CHAPTER 5
TEACHER RETENTION AND QUALIFICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In upcoming years, the United States will experience an unprecedented teacher shortage, meaning that the country will need to supplement its teaching force with approximately two million new teachers. The massive shortage will come as a result of increasing student enrollments, mounting retirement rates of current teachers, and high rates of attrition for beginning teachers. Additionally, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) requires that teachers in core academic areas be highly qualified by the end of the 2005-2006 school year. As a result of difficulties encountered by states to meet these requirements, however, the U.S. Department of Education (USDOE) recently provided some flexibility and extended the deadline to the end of the 2006-2007 school year, if certain conditions are met (FLDOE Memorandum, November 28, 2005). First, states need to have a definition of a highly qualified teacher that is consistent with the federal law. Second, states and districts should provide accurate reporting to the public and to parents of the number of core academic classes taught by highly qualified teachers. Third, the states must report accurate highly qualified teacher data to USDOE. Finally, districts must ensure that there is not a higher percentage of unqualified teachers teaching poor and minority students than are teaching other students.

Given the imminent teacher shortage and the NCLB mandate, the need for the massive recruitment and hiring of large numbers of highly qualified teachers will have major implications for the quality of schools. Teacher shortages have historically resulted in retention and teacher qualification problems in public schools throughout the United States. This problem is amplified for juvenile justice schools, where teacher retention and shortage problems are usually greater, and a larger proportion of teachers are inexperienced and uncertified (JJEEP, 1999).

The purpose of this chapter is not to compare Florida to the nation, but rather, compare the characteristics of teachers working in public schools to those of teachers working in juvenile justice schools. Thus, this chapter addresses the following three research questions. First, *do juvenile justice teachers demonstrate similar characteristics to the national teacher population*? Second, *how are Florida's juvenile justice teachers meeting the highly qualified requirements of NCLB*? Finally, *are the qualifications and retention rates of juvenile justice teachers different from public school teachers*?

Guided by these research questions, this chapter examines the problem of teacher shortages across the nation as it relates to teacher retention and quality. The chapter also provides an empirical comparison of the trends in educational characteristics of teachers in public schools across the nation with those among juvenile justice teachers in Florida. The tables throughout this chapter reflect national data derived from a national sample of

public school teachers (National School and Staffing Survey) and state data derived from a state sample of juvenile justice school teachers.

This chapter is divided into the following five subsequent sections. Sections 5.2 and 5.3 present a review of the highly qualified teacher requirements of NCLB and an overview of the literature that identifies the effects of increased teacher attrition and lower retention rates, respectively. Section 5.4 provides an analysis of teacher educational characteristics nationally, as well as the characteristics of juvenile justice teachers in Florida. Section 5.5 presents additional characteristics of teachers nationwide for which there are no comparable Florida juvenile justice teacher data and summarizes the future research directions and data collection efforts for juvenile justice teachers. Finally, an overall summary discussion of the key findings is provided in Section 5.6.

5.2 Highly Qualified Teacher Requirements

The signing of NCLB into law in 2002 presented unprecedented challenges for elementary and secondary education institutions in the United States. Specifically, the mandates for teacher qualification reforms have exacerbated the teacher shortage problem that has plagued the educational system for decades. Due to the demand for more highly qualified teachers, the impediments of attrition and teacher recruitment have intensified for many educational administrators across the country.

Through the Improving Teacher Quality program mandates that are included in NCLB, schools are now responsible for providing quality education to all students. According to the mandates, schools will achieve this goal through the recruitment, hiring, and training of highly qualified teachers. Highly qualified requirements stipulate that all states develop a plan that ensures that teachers in the core academic subject areas of English, reading, mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, arts, history, economics, and geography have certifications in the related subject areas they teach and that these qualifications for certification be met by the end of the 2005-2006 school year. If states are having difficulty meeting the requirements, they may receive an extension until the end of the 2006-2007 school year under the four conditions previously described (FLDOE Memorandum, November 28, 2005).

