

## Chapter One

# Greater Expectations, Higher Demands

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Esther Crane spent nine years as an engineer designing flight simulators for Navy pilots before she considered teaching.<sup>1</sup> She loved her job for its intellectual challenge, the collegial nature of her workplace, and the variety of tasks and responsibilities it offered. But she resigned when her first child was born because she did not think the demands of the job were compatible with raising a family. Her substantial salary had allowed Esther and her husband to build savings that would support them for several years on a single wage. However, after six years, their savings were low, prompting Esther to decide to work part-time as a substitute teacher in her children's school where she already served as a volunteer.

Gradually, Esther began to think about becoming a teacher. People had always said that she was good at explaining things, and she had enjoyed her work as a substitute. Also, teaching would make it possible for her to be home with her children after school and during vacations. But the decision was not easy. Teaching was at least one step down in status from engineering. Her father, a mechanic, was proud that Esther was an engineer and, at first, felt disappointed that she might give it up to become a teacher. He believed, she said, "Those that can, do. Those that can't, teach." Moreover, a beginning teacher's salary would be at least \$30,000 less than she could earn if she returned to work as an engineer.

Nonetheless, Esther began to investigate education programs that would lead to a teaching license. Then, in spring 1999, the

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Massachusetts Department of Education announced the Massachusetts Signing Bonus Program (MSBP), which offered outstanding candidates \$20,000 to participate in an intensive summer training institute and then teach in the state's public schools for at least four years. Not only did the state anticipate a substantial teacher shortage, but there was also convincing evidence that teaching was not attracting strong candidates. One indication was that 59 percent of prospective teachers in Massachusetts had failed the state's new teacher test (Zernike, 1998). Massachusetts legislators intended the program to recruit talented individuals who traditionally would not have considered teaching, particularly in high-need subject areas, such as math, science, or special education, and in schools serving low-income populations (Fowler, 2001, 2003).

Esther found the bonus and its selectivity appealing, but she was most attracted by the fast-track alternative preparation program that state officials created to move bonus recipients quickly into the classroom. A seven-week institute, which included student teaching in a summer school, would enable Esther to have her own classroom of students by September. Given the length and expense of traditional teacher education programs, she found this very attractive and applied. She recalled, "It got me in at least a full year, if not more, earlier than I would have [entered]."

Soon after Esther learned that she had received the bonus, she was encouraged to apply for a job working on the space shuttle, a job she would have pursued if a suitable job had been available for her husband nearby. But this did not work out, so Esther completed the summer institute for Signing Bonus Program teachers, and accepted a position teaching ninth grade math in an urban, vocational high school. Given the shortage of mathematics and science teachers, particularly in urban areas, Esther was just the sort of skilled, unconventional candidate Massachusetts reformers had hoped to recruit. With idealism and enthusiasm, she hoped to draw on her experience as an engineer to help her students enjoy learning math.

## The Demand for Teachers Grows

Esther is one of fifty new teachers we interviewed in 1999 and again in 2000 in an effort to understand the perspectives and experiences of new teachers today. As Esther and her counterparts began teaching in 1999, public educators and policymakers across the country were preparing in earnest for a predicted teacher shortage. At the start of the new century, more than 30 percent—approximately one million—of the nation's nearly three million public school teachers were over fifty years old (Young, 2003). This cohort of retiring teachers had entered the profession in the late 1960s and early 1970s, the last period of wholesale hiring by U.S. public schools. Their impending retirement meant that nearly one-half of the current teaching force would leave the classroom by 2010 (Kantrowitz & Wingert, 2000).

At the same time, increasing birth and immigration rates were rapidly expanding student enrollments, particularly in the southwestern United States. During the 1990s, Nevada's student population grew by 69 percent and Arizona's enrollments increased 37 percent (Young, 2003). In response to burgeoning student numbers, districts hastily built new schools and filled parking lots with "temporary" classroom trailers. Each time a new classroom opened to educate this growing student population, a new teacher had to be found to teach there.

In some states, class-size reductions further expanded the need for new teachers. In 1996, California passed legislation providing funds to reduce the size of primary classes (kindergarten through third grade) to twenty students or fewer. Since many primary classes across the state had forty pupils, this policy created an immediate demand for new teachers. According to state-appointed evaluators of this policy, the total number of teachers employed in California surged 38 percent within just two years (Stecher, Bohrnstedt, Kirst, McRobbie, & Williams, 2001).

