference in the world in a challenged school.” Another, in talking about the principal she left behind, said “You know, she kind of made me always give 110% to everything and she kind of instilled that, I think, because she did herself”.

In terms of instructional matters, vision was more often ascribed to the principals of the schools migrated to than from. One teacher reported that at a shared governance meeting where budget matters were being discussed, the principal “stands up and says we will not take music or art rooms away, these rooms are critical. These are core subjects that make a difference and improve test scores...all the data show that.” Another teacher reported a moment during her interview with the principal of the school in which she was interested. In response to the principal lauding the merits of the school, and then asking if she had any questions, the teacher said, “I have one for you: how important is science to you? She looked at me and said, we teach it here every day”. The school from which

the teacher subsequently migrated did not do so, although it was a math and science magnet school.

The principal's leadership style was also described as a feature of administrative support. In one instance, the teacher migrated to follow a principal who left the school the year before, saying "I had seen a lot of turnaround- some good things happening with students. I had difficulty meshing with the new principal's leadership style so, for me, the move was about administrative support." Another noted that "the whole atmosphere here at my new school is so much more positive. This principal is clear in her communication with us, instead of going in and getting all this double talk that I received with my other principal". Yet another teacher talks about her "new" principal in this way: "She actually says things like, "Well, what do you think, you're the expert." And I'm thinking, would you say that again, I don't think I have heard that recently". In all cases but one, teachers interviewed were uniformly more positive about the leadership style of the principal in the school migrated to than the one they left.

Administrative support was cited as dissatisfying every time a brand-new principal was assigned to the school from which the teacher eventually migrated. This lack of experience was described in terms of disorganization, lack of nurturing, not understanding the needs of the students, and poor decisions. One teacher declared, "She really was an incompetent principal. Initially, I thought that this poor woman was just overwhelmed. She's coming into a D school, she has all these demands on her. But it soon became very clear that she couldn't lead our school".

The relationship that teacher migrants had with the principal of the school from which they transferred also impacted the decision to transfer. Only two teachers

described the relationship as having a high degree of mutual regard. More often, teachers volunteered examples of a lack of respect, favoritism, and more troubling, questionable ethics and integrity. One teacher talked about making the decision to leave after a new principal was assigned to the school. This principal went to some lengths, in her opinion, to neutralize her influence with other teachers after she challenged several decisions that were made to change the school-based selection and mentoring program for new teachers. She continued:

And other things that troubled me about the whole Title I school situation, I know that there are guidelines and laws about non-certified personnel being in those schools but they are there. And there are supposed to be controls on the way the money is spent; we never had those concerns before the new principal came. Where is the money going?

### The Tipping Point

The decisions that principals made also motivated some teachers to migrate, even those who were at the school for a long time and satisfied with the assignment. “I definitely had some very strong opinions about changes that I didn’t think were in the right direction. She wanted only the very brightest to come to this magnet because of test scores, not only kids talented in the arts”, said one teacher. Another described her disappointment when the principal acquiesced in an important program decision, noting, “that person was going to be in charge of a major endeavor and I knew that it would become a personal kingdom. It was just not going to work. Had I stayed, I would have been a negative force and that isn’t me.”

Teacher interviews also revealed that there were real differences in student discipline or behavior between the school left and that to which they moved. The type or frequency of student discipline problems, as reported by some teachers, influenced the

decision to migrate so that teachers “could have the time to teach, not control, students”. As reported by the interviewees, where the school administration had high expectations for student behavior and a good relationship with the teachers, student discipline and behavior was manageable, even if difficult. Examples to the contrary were also reported. One teacher said that “my main concern was the lack of administrative support in dealing with frequent discipline problems”. Another stated, in the context of student discipline problems, “done my time in the inner-city”. Yet another noted that “A lot of teachers that left before the school year was over were just having so many issues with discipline that they couldn’t be successful.” In contrast, others reported that there was strong support in dealing with discipline problems by both the parents and the principal in the schools from which they migrated.

Access to and availability of resources presented as a feature of administrative support, as well. Teachers interviewed reported that some principals were quite effective in finding the resources needed, regardless of the size of school or socio-economic status of the students while other principals seemed to be either ineffective or unconcerned. One teacher stated happily that her current principal “is going to make sure we have what we need when we need it and how we need it. No question.” Another described moving from a small school to a much larger school, stating “Funding is going to play a huge part based in part on the population of the school. If there is something I need I can get it whereas at my old school I would have to talk to the parents or just buy it myself.” Two teachers who were interviewed reported that they were surprised when they moved from Title I schools in the inner-city to suburban schools of similar size to find how few discretionary funds were available. One of them remarked, “Anything I needed at (A

School) I didn't have to pay for it. She (principal) would just ask what I needed or tell me to go get it and she would always pay me back. Here (B School), if you need it, you have to buy it yourself".

#### Research Question Four

How do teachers who migrate perceive that their decision was influenced by their personal mode of growth or career stage at the time of migration?

The teachers were asked to describe their personal and professional goals in the closing section of their interview and to reflect on the ways in which their goals were met by the act of migration. They were also asked what the school district could do to contribute to their employment satisfaction. Using representative words and phrases and critical incidents, when found, the responses were analyzed to identify the modes of growth (Boyatzis & Kolb, 1993) and career stages (Huberman, 1993) that were present at the time of migration. Each interviewee was then sent a description of the modes of growth, the career stages, and a copy of the transcript of the interview. Each teacher was asked to review the descriptions and transcript, and then to identify which mode of growth and career stage they perceived they were in at the time the decision to migrate was made. They were asked to provide any comments that might help the researcher understand why the particular mode of growth and career stage was selected. The researcher analyzed their responses and compared each to the preliminary mode of growth and career stage assignment given by the researcher to arrive at a better understanding of how teachers perceived their decision to migrate was influenced by their mode of growth and career stage in teaching.

### Modes of Growth

The most prevalent mode of growth influencing the decision to migrate was the learning mode. The migration decision of six teachers was taken while predominately in the learning mode. These teachers were all female and white. One taught middle school and five taught elementary school. Of the elementary school teachers, one taught music and reading, one taught exceptional students, one taught kindergarten, one taught fifth grade, and one was a media specialist and the school's technology teacher. The youngest had taught for six years while the oldest had taught for 34 years.

Words and phrases that characterize the learning mode are novelty, variety, self-improvement, generalizing, learning, learning skills, self-image, exploring, experimenting, adaptation, and seeking different type of challenge, among others. While the five teachers in this mode each reported a desire to leave a school situation that had some unpleasant elements, such as perceived excessive emphasis on test results, ineffective student discipline policies, unsupportive principals, or administrative decisions that undermined the teacher's authority or expertise, more often they spoke of what they hoped to find by migrating. One spoke of a better position because the principal offered a self-contained music program and so she would have the opportunity to "explore her love of music" on a full-time basis. Another talked about the opportunity to "adapt all my kindergarten experience to a team teaching situation" while yet another described "looking for a place to teach the kinds of children that I had never been with before". The middle school teacher described feeling drawn to the school because she knew many members of the faculty and was excited "to be a part of their learning

community”. While she found the school more “laid back” than her former school, she also found that it provided more opportunities to experiment.

Self-image was discussed by all teachers in the learning mode. As one said, “public school teachers are not held in very high esteem, and teachers who work in challenged schools are really looked down on...I got tired of feeling like I had to defend myself”. Another noted that even in professional meetings, teachers talked differently to one another based on where they worked. When asked to elaborate, she said, “I think they thought that because our school was a D school, we were D teachers”.

The second most prevalent mode of growth of the teacher migrants was the performance mode. One middle school teacher and two elementary teachers were in the performance mode when they sought and received a transfer to another school. The middle school teacher was a black male who taught health studies and the elementary school teachers were white females, one of whom taught first grade while the other taught gifted students. The youngest teacher had taught for seven years and the oldest had taught for 13 years.