States have some flexibility regarding how their teachers can meet these requirements. For example, to demonstrate subject-based competency, the High Objective Uniform State Standard of Evaluation (HOUSSE) allows states to develop their own standards for teachers who have been teaching within the school system. According to NCLB, teachers are "highly qualified" when they meet the following three conditions[1]:

1. Obtain a college degree

2. Receive full certification or licensure, which does not include any certification that has been "waived on an emergency, temporary, or provisional basis"

[1] These are federal requirements. For Florida HOUSSE information, please see http://info.fldoe.org/docushare/dsweb/Get/Document-2436/HOUSSEmemo.pdf.

3. Demonstrate content knowledge in the subject(s) they are teaching or, in the case of elementary teachers, in at least verbal and mathematics ability. This demonstration can come in various forms:

    - New elementary teachers must pass a state test of literacy and numeracy
    - New secondary teachers must either pass a rigorous test in the subject area or have a college major in the subject area.
    - Veteran teachers must either pass the state test, have a college major in the subject area, or demonstrate content knowledge through some other uniformly applied process designed by the state, such as the HOUSSE provisions. *(Analysis by The Education Trust, December 2003, pp.2)*

In light of recent research findings that address the link between teacher quality and student learning, efforts to raise teacher quality in all classrooms have increased drastically. Both federal and state provisions have been implemented to improve teacher quality, thus ensuring that all teachers, especially those teaching low-income and minority students, are highly qualified by 2006 (The Education Trust, 2003). An unintended negative consequence of this new drive to enhance teacher quality, however, is that it may be contributing to increased teacher shortage and retention problems.

5.3 Literature Review

Retention

Teacher attrition is a long-standing problem. Almost one-third of new teachers leave the profession within five years, and at least one-fifth decide each year to leave the school at which they are teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2003). The turnover problem is even higher among the juvenile justice teachers in Florida (see Section 5.4). The problem of teacher retention has been attributed to misguided teacher recruitment policies that fail to link teacher quality with salary, standards, and certifications. Retaining quality teachers is an important concern; students who have teachers with little or no preparation learn less than students who have fully prepared teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2001). Over the years, recruitment policies have either focused on the employment of untrained teachers or have created short-term training programs that provide minimal preparation for teachers before they enter the classroom. Unfortunately, the emphasis has not been upon the recruitment and retention of well-prepared teachers. Specifically, these recruitment programs have focused mainly on satisfying the demand for teachers with numbers rather than with quality (Darling-Hammond, 2001).

Salaries are a major contributing factor in teacher turnover and retention. For example, Hanusek, Kain, and Rivkin (2001) found that higher salaries reduced the likelihood that teachers in Texas would leave their districts. Hammond (2001) argues that teachers are more likely to quit if they work for school districts that offer lower wages or when their

wages remain below those for alternative jobs. Salary is particularly important to the recruitment and retention of teachers in urban, low-income, and high-minority population schools. Recent studies conducted in California, Texas, Philadelphia, and New York show that teachers in urban, low-income, and high minority population schools tend to transfer quickly as they systematically migrate to more 'desirable' schools (Prince, 2002). These institutions are extremely difficult to staff because teachers do not usually opt to work there voluntarily. Therefore, urban districts across the nation typically offer higher financial incentives in order to boost recruitment and diminish turnover in high-poverty and low-performing schools (Prince, 2002). Another reason salaries are important in the prevention of teacher attrition is that education must compete with other occupations for college and university graduates. Therefore, salaries must be a sufficiently enticing incentive to bring professionals into the education field.

Other important factors that affect the recruitment and retention of teachers are student characteristics, opportunities for advancement, job difficulty, and working conditions. Studies of teacher salaries and retention/migration found that salary matters less when other characteristics of the workplace are personally or professionally satisfying and that improving the relative attractiveness of jobs can compensate for lower salaries. School environment is largely determined by the perceptions of parental involvement, resource availability, staff-administrator relationships, administrative support, class size, and student behavior (Prince, 2002).

Student characteristics–especially behavior, achievement, race, and socioeconomic status–are important elements to teacher retention and recruitment. Teachers are more likely to stay at schools where student achievement is high and racial minority and low-income student enrollment is low. In their examination of teacher attrition and retention patterns in California schools, Carroll, Reichardt, and Guarino (2000) found that the odds that a teacher would leave a school were directly related to the percentage of both African American and Hispanic students enrolled. In a New York public school study researchers found that when teachers switched districts, the average percentages of poor, minority, and limited English proficiency students in their new schools were only half that of the percentages in their old schools (Prince, 2002). Similarly, Hanusek, Kain, and Rivkin (2004) revealed that teachers who left one school district for another went to teach in districts that served higher achieving and higher-income students and fewer minority students. Furthermore, the district to which teachers moved had an average of 2% fewer African American students and 4.4% fewer Hispanic American students. Additionally, in their new schools, average student achievement was higher by .07 standard deviations, and the percentage of low-income students was lower by 6% (Hanusek et al., 2004).