Experts projected that with these demographic and policy changes an unprecedented need for new teachers would arise

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nationwide. The country's public schools would have to hire 2.2 million teachers during the first decade of the new century (Hussar, 1999). The magnitude of the demand quickly became the subject of public concern. On its cover, *Newsweek* confronted readers with the provocative challenge: "Who will teach our kids?" (Kantrowitz & Wingert, 2000). There had long been shortages of qualified teachers in particular fields (math, science, and special education) and certain types of settings (the inner-city and remote, rural areas). The shortage of special education teachers, particularly in urban and rural districts, had become especially severe. In 2000, for instance, 97.5 percent of districts in the council of the Great City Schools reported an "immediate need" for special education teachers (Fideler, Foster, & Schwartz, 2000). The projected size of the new demand would mean that even wealthier districts, which usually had their pick of candidates from an abundance of applicants, would be searching for teachers in all subjects and grades.

As news spread about the growing shortage of skilled teachers, states offered a range of inducements to lure new teachers to their schools. Maryland offered new recruits mortgage subsidies and Mississippi promised to forgive student loans. Texas education officials aggressively poached Oklahoma's teachers with offers of higher salaries and better working conditions, while simultaneously recruiting teachers in Mexico (Blair, 2000; Bradley, 2000; Kantrowitz & Wingert, 2000; Stutz, 2001). Despite this flurry of activity, schools in most parts of the country were unprepared to meet the challenge presented by the shortage. A large proportion of the retiring cohort had made teaching a lifelong career for the first time in United States history (Grant & Murray, 1999; Rury, 1989; Spencer, 2001) and, thus, decades had passed since most schools had mounted an intensive campaign to recruit and hire teachers.

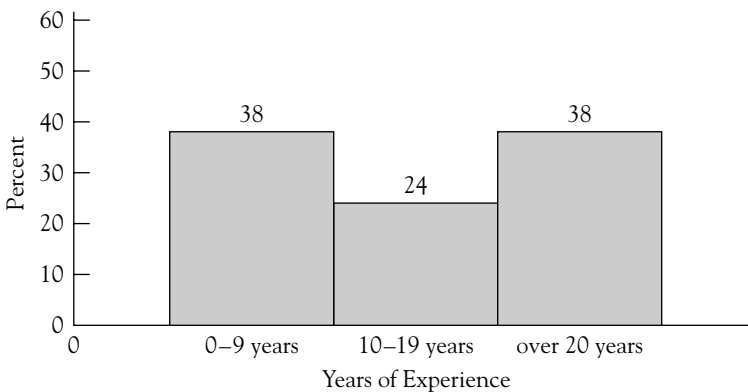
#### *The Changing Profile of the Teaching Force*

The career longevity of the cohort of teachers hired in the late 1960s and early 1970s, along with reduced demand for teachers in the 1980s due to declining student enrollments, has had a signifi-

cant effect on the distribution of teachers. As a group, the retiring cohort has moved like a bubble through the teacher workforce. From 1971 to 1983, the largest proportion of the teaching force was under the age of thirty-five. This same cohort of teachers still constituted the largest group, at ages thirty-five to forty-four, between 1983 and 1991, and again, at age forty-five and older, after 1991 (Wirt, 2000). This fact, coupled with the recent increase in new hires, causes the profile of the national teaching force today to be increasingly U-shaped, as shown in Figure 1.1, with one peak of educators about to retire, another peak beginning to teach, and a valley in between. Today's U-shaped distribution stands in direct contrast to the distribution of the teaching force in 1986 (see Figure 1.2) and in 1971 (see Figure 1.3).