The performance mode of growth is associated with a focus on effective job performance and a preoccupation with success. The teacher in the performance mode seeks to demonstrate job mastery. While survival is the basis, the motivation is to prove one’s self as worthy. Words and phrases associated with this mode are coping, doing better or improving within the job or career, learning the ropes, acclimating, and rituals and routines. “I faced a very challenging year. To complicate matters further, I was up for re-certification so it was crucial that I have a successful year at a new job site with administrators and colleagues who supported me,” said one teacher. Said another, “I was

feeling some pressure as a design coach that I would not have felt as a classroom teacher; I feel better here with the job I am doing and back at my comfort level”. The youngest teacher remarked, “I haven’t taught the same thing two years in a row yet. I’m hoping that won’t happen at this school because I am tired of starting over.”

The teachers in the performance mode generally spoke in positive ways about the schools from which they migrated. They did not report feeling pushed away by the situation at the former school but rather drawn to the new school. The attraction was to be more in control of the work setting by decreasing the driving distances, teaching with known and familiar colleagues, and having a classroom assignment where the routines and rituals were set by the teacher and could be controlled by the teacher. A feature of the school to which each migrated that attracted them was described by all three teachers as the opportunity to be supervised by a principal who was nurturing and who provided focus and structure for the school, thus making it easier to “do my best”.

Only one of the teacher migrants was in the development mode at the time of migration. A white female, this elementary school teacher began her career in her late 30s after completing a bachelor’s degree. She then completed a master’s degree after teaching for several years and earned National Board certification. Prior to migrating, this teacher taught fourth grade at a school that served severely impoverished students, earned very low test scores year after year, and was a racially identifiable black school in the city core area of Jacksonville. Despite significant investment of resources by the school district, including complete renovation of the building and the installation of up to date technology, the principal and teachers could not raise test scores to the level they

desired. This teacher stated she was “called to teach in this school...you know, it was where I lived during the day, it was my home for many years”.

The concept of calling is central to the development mode. The teacher in this mode of growth is preoccupied with fulfilling her purpose in terms of a specific agenda. Words and phrases associated with this mode are sense of self, courage to make selfless contributions, integration of the emotional, intellectual, behavioral and spiritual aspects of oneself, seeking to understand, and connectedness a global sense. Self-fulfillment is the primary orientation and decisions are made with one’s own agenda in mind, not to meet the expectations of others. For this teacher, the change that occurred in the school’s leadership from a principal who was described as a missionary with a vision for the students to an inexperienced principal who couldn’t articulate his vision for the school and whose behavior was not guided by principles that were in concert with those of the teacher, was wholly unacceptable. “I have always felt comfortable expressing my professional opinion about instruction but there was now not an openness when there were professional differences of opinion”, she said. “I was at that school for seven years and saw the growth that so many of the children made, they were my life, we did summer camps, we had a garden, I was a neighborhood friend, and a mentor to the new teachers, but I couldn’t stay”. When asked what drew her to the new school, she talked about the process that she used to move on.

“For a long time, I had my professional portfolio put together, and so it was interesting to go interview at a lot of schools. It was so different being in A schools, and a little scary, but I really love math investigations and so that’s what I would talk about”. This teacher interviewed at several schools and was not concerned about the convenience

for travel or safety and discipline issues...she was looking for a school where she could be valued, even though she says she “is still learning”. She described her commitment to the intellectual aspects of teaching when she said, “The actual act of teaching, it’s a cycle that just builds upon itself. I get just as excited about these kids here and about this little girl who could teach me something in math...that is what I never want to lose”.

She also sought a school with a principal who had a reputation for fairness and a commitment to the students. She met with the principal of the school from which she hoped to migrate to tell him she would be transferring and why. “I did ask him when I met with him, I said, I truly want to know, do you know why I am going?” And, he said “We’re fine, everything is fine.” “So, I told him, you know that I can’t stay in a situation where I am going to be uncomfortable not knowing what you are going to do and how you are going to treat people and whether or not you are going to tell parents the truth”.

Toward the end of the interview, when asked about her personal goals, this teacher described a book that was meaningful to her as she made the transition from school to school. “It’s called Living in the Now,” she said, and it’s a kind of book about spirituality and how to control your thinking mind to be still and not think all the time. Just kind of be where you are now and love where you are now.” She continued by saying, “Teachers are so bad about that. Now that I am away from (A School), I see that more of our effort has to be focused on ourselves and doing what we believe in.” This sense of the spiritual or quest for the spiritual also characterizes individuals who are in the development mode of growth.

### Career Stages in Teaching

Seven stages or phases in the professional life-cycle of teaching are identified in Huberman's (1993) Career Stages in Teaching framework: entry, stabilization, diversification, reassessment, serenity, conservatism, and disengagement. The teachers interviewed were asked to review a definition of each stage, select the one that best fit them at the time of the decision to transfer from one school to another, and to provide their rationale for the selection. Five stages were selected: stabilization (n=2), diversification (n=1), reassessment (n=1), serenity (n=3), and conservatism (n=3).

The two teachers who saw themselves as committed to the order of teaching, preoccupied with independence and assertiveness, and assured in their daily work were in the stabilization stage of their career at the time of migration. Both teachers were elementary classroom teachers. One taught first grade and one taught fourth and fifth grade gifted resource. They had nine and seven years of teaching experience in the school district, respectively. Neither teacher reported experiencing any real personal dissatisfaction with the school from which they migrated. Each spoke highly of their professional colleagues and had a good relationship with the principals for whom they worked although both reported that they feel closer to the principals for whom they now work. In addition to expressing a closer relationship, each reported that their new principal demonstrated greater leadership and vision for the instruction of students than the principals left behind, and were better at gaining the commitment of teachers to the standards-based reforms implemented by the school district.

A review of the transcriptions of each of their interviews found some similarities in these teachers' backgrounds, both personal and professional, although one was some

twenty years older than the other. Each had a parent who was a teacher, a spouse whose career choices came first, and both worked in this school district only in the school from which they migrated, although the older teacher had worked in two schools in other states for about four years. Both teachers reported that migration would not have occurred if it were not for the distance from home to school. Each indicated that they would remain in teaching; the younger teacher reported wanting to complete a master's degree while the older teacher had no stated desire to do so.

The teacher who selected diversification as her career stage at the time of migration did so because of her desire for new challenges and ways of doing work. This elementary school teacher was a media specialist and the school's technology teacher. She described a number of innovations that she brought to the school, indicating her willingness to experiment in her daily work, one feature of the diversification stage. She reported having been a leader in the school and very much supported by the principal for the five years she was at the school. She also expressed great fondness for the school's students and caring and concern for their parents.

When a new principal was assigned to the school, this teacher reported that the new principal's leadership style was not a good fit for her. She reported "I really felt a part of the community, of the school. I had been the magnet lead teacher there and I had a very strong sense of where the school should go. She made some changes in her second year that I just wasn't comfortable with". The move to a bigger school in the same region with her former principal, and the opportunity to become the school's reading recovery teacher, would provide a return to her teacher leadership role, as well as making a greater impact on the learning of individual children, in her opinion. The preoccupation with

having more impact is another important feature of the diversification stage. This teacher subsequently left the school to which she migrated by accepting a district-wide technology trainer role.

The male middle school health teacher was the only informant to select the reassessment career stage. He migrated at the end of the 2002-2003 academic year, and then resigned from his full-time teaching position at the end of the 2003-2004 academic year. The reassessment stage is characterized by reacting to the monotony of the classroom, disenchantment with reforms, unpleasant working conditions, and stress. The daily work of the teacher reflects uncertainty. When asked what would have made him stay in teaching, he said, “to have gone to a high school, but you have to know the principal of a high school, otherwise you’re kind of stuck in middle school. It’s hard to get out of middle school, especially for a man, they keep you right there.” He went on to say, “They look for males in middle school to help out because you’ve got kids that are bigger, and when they fight, generally they want the males there. So, there is definitely a demand and they look for male to provide that assistance.”

This informant described the struggle he had in making the decision to leave the school after migrating there just a few months before. He had earned a master’s degree in educational leadership, but came to believe that administrators were as beleaguered as teachers in the middle school. He stated, “They don’t have to teach, that is the pro of it- they don’t have to sit with the kids, but some of the things they go through in terms of dealing with parents, they have to get in there and break up fights, so there is very little difference”. He liked his principal and colleagues, however, and transferred to the school because he had worked there previously, and he was worried that he would be letting

them down by leaving. Yet, as a health teacher, he noted “I understand the impact of stress on your body, and your mind in terms of your immune system. While I try to eat healthy and exercise, there was still one element and that was teaching. Sometimes in life you just have to let go of those things that stresses you if you can.”