The relationship between student characteristics and teacher retention is contingent upon other factors that reflect high-poverty and high-minority schools. Teachers who serve in these institutions earn one third less than those in higher-income schools, and they have fewer resources, poorer working conditions, and "greater stress of working with many students and families who have a wide range of needs" (Prince, 2002). Consequently, these schools experience higher turnover rates.

When examining the behaviors of African American teachers, however, studies show that they tend to move to schools with higher percentages of African American enrollment than their previous schools. It is argued that this condition exists among African American teachers due to the potential benefits and opportunities afforded by switching to schools with higher percentages of African American students. Among these improved opportunities are the increased potential for rapid advancement and the opportunity to work with students of similar ethnic backgrounds (Hanusek et al., 2004).

The majority of research on the relationship between working conditions, teacher commitment, and–indirectly–teacher retention, tend to focus on both the intrinsic and extrinsic impact of work characteristics on teacher behavior. According to Firestone and Pennell (1993), working conditions manipulate behavior through the production of psychological states that are deemed pleasurable, meaningful, or satisfying among teachers.

The elements of job properties that contribute to meaningfulness of work and, therefore, to retention are skill variety, task identity, and job significance. Results from the Blauner (1964) and Newmann, Rutter, & Smith (1989) studies on teacher commitment show that teachers who believed their work to be meaningful were more motivated and committed than those who believed that their work was meaningless (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Hackmon and Oldham (1980) defined skill variety in terms of the range of different activities, skills, and talents necessary to carry out the work. Using the theory of skill variety proposed by Hackmon and Oldman, Charters (1984) and his colleagues found that skill variety is an important factor in the explanation of teacher organizational commitment. With regard to teaching, the concept of skill variety can be applied to the extent that teachers may experience role strain as a result of the need to perform too many varied tasks or accomplish too much work (Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

Hackmon and Oldman theorized that jobs are more meaningful when individuals can identify with the unrestricted production of something (1980). They define task identity as the individual "doing a complete job from beginning to end" (Firestone & Pennell, 1993). Task identity affects teacher commitment, as teachers are usually responsible for teaching groups of students a particular subject matter over a period of time. Moreover, task significance is extremely important in determining job meaningfulness and commitment. Teachers who see no relevance in the tasks assigned to them may interpret their role as futile, thus lowering their commitment to school (Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

Other factors that are important to the creation of an environment that will foster teacher commitment and increase retention rates are teacher autonomy and participation in the decision-making process within their institutions. Autonomy in the workplace is translated as the ability to freely schedule work and to determine the procedures that will be used to carry out that work. In this context, an autonomous institution is one that allows teachers influence over operational decisions. Autonomy is important to the building of internal motivation and commitment to the job because individuals operating in an autonomous environment feel a sense of responsibility for success and for the adoption of successful practices. In a survey of 1,213 teachers, Rosenholtz and Simpson

(1990) found that autonomy was the best predictor of commitment. Participating in strategic decisions made by administrators, school boards, and state policy makers that affect multiple classrooms—also contributes positively to job satisfaction and commitment. The availability of learning opportunities, resources, opportunities for advancement, and collaboration among individuals within the school setting are also environmental factors that influence job satisfaction and reduce teacher attrition (Firestone & Pennell, 1993).

Teacher Quality and Certification

The difficulty of staffing elementary and secondary classrooms with qualified teachers has received a tremendous amount of attention over the past decade. In part, the problem has been fueled by the inability to define and measure the multifaceted concept of teacher quality. Teacher shortages have forced states and institutions to adopt policies that allow filling teaching positions by lowering educational standards. Examples of policy responses that increase the supply of teachers are the adoption of alternative certification programs by many states across the nation and numerous incentive programs to entice individuals to enter the profession (Ingersoll, 1999).

Recently, the shortage of personnel has resulted in states hiring more inexperienced teachers. This is particularly true for juvenile justice schools. Teachers in juvenile justice settings are often inexperienced, uncertified, and do not receive comprehensive and ongoing training. The problem of substandard staffing of schools is important to retention in that empirical studies have shown that turnover rates are generally higher in institutions with teachers who are ill-prepared and inexperienced (Ingersoll, 1999). This is partly explained by the fact that teachers who have substandard or alternate emergency certification usually assume the same responsibilities as fully trained teachers, despite having little or no preparation. Frequently, the teaching assignments that are most often filled by uncertified teachers are in settings that are extremely frustrating for inexperienced teachers. Subsequently, these teachers tend to experience decreased commitment and burnout at a much higher rate than trained and experienced teachers (Ingersoll, 1999).

Out-of-field teaching is one of the least recognized problems of underqualified teachers in classrooms across the nation. The term is used to describe the practice of assigning teachers to teach subjects for which they have little training or no education. Because of the empirical complications faced by the inability to define "qualified teacher," there is a great deal of controversy concerning how much training and which kinds of preparation teachers need to have in order to meet the requirements to teach particular subjects (Ingersoll, 1999).

The problem of out-of-field teaching is especially prominent given the recruiting and retention problems that elementary and secondary institutions are currently experiencing. Richard Ingersoll, in a study of teachers across the nation (1999), found that a third of all secondary teachers who teach math did not have either a major or a minor in math, math education, or related disciplines such as engineering or physics. About one quarter of all

secondary school English teachers have neither a major nor a minor in English or related subjects such as literature, communications, speech, journalism, English education, or reading education. In science, the study showed that approximately one fifth of all secondary school teachers did not have at least a minor in one of the sciences or in science education. The same was also true for the other core subject area of social studies, where one fifth of all teachers teaching social studies did not have at least a minor in any of the social sciences.

Out-of-field teaching assignments have adverse effects on both teachers and students. The increased use of out-of-field assignment contributes to teacher attrition due to the added burden it places on teachers who are already overworked with a heavy class load. Out-of-field teaching is more burdensome because of the perceived added preparation teachers have in order to teach a course for which they have no formal training. Students are affected by the practice of assigning teachers out of their fields of certification, in that the practice lowers the level of efficacy of teachers and negatively affects the learning environment (Ingersoll, 1999).

In sum, recruiting and retaining highly qualified teachers is an increasing problem among schools within the United States. Inadequate salaries, few opportunities for advancement, student characteristics (i.e., behavior, student achievement, race, and socioeconomic status), job difficulty, and negative school environment are all factors that contribute to the problem of recruitment and retention as well as teaching in field. As a result, school administrators have resorted to hiring uncertified and inexperienced teachers. This problem is most common in juvenile justice programs where attrition rates are exceptionally high.

5.4 Findings

This section presents the educational characteristics of public school teachers across the nation and teachers within Florida's juvenile justice education system. The analysis compares the characteristics and qualifications of teachers working in public schools to those of teachers working in juvenile justice schools. Specifically, it compares teacher gender demographics, attrition, teaching experience, level of certification, and in-field/out-of-field teaching rates. Public school results were taken from the 1999-2000 Schools and Staffing Survey conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). Characteristics of juvenile justice teachers were obtained from the Teacher Certification data collected by JJEEP during annual Quality Assurance (QA) reviews.

Table 5.4-1 reports the distribution of public school teachers and juvenile justice teachers, by gender.

Table 5.4-1: National Teachers and Florida Juvenile Justice Teachers by Gender

Gender	Public School Teachers		Juvenile Justice Teachers	
	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number
Male	32	15,689	48	370
Female	68	33,495	52	478
Total	**100**	**49,184**	**100**	**848**

The breakdown of teachers by gender shows that teaching is still predominantly a female profession. Sixty-eight percent of public school teachers are female. Women in Florida juvenile justice schools also represent a higher percentage of the teaching population, but the distribution between males and females is more equalized.

Table 5.4-2 reports the number and percentage of K-12 teachers leaving the profession in 2000 among public school teachers across the nation and among Florida's juvenile justice teachers. The table also makes the distinction between the types of turnover, comparing the percentage of teachers who transfer with those who leave the profession (leavers).