The serenity stage of the teaching life-cycle was selected by three teachers, one a fourth-grade teacher, one an elementary school music teacher, and one a middle school science teacher. All are female and were in their fifties at the time of migration. This stage is described as less a distinct phase and more a state of mind. There is a sense of ease in the classroom, less reliance on the opinion of others, and confidence and certainty in mastery of the pedagogy. While all three reported a desire to move to a school that was closer to home, each actually migrated because the conditions at the school left behind were not conducive to their primary mission, which was teaching, and each described instances wherein they felt their professional integrity was at stake. All three of these teachers hold master’s degrees and two of the three earned National Board of Professional Teaching Standards certification. Each served as a teacher mentor to beginning teachers and each also reported taking on additional duties related to instruction, such as tutoring students before and after school, including those that were not formally assigned to their class load.

The decision to migrate was characterized by one teacher as a “no choice” decision and the actions taken to bring about the transfer were also in accord with the description of the serenity stage of the teaching life-cycle. One teacher updated her professional portfolio and interviewed at a number of schools; upon receiving multiple offers, she accepted the one where the principal’s focus was on her teachers’ expertise

and the learning community that they had built in the school. Another identified a music teacher who would be retiring who was assigned to a school in a region closer to her own home. The teacher informant knew that this teacher had a philosophy about music education similar to her own, based on many years of professional meetings and workshops together. Knowing this teacher to be very happy at the school, the teacher informant contacted that school's principal to schedule an interview. The third teacher decided that she would migrate only to one particular middle school. She contacted the principal directly and told her that if a science opening came up, to please call her. The next year, a science and math vacancy occurred, and she was offered the position. "Well, math was not my strongest subject," she said, "but I took the job because I knew I could do it, and, at this stage in my life, I didn't have anything to prove."

Of the three teachers who were identified in the conservatism stage, two self-selected this description and the third was so identified by the researcher since the teacher did not return the post-interview materials. The age of the teachers varied as did their years of experience. All were teaching in elementary schools, the oldest in kindergarten, the youngest in exceptional student education (ESE), and the third taught fifth grade. The fifth grade teacher had fifteen years of experience, seven of which were at the school from which she migrated. The kindergarten teacher had 26 years of experience and spent 15 years teaching at the school from which she migrated. The ESE teacher had four years of teaching experience at the time of migration, and had taught one of those years in an elementary school in another county.

In the conservatism stage, the teacher is concerned with protecting what she has and is preoccupied with the impact of change. The teacher in the conservatism stage has

established rituals and routines and does not like to depart from them. Conservatism is also associated with complaints about how students are changing, about the public attitude toward schooling, and about the impact of mandates and reforms. Each teacher in this stage reported real dissatisfaction with one or more aspects of the school or school policies from which she migrated, although two said the most important factor in their decision to transfer was convenience for travel. For the oldest teacher, the changing demographics of the school over the period of the 15 years of her assignment there was troubling. She reported that the children's behavior had worsened, that many of the parents were not interested in their child's education or in participating in the life of the school, and reported complaints about the last three principals for whom she taught, particularly with regard to how they handled student behavior problems. She also reported attempting to migrate on prior occasions but that the process "was insulting to experienced teachers". When asked to elaborate, she said that an experienced teacher "should not have to interview", explaining that transfers should be based on seniority in her opinion.

For the two younger teachers in the conservatism stage, it was the impact of school district policies and the school's implementation of these that was the underlying motivation to migrate. In one case, the teacher felt undue pressure was being placed on her to raise the test scores of children who "have a lot of problems...it was just very stressful to make sure that they improved every year". Before she migrated, she also interviewed with the parochial school system, but didn't accept the position when she found out that "the cut in pay would be huge and the principal told me you will take the blame for everything, no insulation", which was the antithesis of what she wanted. The

ESE teacher found that she couldn't tolerate the discipline problems at her former school and rejected the principal's interpretation of school district regulations regarding managing the behavior of ESE students. "You could only have so much control in your classroom and I'm not one to send them out. I had my rules and really, I tried, I jumped through hoops before I would send them out", she said. "If I send them out, something needs to be done...not that they get a bag of potato chips and sent back to my room with a note saying they sat nicely for five minutes." This teacher went on to observe that if she had been able to convince the principal that there were steps that could be taken with the children that were legal and within the district's ESE accountability plan, perhaps she would have stayed at the school.

The three teachers in the conservatism stage also noted that things were not perfect in the schools to which they migrated. For two teachers, the teaching assignment was not what they had expected and the parents were overly involved with their children and frequently challenged the teacher's authority. The third teacher, the youngest, found that the ESE policy interpretation that troubled her at her former school was not very different at her current school. "I just don't think the process is fair to counselors or teachers," she said, "We're always doing paperwork, it needs to change, but I don't know how you would even go about doing that. I mean, I love ESE but they're (district policies and regulations) are just not teacher oriented."

Chapter four reported the results of this study. Descriptive statistics were provided based on archival data collection and survey and interview responses. A description of the teacher migration phenomenon in the Duval County School District for the four years of the study was provided. The findings resulting from the analysis of survey responses

and teacher interviews related to the personal characteristics of teacher migrants and the organizational characteristics of the schools from which they migrated were presented. In addition, findings related to the modes of growth and career stages that were present at the time of migration were reported. Chapter five that follows will present a discussion of the findings of the study and the conclusions reached by the researcher.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

Chapter Five presents a discussion of the findings of the study and conclusions reached by the researcher. This chapter begins with a restatement of the problem and the objectives of the study. Next, the findings of the study are discussed in relation to the body of research on teacher turnover, human capital theory, and modes of growth theory and the career stages in teaching framework. Implications for school district administrators and educational policymakers are discussed. Finally, the researcher discusses limitations of the study and makes recommendations for future research.

#### **Restatement of the Problem and Objectives of the Study**

Research conducted by the Florida Office of Economic and Demographic Research, The Florida Legislature, in December of 2000 showed that the problem of teacher supply and demand in Florida mirrored that of the nation. The research identified the need to recruit about 162,000 teachers in the first decade of this century to meet the needs of a growing student population. The research commissioned by The Florida Legislature was conducted prior to the passage of a constitutional amendment by Florida voters in 2002 that required a reduced pupil-teacher ratio statewide by the beginning of the 2003-04 academic year.

The purpose of this study was to better describe the complexity of the school staffing problem by examining the teacher migration phenomenon in the Duval County Public Schools over a four-year period. Specifically, the study sought to identify the personal characteristics of teacher migrants and the organizational characteristics of the schools from which they migrated and to determine in what ways migration is associated

with the teacher's personal characteristics and the school's organizational characteristics. Secondly, the study examined the perceived influence of a teacher's mode of growth and career stage in teaching on the decision to migrate. The study also had a goal to more fully understand teacher migration as a phenomenon that has implications for public policy.

### **Significant Findings of the Study**

Teachers migrated from schools in all five regions of the school district during the time period of the study (2000 to 2003). Teachers also migrated from all school grade configurations, including special schools. More teacher migration occurred from schools whose students were poor and low-achieving. While the number of teachers who migrated was 1% or less of the total teacher population, depending on the year, migration caused five to ten percent of the district's teacher vacancies annually and up to 18% of the teacher vacancies in certain regions. Teacher migrants generally mirrored the total population of the teachers employed by the school district with regard to race and sex. The age of teacher migrants and the number of years of experience in the classroom varied widely and thus were not appreciably related to the decision to migrate.

Teachers migrated almost equally for personal reasons as they did because of their school's organizational characteristics. The degree of employment satisfaction experienced by the teacher was highly dependent on the teacher's relationship with the school principal. Teachers who migrated primarily for personal reasons could not have been persuaded to stay. For teachers who migrated primarily because of school organizational characteristics, however, early and effective intervention by the principal would have prevented some migration.

A teacher's mode of growth and career stage appeared to influence the decision to migrate and the teachers' subsequent satisfaction with their decision.

### **Discussion of Research Questions Investigating Characteristics of Teachers and Schools**

Research Questions One and Two used data from school district reports, the school district's website and survey responses to describe the teachers who migrated in terms of their academic and occupational characteristics and the schools from which they migrated in terms of their organizational characteristics.

#### Description and Discussion of the Characteristics of Teacher Migrants

Of the 216 teachers who migrated during the four years in question, less than .5% of the total teacher population did so in 2000 but more than 1% migrated in 2003. The higher rate of migration in 2003 may have been related to greater opportunity due to the number of new schools that opened during the year and the establishment of the CORE program, a shared governance program between the school district and the teacher's union that provided monetary incentives to teachers who voluntarily transferred to academically challenged schools and who subsequently showed academic gains over a three-year period. Conversely, the low number of teacher migrants in 2001 may have been related to the monetary incentives provided by the State of Florida to be used as "retention" bonuses for faculties whose schools showed gains under the Florida School Accountability program and who remained at the school for the next academic year.

Teacher migrants mirrored the total population of teachers employed by the school district with regard to race and sex. One hundred ninety-five female teachers migrated and 21 male teachers migrated. Female teacher migrants were classified by race as white, black, Hispanic and Asian. Only white male and black male teachers migrated.

More teachers held bachelor's degrees as the highest degree earned than degrees at the master's or education specialist level. No teacher who migrated held a doctoral degree. The majority of teachers who migrated received their undergraduate preparation at the bachelor's level from a college of education. More teacher migrants earned an overall undergraduate grade point between 2.5 and 3.5 than did those whose undergraduate GPA was greater than 3.5.

All teachers who migrated were licensed to teach in the Duval County Public Schools with a permanent Florida Educator's Certificate. Migration increased the number of teachers who were assigned in-field based on their certification endorsements and specialty areas from 91.7% to 93.1%. That is, over the four year period of the study, the number of teachers assigned out of field in the migrating population decreased by one.

While some teacher migrants requested a transfer within the first three years of teaching, the majority adhered to the voluntary transfer policy agreed to by the school district and the teacher's union that restricts voluntary transfer within the first three years of employment with the school district. Most teachers migrated at the time of their first transfer request and more teachers first requested a transfer within their third through fifth year of teaching than after the fifth year of teaching. The transfer process was easy and that the procedures did not present obstacles to migration.

More than half of teacher migrants interviewed did not use the formal transfer process but rather relied on a personal network of friends and colleagues to identify pending vacancies and to gain an interview with the principal at the school rather than the school district's Transfair. Principals who filled their school's vacancies through this

informal “pre-selection” advised the teachers that the transfer would not be official until after the Transfair and requested that the teachers keep the informal agreement confidential until that time. While most teachers who migrated were interviewed by the principal, either at the school or at the Transfair, a small percentage did not meet the principal prior to migration but rather were notified of the new school assignment by the school district’s human resources department.

#### Description and Discussion of the Characteristics of Schools that Experienced Migration

Schools in Regions One, Two and Four experienced greater rates of migration than did schools in Regions Three and Five. Of all regions, Region One had the highest rate of migration with about 80% of its schools experiencing migration one or more times during the time period examined. Region Two had the second highest rate of migration at 74% while Region Five had the lowest rate of migration with about 48% of its schools experiencing migration. More elementary schools experienced migration than other grade level configurations but middle schools had a higher percentage of schools affected. Further, certain middle schools experienced migration in every year of the study period with one or more teachers transferring from the school each year.

Schools in regions with a higher percentage of students qualifying for free and reduced lunch and concentrated urban geographic locations experienced more migration than schools in other regions. Using 2004 school data, schools experiencing migration in Regions One and Two averaged 62.5 percent of students eligible for free and reduced price lunch while schools experiencing migration in Regions Three, Four and Five averaged 47.8 percent of students who qualified. Regions One and Two have more schools that are located in neighborhoods identified as “intensive care” or core city by the

Office of the Mayor of the City of Jacksonville than do Regions Three, Four and Five. Similarly, schools that experienced migration had an overall academic achievement that was lower than schools that did not experience migration, based on the school grade assigned by the Florida Department of Education in 2003. Schools that experienced migration averaged an overall grade of C. Schools that did not experience migration averaged an overall grade of B. All schools that earned an F experienced migration.

#### Description and Discussion of Factors Associated with Migration

Research question three used the responses to survey item 10 and the results of teacher interviews to describe the ways in which migration is associated with personal preferences of teachers and the organizational characteristics of schools.

Individually, the factor “convenience for travel” was reported most frequently as the most important reason for migrating, while “a desire for a new challenge” was reported second most frequently as the most important reason, closely followed by “administrative support”. The school organizational factors called “type or frequency of discipline problems in the school” and the geographic location of the school were ranked as fourth and fifth most important in the decision to migrate.

Convenience for travel and a desire for a new challenge were classified as personal characteristics or personal preferences of teachers. Administrative support, type or frequency of discipline problems, and the geographic location of the school were classified as school organizational factors. Based on the weighted sum of scores for each classification, teachers migrated about as often for personal reasons as school organizational reasons. Throughout the recursive process of data analysis, themes began to emerge that provided a richer description of the reasons for migration than personal

characteristics or school organizational characteristics. The themes were labeled *so far away, push me-pull you, the grass is always greener, a tipping point, and on the other side of the tracks*.

It is important to note that a complex interaction of personal and school organizational characteristics emerged as the study progressed. For instance, traveling a long distance to and from school became more than just a costly proposition or inconvenience. It also became a source of professional conflict. Some teachers noted that convenience for travel was important as it affected their ability to arrive at school on time, to participate in the life of the school in the evenings, and to remain late for after school professional development activities, which was described as their professional commitment. This result often impacted the principal's opinion of the teacher, as well as the teacher's own self-image. For other teachers, convenience for travel remained entirely personal, in that it affected relationships at home and with friends and the balance desired between time at the job and time at home. For teacher migrants, working at a school *so far away* ultimately presented a poignant choice: to leave behind the school, students, parents and colleagues whom they appreciated and enjoyed and where they felt successful, in order to acquire an increasingly precious commodity- personal time.

Administrative support, a school organizational factor, was perceived by some teachers as a *push me-pull you* force. The instructional and organizational decisions of the principal, type of leadership, and degree of professional autonomy afforded the teachers by the principal caused teachers to decide to leave certain schools. By the same token, teachers who migrated also did so to follow principals who were assigned to other schools and whose decisions, leadership, and professional behavior had been attractive to

them. In these instances, some teachers were contacted by the reassigned principal to alert them to pending vacancies and to induce them to migrate. Others contacted the principal directly after a year or two with a new principal.

The desire for a new challenge, a personal factor, was identified as the third most frequent reason for migrating. Teachers initially described wanting to work at a different grade level or a desire to return to classroom from a school-wide position. Upon reflection, however, they also said the desire for a new challenge was about finding a less stressful and more satisfying work environment or to give up a professional role that had become too demanding or to work with professional colleagues who they hoped might be more motivating, including the principal. The idea that *the grass is always greener* was a strong inducement for teachers to migrate.

As the study progressed, the type or frequency of discipline problems emerged as a subset of administrative support, or actually, the lack of administrative support. Teacher migrants found that the school-wide behavior management plan was ineffective, that fighting was out of control, that disrespect was rampant, and that principals either had no controls in place or soothed or placated rather than acting decisively to handle egregious behavior problems. Teachers did not migrate because of students behaving badly but rather because student behavior was not adequately managed, despite what they characterized as their own best efforts. In schools where behavior was not adequately managed, teachers felt unable to teach to the best of their ability and, in more than one instance, that the stress of such an environment was harmful to their physical well-being. Teachers reported that often an inconsequential incident in such an environment became a *tipping point*, causing them to finally reach the decision to migrate.