Table 5.4-2: Teacher Turnover

	Public School Teachers (2000)	Juvenile Justice Teachers (2003-2004)
Total Number of Teachers	3,412,500	808
Transferred	269,000 (8%)	19 (2%)
Left Teaching	278,000 (8%)	377 (47%)
Total Turnover	**547,000 (16%)**	**396 (49%)**

[1]National figures are obtained from *Condition of Education* (2005), which is published by NCES, and are estimates calculated from the *1999-2000 School and Staffing Survey*.
[3]Although 377 teachers left the juvenile justice education system, there were 467 new hires for the 2003-2004 school year.

Public school figures show that 16% of all teachers transferred or left their jobs in 2000. The turnover rate for juvenile justice teachers in Florida exceeded that of the national population, with nearly half (49%) of juvenile justice teachers leaving their jobs in 2003-2004. While the gap between transfers and leavers among public school teachers was narrow, 47% of Florida's juvenile justice teachers were leavers and only 2% were transfers. Thus, a greater portion of the attrition rate in the juvenile justice education system can be attributed to teachers that leave the teaching profession altogether or transfer to public schools[2].

[2] "Leavers" are defined as teachers who are no longer teaching in a juvenile justice education program in the state of Florida. Many juvenile justice teachers may transfer to public schools but are still calculated as leaving the juvenile justice education system.

Teaching experience, one of the several educational characteristics particularly important for meeting the highly qualified teacher requirements, is presented in Table 5.4-3. In this analysis, teaching experience is measured as the number of years in the profession. The average number of teaching years in public schools is slightly greater than for Florida's juvenile justice schools.

Table 5.4-3: Teaching Experience Nationally and in Florida Juvenile Justice Schools*

Years in the Teaching Profession	Public School Teachers		Juvenile Justice Teachers	
	Number of Teachers	*Cumulative Percentage*	*Number of Teachers*	*Cumulative Percentage*
0-2 years	8,233 (17%)	17%	199 (25%)	25%
2-5 years	7,318 (15%)	32%	134 (17%)	42%
6-10 years	8,491 (17%)	49%	112 (14%)	56%
10-15 years	6,639 (13%)	62%	91 (12%)	68%
15 or more years	18,503 (38%)	100%	245 (31%)	99%
TOTAL	**49,184**	**100%**	**781**	**100%**

*National figures are for 2000; Florida figures are for 2005.

In 2005, JJEEP was able to collect teacher information in 167 of 174 Florida juvenile justice education programs that received QA reviews. There were 781 juvenile justice teachers in the 167 programs. Of the total number of public school teachers, 32% have five years or less of teaching experience, while 42% of juvenile justice teachers have five years or less of experience. The difference is due to the high number of teachers that have less than two years experience among Florida juvenile justice teachers (199 or 25%). The high percentage of public school teachers with 15 or more years of experience (38%) can be attributed to the aging teaching population. This aging has increased retirement rates, which, in turn, contributes to the teacher shortage problem. In comparison with the public school averages, juvenile justice teachers in Florida were 10% more likely to have five years or less of teaching experience and 7% less likely to have 10 or more years of experience.

A requirement of NCLB is that teachers are certified or licensed by the state in which they teach. Teachers have the option of obtaining professional certification, a temporary certification, a statement of eligibility, or using an alternative means. Table 5.4-4 presents the different levels of teaching certification in public schools and in Florida juvenile justice education programs.

Table 5.4-4: Level of Certification for Teachers Nationwide and in Florida Juvenile Justice Schools*

	Number of Teachers in Public Schools	Number of Juvenile Justice Teachers
Professional Certificate	39,238 (80%)	507 (63%)
Temporary Certificate	1,879 (4%)	166 (21%)
Statement of Eligibility	1,269 (3%)	74 (9%)
Non-Certified	6,799 (14%)	37 (5%)
Total	**49,184 (100%)**	**784 (100%)**

* National figures are for 2000; Florida figures are for 2005.

Although the majority of juvenile justice teachers in Florida have professional certification, the percentage is not nearly as high as public school teachers. Eighty-percent of public school teachers are professionally certified, while only 63% of juvenile justice teachers have a professional certificate. As with the national figures, 84% of Florida's juvenile justice teachers hold either a temporary certificate or professional certification. Only 5% of juvenile justice teachers in Florida are not certified.

Although 98% of the teachers included in the National School and Staffing Survey appear to have at least a bachelor's degree, they may not have obtained this degree in the field in which they are teaching or may not be certified in the area in which they teach. As such, the large percentages of professionally certified teachers observed in Table 5.4-4 may be misleading as to the highly qualified status of public school teachers nationwide.

Table 5.4-5 reports the in-field and out-of-field teaching rates for both public school and juvenile justice teachers.

Table 5.4-5: In-Field/Out-of-Field Teaching in Schools Across the Nation* and in Florida's Juvenile Justice Programs (in percentages)

Core Subject Area	In-field		Out-of-field		Major or Minor in Field		Total	
	Public Schools	***Juvenile Justice***	***Public Schools***	***Juvenile Justice***	***Public Schools***	***Juvenile Justice***	***Public Schools***	***Juvenile Justice***
Math	596 (43)	70 (28)	579 (42)	181 (72)	203 (15)	NA	1,378	251
Science	2,689 (69)	63 (31)	687 (18)	141 (69)	502 (13)	NA	3,878	204
Social Studies	3,472 (73)	89 (40)	475 (11)	132 (60)	438 (10)	NA	4,385	221
English	8,321 (89)	118 (38)	542 (6)	196 (62)	504 (5)	NA	9,367	314

* National figures are for 2000; Florida figures are for 2005. Certification in science includes only those individuals who are teaching general science at the national level. NA=Not Available.

Table 5.4-5 demonstrates that math and science are two areas in which in-field teaching rates are relatively low. Forty-three percent of public school math teachers were certified in their field, while only 28% of Florida's juvenile justice teachers were certified in their field. Similar results occur with science; 69% of public school science teachers and 31% of juvenile justice teachers were certified in their field

Both English and social studies had higher rates of teaching in field for both public school and juvenile justice teachers, but Florida's juvenile justice teachers still maintained lower rates compared to the national average of public school teachers. For public schools, 80% of English teachers and 79% of social studies teachers were certified in their field. Within Florida's juvenile justice education programs, however, individuals certified in English taught only 38% of English courses, and 40% of social studies courses were taught by teachers certified in social studies.

Overall, the analysis presented in this section demonstrates that juvenile justice teachers in Florida have distinctive characteristics compared to public school averages. For instance, male juvenile justice teachers in Florida form a significant portion of the teaching population (48%) as compared to the national teacher population, which is dominated by females. Moreover, Florida juvenile justice teachers appear to be a distinct population with higher turnover rates, lower rates of certification, and lower rates of core academic teachers teaching in-field.

5.5 Directions for Future Research

The analysis presented in the previous section relies on a limited number of characteristics on which to compare Florida's juvenile justice teaching population with public school teachers nationwide. The national school and staffing survey, however, includes other measures related to teacher qualifications that were not available for Florida's juvenile justice teachers. These measures, if obtained for teachers in Florida's juvenile justice schools, may provide a more detailed comparison of the two populations. The following tables provide a summary of other teacher characteristics, including race, degrees attained, and job satisfaction, in order to highlight some of JJEEP's future research plans and data collection efforts.

Table 5.5-1 presents the racial distribution of public school teachers across the nation.

Table 5.5-1: Racial Distribution of Public School Teachers in the United States

Racial Group	Percentage of Teachers	Number of Teachers
Native American	2	1,152
Asian	3	1,383
African American/Black	6	2,901
White	88	43,748
TOTAL	**99%**	**49,184**

Note: Total percentage does not add up to 100% due to rounding. The category "Hispanic" is included within Black and White. (There are 2,196 Hispanic teachers in the sample.)

As reported in Table 5.5-1, teachers in the United States are overwhelmingly white (88%). African Americans represent the largest minority (6%) within the total population. Native Americans and Asians make up 2 % and 3% of the population, respectively. Florida juvenile justice teachers are not included in this portion of the analysis because there were no comparable demographic statistics on race. Thus, JJEEP staff will begin collecting data regarding the racial and ethnic composition of juvenile justice teachers in 2006.

Another important characteristic related to teacher qualifications is the education of the teachers. Table 5.5-2 summarizes the national trends for teacher educational levels.