The fifth factor cited as important to the decision to migrate was also a school organizational characteristic, and, like the type or frequency of discipline problems, had other elements associated with it. The geographic location of the school influenced the decision to migrate for reasons of concern about personal safety, that is, some degree of fear about having an automobile breakdown while traveling to or from the school or in the neighborhood immediately adjacent to the school. Teachers had little or no connection to the school's neighborhood, even when safety was not expressed as a concern. They did not frequent stores, gas stations, or restaurants and had little notion of where their students lived in relation to the school. Teachers also struggled with the public's perception of schools in certain geographic areas and felt that the public, indeed their own professional colleagues in other schools, held the same perception of the teacher's worth. Teaching *on the other side of the tracks*, therefore, required a level of commitment and self-esteem that many teacher migrants did not possess.

### **Discussion of Results in Relation to Previous Research on Teacher Turnover**

Previous research into the school staffing problem has focused on quantifying the problem of supply and demand and identifying variables predictive of teacher turnover. This study expanded upon the research related to variables predictive of teacher turnover to focus on the voluntary movement of teachers from one school to another, called migration.

Migration is a component of teacher turnover albeit one that does not reduce the overall supply of teachers. As such, the findings of this study generally support the findings of previous studies with regard to the variables that are predictive of teacher turnover, specifically, the research on conditions and characteristics of urban schools, and

research related school organizational characteristics. While this study was not designed to be predictive, the findings were nonetheless consistent.

While this study found that about one-half of the schools that experienced migration had better than average academic achievement and about one-half had average or less than average academic achievement, the research also showed that teacher migrants more frequently leave schools that have poorer students, lower academic achievement, and that are located in neighborhoods that are perceived to be unsafe. These findings are similar to the research related to the conditions of teaching in urban schools that limit the pool of quality teachers for the urban schools (Haberman, 1995). The conditions identified were fear, racism, the general perception that teaching does not occur in urban schools and the amount of hard work that it takes to teach effectively in urban schools. Also similarly, Odden and Kelly (2002) found that school districts with large minority, low-income and low-achieving school populations tend to have the most difficulty attracting and retaining highly qualified teachers. Given the size of the Duval County Public School District, each region is as large as or larger than many school districts. This study found that regions that had more schools with large minority populations, low-income and low achieving student populations more frequently experienced migration, although no measures of “highly qualified” were applied to teacher migrants.

Ingersoll (2001) found that 42% of all departures from teaching were for the reasons of job dissatisfaction (low salaries, lack of administrative support, lack of student motivation, student discipline problems, and lack of teacher influence over decision-making) and the desire to improve job opportunities in or out of education. Teachers

migrated for many of the same reasons, with the exception of salary and job opportunities out of education. With regard to salary, although many studies found that salary was positively correlated with teachers remaining in teaching, and that significantly increasing the wages of teachers in high-need districts can reduce both exit and migration to other districts (Imazeki, 2000), this study found that the salary incentive provided by the State of Florida and the school district to teachers who remained in low performing schools and demonstrated results was not sufficient inducement to stay for many teacher migrants.

The findings of this study related to the personal characteristics of teachers who migrate appear to be unique to this large, urban school district. Since this school district is the largest in the nation with regard to its geographic size, it is reasonable that the convenience for travel was identified most frequently as the most important factor in the decision to transfer. While previous research studies that examined teacher migration noted that teachers exited one school district to a neighboring school district for reasons of increased salary and newer physical plants (Yasin, 1999; Theobald, 1990), there were no studies identified by the researcher that examined the impact of commuting long distances. Further, this study's finding with regard to a desire for a new challenge was only marginally related to Ingersoll's (2001) research that identified a desire for improved job opportunities as a factor influencing teacher turnover.

### **Discussion of Research Question Investigating the Perception of Influence of the Teacher's Mode of Growth and Career Stage on Migration**

The mode of growth in their career or life at the time of migration was perceived by teacher informants to have influenced the decision to migrate in terms of their primary intent and what was preoccupying the teacher at the time, consistent with the theory proposed by Boyatzis and Kolb (1993). Teacher migrants were predominantly in the performance mode and the learning mode of growth at the time of migration although one teacher interviewed was in the development mode.

When in the performance mode of growth, the teacher's intent is job mastery and the preoccupation is with success and the use of skills specific to the situational demands of the job. Teachers in this mode of growth migrated in an attempt to secure a teaching assignment where the conditions for success would be optimal and where their skill set would be adequate to effectively meet the needs of their students. In some instances, migration resulted in an assignment to a preferred grade or subject based on the teacher's sense of mastery. In other cases, migration resulted in an assignment where the teacher was more comfortable with the students and parents and expectations of the principal, and therefore more effective in using the applicable skills for classroom management.

Teachers who migrated when in the learning mode of growth did so because their intent and preoccupation was with novelty, variety and generalizability. With an emphasis on self-improvement, teachers in this mode sought opportunities for the application of their skills in other settings. Generally, teacher migrants had attained some degree of success or validation and were ready for a change, particularly one that offered an opportunity to learn something new or to be a part of a team working on a new

program or project. Since self-image and learning skills are key abilities in this mode of growth, teacher migrants in this mode exhibited a belief that a move to a new setting would be motivating and that they would be successful, although they acknowledged the risk inherent in migration.

The intent and preoccupation of teachers in the development mode is fulfillment of one's purpose or calling, in terms of a specific agenda. Often, a cathartic event stimulates movement into this mode of growth or a realization that what one thought was one's purpose is, indeed, different. The teacher migrant in this mode was able to identify the specific situation and series of events that caused her to rethink her purpose, which had been to teach under-privileged children, and to redefine her calling, to teach. In so doing, she migrated to a school that challenged her to teach a class of students whose abilities ranged from low-performing to highly capable.

In contrast to the modes of growth, which are not defined by age or years of experience in a job, the career stages in teaching framework (Huberman, 1993) proposes a series of stages or phases in the life-cycle of teachers that are linear and hierarchical. Teacher migrants were identified as being in five of the seven stages, with two stages predominating.

Teacher migrants in the stabilization phase had moved beyond the entry and survival stage. They had committed to teaching and were beginning to assert their independence. Their sense of confidence was increasing and they had found their personal style of teaching. This phase or stage was marked by an enjoyment of the act of teaching and a general feeling of reassurance. Having arrived at this point, the decision to

migrate was related to actively choosing where to build a career as opposed to staying at the school where they first had accepted employment.

The middle phases of the career stages hierarchy are called the diversification phase and the reassessment phase and were not representative of a majority of teacher migrants. The teacher migrant in the diversification phase experimented with instructional materials and methods, grouping of students, and methods of evaluation. This teacher was concerned with her impact in the classroom and sought a teaching assignment where learning communities existed or where her personal ambitions would be supported. The teacher migrant in the reassessment phase was concerned with the direction of his professional career and the monotony of the classroom. He migrated for the change of pace and the hope of rekindling motivation. Theoretically, teachers for whom migration is successful emerge into other, more positive stages. The teacher migrant who remained in the reassessment stage left teaching altogether.

Teacher migrants were more often found to be in the serenity or conservatism stages. The serenity stage is described more as a state of mind and seems to be related more closely to age than years of experience. There is more acceptance of self and some distance between what one hoped to accomplish with one's career and the reality of the career. Accompanying this greater ease in the classroom is a greater expectation for the behavior of students and the rigor expected in the student's work. Teachers in this stage may migrate in order to find the kind of students and schools where expectations for behavior and quality of work are high and teachers are respected.

The conservatism stage is also related to age in the literature but was not found to be so among teacher migrants. Most of the teacher migrants in the conservatism stage

were younger and less experienced than their counterparts and had complaints about the schools from which they migrated as well as the schools to which they migrated. The complaints of teacher migrants in the conservatism stage centered on the impact of the standards-based reforms in the school district, the lack of discipline and motivation of the students, and parents, in terms of their involvement with their children (too much or not enough or questioning the authority of the teacher). For teachers in the conservatism stage, migration did not result in greater employment satisfaction except as it might have resolved personal inconvenience, such as less distance to travel or more amenable professional colleagues.

### **Discussion of Results in Relation to Previous Research on Occupations and Careers**

Teaching as an occupation or career is like other occupations and careers in many ways. Therefore, the decisions that individuals make to become teachers and, subsequently, to stay in or leaving teaching are influenced by many of the same factors as any other occupation or career, that is, by the real and perceived value of the job, the learning or adaptation that one makes in the job, and the impact of time and experience on employment satisfaction at any stage of a career.

Teachers who migrated chose to leave a work location but not a career. When they did so, they took their store of human capital with them from school to school. By a traditional definition of human capital, workers move their skill, experience, and knowledge for higher earnings, more choice and greater satisfaction. In the case of teacher migration, the movement from one school to another in the Duval County Public Schools did not result in higher earnings but it did result in more choice of roles or extracurricular involvement and greater satisfaction. When asked to describe what was

more rewarding at the new school, teacher informants were able to give a variety of examples, including the option to limit the number of roles, committees, and events, if they chose to do so. And, while teacher informants did not identify an economic value received by migrating, one could surmise that by reducing the number of miles traveled to and from work, or reducing the amount of time that the children of migrants spent in after-school care, or having the time to work on advanced degrees or National Board certification, teachers did receive an economic value.

The modes of growth that are the foundation of the theory of learning and adaptation proposed by Boyatzis and Kolb (1993) were present in teacher migrants and appeared to influence the decision to migrate in some respects. The theory has to do with competency acquisition and the use of competencies as a function of the learning that is achieved through direct participation in the job. People enter and exit the modes of growth at various stages of life related to a person's career and personal development rather than any particular age. The teacher informants were found to be primarily in the performance or learning mode, and the intent or preoccupation of each of these modes appeared to be related to what the teacher wanted in terms of work challenges or stimulation and the choices that teachers made as they went about the act of migrating.

Huberman's (1993) research on career stages in teaching provides a different framework for understanding the migration phenomenon. Teacher migrants were found to be in the middle five stages of their careers which is consistent with their ages and years of experience. None of the teacher informants were found to be in the entry stage and none was found to be in the stage called disengagement. Generally, teachers move through the stages in order, as they progress through their careers. In the case of the

teacher migrants interviewed, however, two of the three who were in the stage called conservatism were much younger than expected and did not have the years of teaching experience generally associated with this stage. This may be explained by the personalities of the teachers or the influence of the political or social milieu in which they operate. It is interesting to note that both of these teachers had considered migrating to a private or parochial school based on their religious preferences but rejected doing so because of the low salary schedule.

### **Implications for School District Administrators**

This study found that teacher migration is influenced almost equally by the manner in which teachers and schools are managed and by a teacher's individual characteristics and preferences. The decision to migrate is also influenced by the learning and adaptation that a teacher makes in the job and by the perceived personal cost of compromises made.

School principals who focus effectively on managing the school's resources: instructional, personnel, facilities, and fiscal, limit the degree of migration that a school experiences. Further, teachers whose relationship with the school's principal is characterized by a lack of mutual respect, limited teacher involvement in decision-making, and unresolved conflicts related to managing student behavior and responding to discipline problems tend to migrate.

Teachers who are in the entry career stage of teaching require workplace accommodations to help them become socialized to the profession and connected to the school. Based on the source of their training and licensure (college of education preparation, substitute or paraprofessional path, entry from another career through

alternate certification), the entry stage for teachers continues from one to six years. If the beginning is easy, that is, if there is positive rapport with the principal and colleagues, and if there are teachable students, and if external problems such as convenience for travel are diminished, teachers commit to the profession of teaching and connect with the school. If the beginning is painful, that is, if teachers are left to sink or swim, or if they are isolated from their colleagues, or if they are required to make costly external investments in their studies to qualify to remain in the profession, they often leave the profession altogether or they remain in the school only long enough to become eligible to migrate.

Teachers who are in the third, fourth or fifth year of teaching at a school with any of the following conditions could be considered “at risk” for migration: 1. an inexperienced principal new to the school, 2. low academic achievement and discipline or behavior problems, and, 3. a geographic location where the school’s physical plant or neighborhood or both are perceived to be unsafe. Interventions to ameliorate any of these conditions may limit migration. However, salary based retention inducements such as bonuses or incentives that do not address the fundamental conditions of schools with high rates of migration may be effective in attracting teachers to the school but will not serve to retain them.

### **Implications for Education Policymakers**

School superintendents and school boards annually recommend and approve operating budgets that typically dedicate more than 75 percent of their funds to personnel costs. The largest portion of this cost is to pay the salaries and benefits of the school district’s teachers. A cost that is not usually accounted for in this budgeting process is

the direct and indirect cost of filling teaching vacancies. The direct costs can be calculated based on the value of the time and resources it takes to advertise, recruit, screen, hire and assign a new teacher, when one can be found. The indirect costs are harder to calculate but just as real- the destabilizing effect on the school and its students and the time and effort to induct and socialize a new teacher to the rituals and routines of the school.

With such a large investment of time and money in the human capital of a school district, an investment that increases in times of high teacher turnover, reducing the excess demand for teachers in schools is good public policy. School district policies and practices do not always serve to promote school-based retention of teachers and discourage migration. The form and structure of compensation, initial hiring and assignment practices, and the school district's transfer policies impact the size of the pool of qualified teacher applicants and the potential for employment satisfaction at the school assigned.

Grissmer and Kirby (1997) proposed that typical teacher salary schedules that are differentiated by years of experience and degrees held, and without regard to quality, rob the profession of high quality entrants. The traditional approach to compensating teachers is in direct opposition to a return on investment model, that is, workers produce the greatest value for companies when companies generate the greatest value for workers. This study has demonstrated that teacher migration occurs most frequently by about the fifth year of teaching and at about the point in a teacher's career at which many teachers are reaching decisions about their commitment to the profession. It is also at this point that the progression of salary growth flattens on a traditional salary schedule.

Employment is transactional in nature and the degree of satisfaction that one has with their place of work is dependent on the interplay of many factors. For more than half of the teacher migrants in this large school district, convenience for travel was the most important factor in their decision to transfer. Yet, newly hired teachers are frequently assigned to schools that are a significant distance from their homes and that are often not a match for their background and training. Typically, this practice takes place because the schools where more vacancies exist are found in the core center of the city and the legacy policies of school district desegregation case makes the racial balance of the faculty a key consideration in teacher assignment. Thus, white and black teachers may both travel long distances based on the community's traditional housing patterns.

The teachers in this study universally described the process of applying for and receiving a transfer to be well-known and "easy". Some also described the informal transfer process that takes place. The question to be asked, then, is whether or not it is in the students' and schools' best interest to have such an easy process? If a teacher is unhappy, and failure to successfully migrate results in the loss of the teacher's services altogether, then the answer must be yes, in terms of the school district's overall needs. For the individual school and its students, however, the answer more often would be no. Identifying and addressing the sources of teacher dissatisfaction and renegotiating the district's transfer policy with the teacher union both would be important in reducing teacher migration.

The match of a principal to a school and a teacher to a school is part art and part science. The results of this study show that the principal's leadership of the school significantly influences teacher retention at the school. This is consistent with the

research studies of the past two decades that examined school leadership. The investment of funds in the training and development of principal candidates in terms of their supervisory skills, negotiation skills, and conflict resolution, and the use of reliable assessment methods to determine not only the best candidates for the principalship but the best principal for the individual school, also are options that may reduce migration.

Malcolm Gladwell (2002) said, “An epidemic can be reversed by tinkering with the smallest details of the immediate environment.” While the migration phenomenon has not reached epidemic proportions in the school district, traditional teacher turnover in many schools, coupled with the recent school size reduction legislation, feels like an epidemic to the district and school administrators who must find the qualified teachers to fill the vacancies. Since migration is one form of teacher turnover that can be controlled by the school district, and since migration more frequently occurs in schools and regions that also experience high teacher turnover due to resignations, effectively addressing the root causes of migration is one means of addressing the entire school staffing problem.

### **Limitations of the Study**

This study was not framed in a true experimental research design with random assignment of subjects to control and treatment groups. Rather, it was a qualitative study designed to explore and richly describe the experiences of teacher migrants in an attempt to better understand the teacher migration phenomenon. Qualitative methodology was selected as the best research approach since the researcher was most concerned with understanding a phenomenon from the perspective of the participant and the meaning each participant made of their experience. It does, however, present some limitations.