Table 5.5-2: Highest Degree Attained Among Public School Teachers Nationally

Type of Degree	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Total Teachers	Total Number of Respondents
Bachelor's	48,307	98	49,184
Master's	20,879*	43	48,307
PhD	490*	1	49,184
TOTAL	**69,676**	**---**	**146,675**

*These categories are not mutually exclusive. Sample size may vary based on the number of respondents.

Nearly all (98%) of the nation's teachers have at least a bachelor's degree. Of those, 43% reported having attained a master's degree and only 1% had a doctoral degree. Of the total sample, 877 of the individuals actively teaching had either an associate's degree or less education.

In 2006, JJEEP staff will collect data pertaining to the degrees attained (and the areas in which these degrees were earned) by juvenile justice teachers in Florida. In addition to the certification levels, this may be a useful summary indicator of teacher quality in both national and Florida's juvenile justice populations.

As discussed in the literature review section, school environment and job satisfaction are important determinants of teacher quality and retention. Table 5.5-3 reports the teacher satisfaction rates for 17 items in the national school and staffing survey. These items fall under the categories of administrative, school, and student characteristics; an overall satisfaction category is also included.

Table 5.5-3: National Teacher Satisfaction: Administrative, School, and Student Characteristics

Environmental/Student Characteristics	Percentage Satisfied	Percentage Dissatisfied
ADMINISTRATIVE		
Principal's communication of expectations	87	13
Support from administrators	80	20
Adequate resources provided	78	22
Interference of other duties	33	67
Discussion of administrative practices	44	56
SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS		
Satisfaction with salary	38	63
Discipline enforcement	82	18
Shared beliefs among teacher	84	16
Staff cooperation	78	22
Class size	73	27
Job security	23	77
STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS		
Parental support	61	39
Level of disrespect toward the teacher	56	44
Physical conflicts	82	19
OVERALL SATISFACTION		
Overall job satisfaction	90	10
Would still be a teacher if given a choice	67	33
Remain in teaching	72	28

Overall job satisfaction among teachers nationwide was extremely high (90%). Moreover, 67% of respondents reported that they would still be a teacher if they were given a choice, and 72% would remain in teaching. Teachers were generally satisfied with administrative communication and support and in the school environment. Specifically, 87% were pleased with the manner in which their principal communicated his or her expectations, and almost 80% of teachers felt that their administrators provided support and adequate resources. In regard to school environment, over 80% were satisfied with the discipline enforcement and the level of physical conflict in the school.

Nationally, teachers are dissatisfied with the allocation of duties and responsibilities. Sixty-seven percent of teachers responded that additional duties interfered with their teaching. Extensive workloads and role strain were cited as main reasons for teacher attrition. The results show that 77% of teachers felt that their jobs were not secure, 44% stated that student disrespect was a problem, and 56% were displeased with the administrative decision-making process in their institutions. Sixty-three percent of teachers reported that they were discontented with their jobs, and 38% percent were dissatisfied with their salaries.

The items reported in Table 5.5-3 are based on a national sample; results that are specific to Florida juvenile justice teachers are not available. JJEEP began conducting case studies in 2004 (see chapters 8 and 9 of this annual report) and had visited nine programs by the end of 2005. Specifically, there were five visits to high-performing programs, two visits to average-performing programs, and two visits to low-performing programs. The high-performing programs were generally much larger than the average- and low-performing programs, resulting in a much larger sample of teachers from the high-performing programs.

One component of the case study method is a teacher climate survey (for a full version of the teacher survey, please see Appendix G). These surveys are designed to measure teachers' satisfaction with the school environment, resource availability, and classroom activities. Approximately 40 teachers from these nine programs completed the surveys. Answers were based on a five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Table 5.5-4 reports the teacher responses to questions similar to those in the National Schools and Staffing Survey.

Table 5.5-4: The Level of Job Satisfaction among Florida's Juvenile Justice Teachers

Survey Questions	Number of Satisfied Teachers [1]	Total Number of Teachers	Percentage Satisfied
SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT			
I feel safe at school	50	52	96
I belong at school	47	53	89
I am respected by students	51	54	94
I look forward to going to work	42	53	80
I like this school better than working at a public school[2]	22	30	79
RESOURCES			
I receive instructional materials appropriate for student's abilities	50	54	93
Education is number one	21	51	41
Teacher participation in management is encouraged	42	53	79
ADMINISTRATION			
I am respected by administrators	50	54	93
Administration provides necessary resources	49	54	91
Administrators communicate clearly	40	50	80
Administrators communicate in a timely fashion	41	54	76
My administrator is an effective leader	36	54	78

[1]The percentages represent teachers who "agree" or "strongly agree" with the questions asked.
[2]The number of respondents to this question is lower because many of the teachers had never taught in a public school.