The population of teachers studied migrated at some point during four academic years, from 2000 through 2003. They were surveyed by the researcher in February and April, 2004. Ten teachers were interviewed in November and December, 2004. Therefore, the information provided by first-person accounts of participants may have been affected by the passage of time. As noted by Huberman (1993), “our past is constituted less by an objective reality than by a series of ideas about that reality, and these ideas change over time” (p. 22). In addition, the experiences of the researcher may influence the data analysis as the recursive process progresses.

This research design also limits the generalizability of the results since the study population was all teachers who migrated during a specific period of time in a single, large urban school district. However, as migration is a form of teacher turnover, and as migration occurs nationally across school district lines as well as within school districts, the results are useful for considering the reasons why teachers leave schools for purposes other than retirement. The results can also provide valuable information to school leaders, school district leaders, and policy makers at the local level as decisions are made regarding the implementation of policies and administrative actions intended to increase teacher retention.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

The results of this study present a complex picture of the migration phenomenon. This complexity raises questions that may be answered by future research. First, how do principals react to migration when it occurs at their schools? What effect does migration have on the school and its students and teachers left behind? Studies undertaken to understand the principal’s point of view would provide a more comprehensive

understanding of the migration phenomenon. It would also be useful to know if principals predict the migration of certain teachers and, if so, what signs or behaviors do principals perceive signal an impending migration.

Second, it seems that it would be important to know why some teachers in a school migrate but others teachers in the same school do not. That is, why would the characteristics and conditions of a school result in the migration of one teacher but not another? One could assume from the results of the current study on migration that the reasons may be related to differences in teachers' personal characteristics, modes of growth, and career stage in teaching. However, further study would be necessary to confirm this assumption.

A third recommendation is to study the characteristics of teachers who leave teaching altogether at the end of their third, fourth or fifth year of employment and those of teachers who migrate at the end of their third, fourth or fifth year of employment. The primary question is why do some teachers commit to the profession of teaching, even though dissatisfied with the school assignment, while others do not and exit? Answering this question might provide some knowledge about what a school district administration could do to promote teacher retention, in general.

Finally, it would be useful to study a single school or single region of schools that implemented hiring, assignment, induction and socialization practices, and compensation for teachers and principals based on human capital theory, the career stages in teaching framework and a return on investment model. While these theories have been found to be effective in increasing employment satisfaction and retention of highly skilled workers in other occupations, it appears that there are no available studies related to education.

## Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to add to the body of research on teacher turnover by examining one form of turnover- migration. The synthesis of research to date indicates that teacher turnover destabilizes schools and that such instability has a direct effect on the success of students. As migration is one form of turnover that a school district can control, a better understanding of the phenomenon of migration may lead to better control of migration.

Several important findings about teacher migrants and the schools from which they migrated emerged. First, and most importantly, teachers migrated almost equally for personal reasons and because of the conditions and characteristics of the school. Teachers migrated for reasons of convenience for travel or a desire for a new challenge, and they migrated because of the lack of administrative support, the type or frequency of student discipline problems, and the geographic location of the school.

While teachers migrated more often in schools in Regions One and Two than in other regions in the school district, all regions experience migration. All school grade configurations experienced migration but a greater percentage of middle schools experienced migration than did elementary, high, or special schools. And, while teachers migrated from schools with high academic achievement as well as from schools with low academic achievement, schools with the lowest academic achievement more frequently experienced migration. Migration also appeared to be influenced by the decisions made by the school district, that is, in years when new schools were opened, migration increased. Regions with a higher percentage of poorer students experienced more migration.

Another important finding was that the teachers' modes of growth and career stages in teaching appeared to influence the decision to migrate in terms of what they were looking for in employment satisfaction and the manner in which they conducted their searches for a new assignment. Therefore, it appears that if a teacher's mode of growth and career stage in teaching is known, principals may be able to provide the conditions that would improve employment satisfaction in situ.

The findings of this study provided other perspectives about voluntary teacher transfer (migration) than the customary viewpoint, particularly about teachers who leave Regions One and Two. Most importantly, teachers do not migrate because they are disinclined to work in difficult schools with students and parents who are often unlike themselves in terms of race, education, or upbringing. Rather, they migrate because there is an imbalance among the hard work that teaching in such schools takes, the time away from home that working so far away requires, and the kind and quality of administrative support that they receive. It appears then that improving the employment satisfaction of teachers will result in a reduction of excess demand for new teachers, and, based on other studies, such stabilization of the faculty will lead to improved student achievement in schools where it matters most.

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**APPENDIX A**  
**COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AGREEMENT**  
**BETWEEN**  
**DUVAL TEACHERS UNITED**  
**AND**  
**DUVAL COUNTY SCHOOL BOARD –**  
**ARTICLE VII**

## ARTICLE VII- TRANSFERS / SURPLUS

### A. Employee Transfer

#### 1. Voluntary Transfer

Voluntary transfer requests will be processed after special needs of the Employer, such as training and experience, Title I Comparability, and extracurricular activities have been met. The following guidelines will be used:

- a. Employees who wish to make application for transfer, including transfers when there is a staffing of a new facility or when the major role of a facility is altered, shall submit their request in writing to the Division of Human Resource Services on or before March 1.
- b. Application will include a request for up to four (4) schools in order of preference or a selection of one of the organizational regions, and two (2) subject areas and a designation of primary and/or intermediate at the elementary level. Only those areas in which the employee is certificated will be considered.
- c. A list of known vacancies shall be posted in each school no later than March 15 showing vacancies by school with grade or subject area. An amended list shall be posted by May 15.
- d. Vacancies shall be open solely to transfer applicants until May 1. Thereafter, transfer applicants shall be eligible for vacancies along with other applicants. Employees desiring to amend their original transfer request must contact the Division of Human Resource Services prior to June 1.
- e. New employees shall have the option to request a voluntary transfer placement after two (2) years and eleven (11) months. Employee who have received a voluntary transfer within the last two (2) years and eleven (11) months will not be eligible for a voluntary transfer. This limitation does not apply to teachers teaching out of their field of certification or to teachers involuntarily transferred within the past two years. Application to transfer after the two (2) year eleven (11) month period may be made prior to the transfer eligibility.
- f. When more than one applicant meets the above criteria, seniority as defined elsewhere in this contract will be the determining factor.
- g. All voluntary transfers shall be subject to the approval of the receiving principals. The losing principal shall be informed of the transfer and may request a review of the transfer by the Regional Superintendent on the grounds that such transfer would be detrimental to the program of the school.
- h. Employees who do not receive voluntary transfers shall be notified of the reason in writing upon request.

- i. The seven (7) most senior teachers (utilizing Duval total seniority) requesting a transfer to an individual school shall be guaranteed at least one interview by one principal on whose list the teachers' names appear.

**APPENDIX B**  
**TEACHER MIGRANT SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE**

Code \_\_\_\_\_

## TRANSFER QUESTIONNAIRE

**DIRECTIONS:** Please share with me as much of the information as possible. This information will assist me in determining the factors that are present in situations where teachers voluntarily transfer from one school to another in the Duval County Public Schools.

1. What is the highest degree you have attained?  
 Bachelor's degree  
 Master's Degree  
 Doctorate  
 Other
  
2. Please describe the current Florida Department of Education certificate that you hold.  
 Permanent  
 Temporary
  
3. Are you presently teaching in-field?  
 Yes  
 No
  
4. Were you teaching in-field at the time of your transfer?  
 Yes  
 No
  
5. Is your bachelor's degree in education?  
 Yes  
 No
  
6. Please describe your undergraduate grade point average (G.P.A.).  
 3.5 or higher  
 2.5 - 3.4  
 Less than 2.5
  
7. At what point in your teaching service did you first request a transfer?  
 Within first 3 years  
 Within 4<sup>th</sup> or 5th year  
 After 5th year

8. At what point did you receive a transfer?  
 First request  
 Second request  
 Third request or thereafter
9. Were you interviewed by the principal or principal's designee of the school to which you transferred prior to being notified that your transfer request would be granted?  
 Yes  
 No
10. Which of the following influenced your decision to transfer *from* the school? Number only the **five** most important to you in the order of their importance:  
 Convenience for travel to and from home  
 Administrative support  
 Desire for a new challenge  
 Convenience for child care  
 Type or frequency of discipline problems in the school  
 Geographic location of the school  
 Availability of classroom supplies and materials  
 Parental involvement  
 Socio-economic status of the students  
 Collegial or peer relationships  
 Size of school  
 Other (please describe):

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**Please provide the following information if you would be willing to participate in a follow-up interview (1-hour in length) regarding your transfer experience at a time convenient to you:**

The best day of the week for me is \_\_\_\_\_

The best time of day is

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Thank you for your participation. Please return the questionnaire and signed informed consent letter in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided.

**The information provided here will be kept strictly confidential; all of the data and description will be reported without reference to an individual or a school.**

**APPENDIX C**

**SAMPLE SURVEY INFORMED CONSENT LETTERS**

Christine C. Arab  
1521 Penman Rd.  
Neptune Beach, Florida 32266

### **Informed Consent Letter One**

Dear Duval County Public School Teacher,

My name is Christine Arab and I am a doctoral student in the Curriculum and Instruction department at Louisiana State University. I am formerly the General Director of Human Resources for the school system and now am employed by Florida Community College at Jacksonville (FCCJ) as the Vice President of Human Resources. I am writing to you to ask for your participation in my research study related to my dissertation.

The purpose of my research is to examine a phenomenon described by Richard Ingersoll as “teacher migration”. Teacher migration is the voluntary movement of teachers from one school to another. I am interested in developing a description of teachers who request and accept voluntary transfers, and in identifying the conditions and characteristics of schools that may contribute to a teacher’s decision to voluntarily move from one school to another within the same school district. Finally, I hope to determine the significance of the school’s conditions and characteristics in influencing a teacher’s decision to move from one school to another.

I am sending the enclosed questionnaire to all teachers in the Duval County Public Schools who have been identified by the DCPS Human Resources department as having voluntarily transferred from one school to another since the 1999-2000 school year. The results of the survey will provide the basis for a series of in-depth interviews that will be used, in part, to answer the research questions posed in my study. Some of the questionnaire respondents will be asked to participate in an open-ended, tape-recorded personal interview conducted by the researcher (me) at a convenient time and place for the participant. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and is very important in developing the most accurate identification and understanding of what leads teachers to apply for and accept a transfer from one school to another. Participants selected for personal interview will receive an official copy of the research findings.

Confidentiality is critically important in research. Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Only I will have access to audio recordings and interview transcripts. Results will be reported in the aggregate and at no time will responses be identified by the participant’s name in the reporting of findings. There are no known risks or direct benefits associated with your participation in this study. You will not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. You may withdraw and discontinue your participation at any time and without penalty.

If you have any questions about your participation in this study, please call me at (904) 632-5082 (office) or (904) 246-3098 (home) or email me at [ccarab@fccj.edu](mailto:ccarab@fccj.edu). You may also contact my committee chairperson, Dr. Robert Lafayette at [rlafaye@lsu.edu](mailto:rlafaye@lsu.edu) or committee member Dr. Earl Cheek at [echek@lsu.edu](mailto:echek@lsu.edu). Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant may be directed to The Office of Research and Graduate Studies, 130 David Boyd Hall, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70803 or by email to [research@lsu.edu](mailto:research@lsu.edu).

I appreciate your time and cooperation. Please sign and return the second copy of this page to me along with your other documents.

Sincerely,

Christine C. Arab

**I have thoroughly read the informed consent letter and voluntarily agree to participate in this doctoral research.**

\_\_\_\_\_ Research Participant

\_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_ Telephone Number

Christine C. Arab  
1521 Penman Rd.  
Neptune Beach, Florida 32266

### **Informed Consent Letter Two**

April 16, 2004

Dear Duval County Public School Teacher,

Two months ago I sent an **Informed Consent Letter** and **Transfer Questionnaire** to you seeking your participation in a research study related to my doctoral program at LSU. I received almost 70 responses with most respondents agreeing to participate in the study. 14 of the letters were returned to me as “Undeliverable” and so I have deleted those teachers from the study population.

*I am contacting you at this time to seek your participation once again. I know that you are busy but I hope that you will take 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire and return it to me.*

I have included a self-addressed envelope for your use but I have not stamped it. Instead, I include a very valuable first-class postage stamp for your use...if you choose not to use it to respond to this request, please keep it for your own use with my thanks for taking the time to read and consider this request.

If I have identified you in error, or if you have returned your questionnaire to me already, please return these documents to me without completing.

Cordially,

Christine C. Arab

**I have read the Informed Consent Letter and voluntarily agree to participate in this doctoral research.**

\_\_\_\_\_ Research Participant

\_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_ Telephone Number

**APPENDIX D**  
**INTERVIEW GUIDE**

Code \_\_\_\_\_

## **INTERVIEW GUIDE**

**Number of years taught?**

**All Duval?**

**School From (A)?**

**School To (B)?**

**Grade/Subject at time of transfer?**

**Teachers who transferred reported:**

**Convenience for travel**

**Administrative support**

**Desire for a new challenge**

**Type or frequency of student discipline problems, and**

**Geographic location of the school**

**as the top five most important reasons in their decision to transfer. What did you identify as your most important reason?**

**Were there other reasons? Tell me about them.**

**How easy was it to transfer? Tell me about the process you used.**

**What did you think about when you were considering a transfer?**

**Was there anything that the school could have done differently to keep you?**

**In what ways is this school different from the school from which you transferred?**

**What is rewarding here compared to there?**

**Do you play other roles here that you did not play there? Why or why not?**

**What personal goals do you want to accomplish? Professional goals?**

**Will you stay in teaching Why or why not?**

**What can the school district do to contribute to your employment satisfaction?**

**What else do you want to tell me about your transfer experience?**

## VITA

Christine Chambers Arab was born in Honolulu, Hawaii, to Eleanor and Howard Chambers. She spent her childhood moving from military base to military base since her father was a member of the United States Air Force. The Department of Defense Schools that she attended provided an excellent grammar school education and an environment that was always welcoming and stimulating.

Christine attended the University of South Florida, after graduating from Robert E. Lee High School in Jacksonville, Florida. Upon completing a Bachelor of Arts degree with a dual major in elementary education and mental retardation, she began her teaching career as a learning disabilities teacher at Christopher Columbus Elementary School in Bridgeport, Connecticut. Subsequently, she returned to Jacksonville and continued her teaching career at Palm Avenue Exceptional Child Center and at Kings Trail Elementary School, where she taught second grade and gifted education. After completing a Master of Arts in Teaching degree at Jacksonville University, she continued to work for the Duval County Public Schools as a member of the professional development teacher cadre and as the supervisor of the district's management development program. In 1989, she accepted a position with the Waterloo, Iowa school district as the Associate Superintendent for Human Resources, a position she subsequently held with the St. Johns County School District, St. Augustine, Florida. It was during which time that she earned an Education Specialist degree at the University of Florida.

In 1995, she joined the East Baton Rouge Parish Public School System and served as the Associate Superintendent for Human Resources and Staff Development. A major part of her duties during this time was to work as a member of the desegregation team in

the development and subsequent implementation of the Consent Decree, specifically with regard to the assignment, training and development of teachers and principals and the design and facilitation of training for the school improvement teams. During this time she began her doctoral studies at Louisiana State University in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction. She served on several local boards, including South Louisiana Teach for America, and was a member and graduate of Leadership Greater Baton Rouge, Class of 1998. She rejoined the Duval County Public Schools in December 1998 upon returning home to Jacksonville, Florida and served the district as the General Director of Human Resources.

Presently, Christine is employed as the Vice President for Human Resources for Florida Community College at Jacksonville (FCCJ), a public 2-year institution of higher learning with campuses and centers in Duval and Nassau Counties. She is a member of the Board of Directors of Jacksonville Community Council Incorporated (JCCI) and is leading the implementation effort resulting from the two year study of public education in Jacksonville, Closing the Achievement Gap. Christine and her husband Lou are the proud parents of sons Benjamin and Gabriel and the doting grandparents of Max Cahill Arab. She and Lou make their home in Neptune Beach, Florida.