Most teachers reported having positive opinions of their school environment. Specifically, 96% said that they "felt safe at school" and 94% said that they are "respected by students." While nationally, teachers also felt safe, the higher numbers for Florida's juvenile justice teachers may, in part, be due to the lower student-to-teacher ratios and the extra behavioral support staff in juvenile justice programs.

Over 90% of juvenile justice teachers reported that they receive instructional materials that are appropriate for their students' abilities. Teacher participation in management was encouraged, according to 79% of respondents. Less than half of the teachers thought that education was treated as a number one priority by program staff. In contrast, a high percentage of public school teachers expressed the same beliefs in regard to the school's purpose and mission (Table 5.4-9). This difference in opinion regarding the main priority of the institutions may reflect the fact that juvenile justice institutions must handle the education, treatment, and custody of their students, while public school services are generally limited to education.

Further, juvenile justice teachers were generally pleased with their administrators. Over 90% felt that they were treated with respect and were provided with necessary resources. In addition, 80% felt that their administrators communicated clearly, and 78% stated that they communicated in a timely fashion. Moreover, 78% of teachers believed that their administrator was an effective leader. A caveat to the survey is that responses are based on a sample that is over represented by high-performing programs. Presumably, teachers

in better schools respond more positively, thereby potentially skewing the data toward a more favorable portrait of juvenile justice programs in Florida.

In sum, the results show that juvenile justice programs are having difficulties recruiting and retaining and certifying their teachers. As discussed throughout this section, to gain a comprehensive assessment of the problems faced by juvenile justice programs, JJEEP plans to conduct research in the following areas. First, JJEEP will search for comparable data on other states juvenile justice education teachers. Data on juvenile justice teachers from other states will enable a comparison of Florida to other sates juvenile justice teachers in terms of retention, certification, and in-filed teaching rates. Second, all of Florida's juvenile justice teachers will be surveyed on their level of job satisfaction so that Florida data may be compared to national responses, and differences across program types may be analyzed. Third, the teacher data collection procedure is being modified such that teacher experience, degrees, race, and certification will be comparable to the data in the National School and Staffing Survey. This effort will allow for better comparisons that will help address the problems facing juvenile justice educators from a data-driven perspective. Finally, JJEEP is developing a more accurate way of tracking teacher turnover in order to assess its true magnitude.

5.6 Summary Discussion

The findings in this chapter addressed the four research questions outlined in the introduction. Do juvenile justice teachers in Florida have similar characteristics to the national public school teacher population? How are Florida's juvenile justice teachers meeting the highly qualified requirements of NCLB? Are the qualifications and retention rates of juvenile justice teachers different from public school teachers?

Some of the most important findings can be summarized as follows. First, Florida's juvenile justice teachers are a distinct population compared with public school teachers. Juvenile justice teachers differ from public school teachers regarding in-field teaching, professional certification, teaching experience, and retention. As such, future research should focus on this distinct population, their problems, and needs to inform policy.

In particular, professional certification in public schools is 17% higher than for Florida's juvenile justice teachers (80% compared to 63%). Moreover, 79% of public school teachers teach in their area of certification for English, math, science, and social studies combined, while the same is true for only 34% of juvenile justice teachers. Finally, juvenile justice teachers have a much higher turnover rate than public school teachers. Specifically, 49% of juvenile justice teachers left the juvenile justice education system, as compared to only 16% of public school teachers who left the profession within one year. Many of the juvenile justice teachers who left, may have left the juvenile justice system to teach in public schools.

In short, there is ample evidence demonstrating the different levels of qualifications between Florida's juvenile justice teachers and the national public school teacher

population. The findings presented in this chapter demonstrate that juvenile justice teachers lag behind public school teachers in terms of professional teaching certification, teaching in-field, and retention. Given these findings, it will be important for Florida to create policies addressing these deficiencies related to the recruitment and retention of highly qualified teachers in the juvenile justice education system.