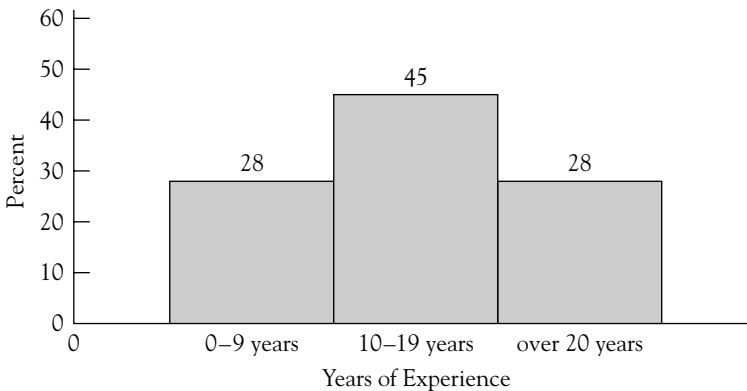
In practical terms, the valley between the two peaks in this U-shaped distribution has come to be a generation gap. For many years, the teachers who now approach retirement have had no formal responsibility for the induction of new colleagues, because so few entered and those who did usually received little attention. As a group, therefore, these veteran teachers have become accustomed to working alone and have tacitly endorsed the isolation and prized the autonomy that have typified classroom teaching for at least

**Figure 1.1. Distribution of Teachers by Years of Experience, 2001**



Source: National Education Association, *Status of the American Public School Teacher, 2000-2001*, Table 6, "Years of Full-time Teaching Experience, 1961-2001."

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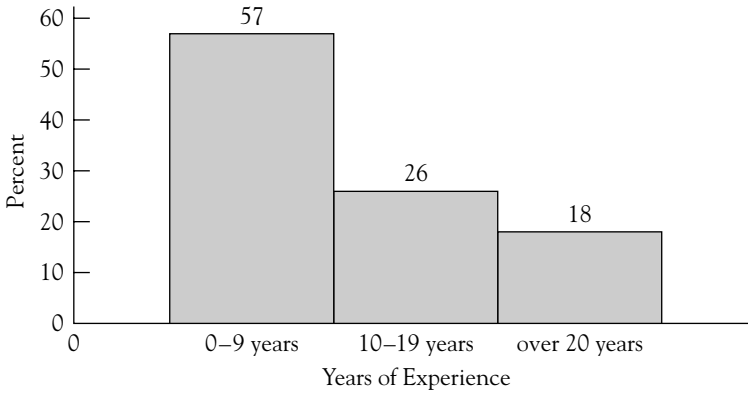
**Figure 1.2. Distribution of Teachers by Years of Experience, 1986**

Source: National Education Association, *Status of the American Public School Teacher, 2000-2001*, Table 6, "Years of Full-time Teaching Experience, 1961-2001."

twenty-five years (Johnson, 1990; Lortie, 1975). They have committed their adult working life to helping students succeed in school and to preparing them for a prosperous future. Overall, they have proved to be a conservative group on the job, focusing within their classroom on their teaching and their students, and quietly but intently resisting reforms that were intended to engage them in joint work (Evans, 1996; Little, 1990b). In the name of equity, they generally have withstood the efforts of administrators or policy-makers to make distinctions among them, such as recognizing and rewarding individuals' special skills, strengths, or contributions. As new teachers enter schools today on the other side of the generation gap, they often encounter the opposition of veteran teachers who resist reforms that would change the way veterans work.

### *Finders and Keepers: New Teachers and Their Schools*

This inevitable, steady shift in the proportions of veteran and novice teachers and its effect on public schools creates a need for research about the next generation of teachers entering schools today. Who are they and how do they compare with the experi-

**Figure 1.3 Distribution of Teachers by Years of Experience, 1971**

Source: National Education Association, *Status of the American Public School Teacher, 2000-2001*, Table 6, "Years of Full-time Teaching Experience, 1961-2001."

enced teachers they are replacing? What do they seek in teaching? How have they prepared to teach? What do they expect from their schools, and what do they find when they enter the classroom? Most important, what will it take to support and sustain them so that they and their students can succeed?

As we discuss in this book, although the next generation of teachers is more homogeneous in race and gender than the retiring generation, it is more diverse in terms of age, prior experience, preparation, expectations regarding the workplace, and conceptions of career. These new teachers are entering teaching in a context very different from the previous generation's. Individuals who consider teaching today have many more career options than members of the retiring generation. In addition, today's new teachers are encountering unprecedented demands on schools and teachers. The public now expects schools to teach all students so that they achieve high standards—rich and poor, immigrant and native-born, white and minority, special needs and mainstream—and to take on new functions beyond the traditional scope of schools' responsibility. Teachers bear the burden of society's newer, higher expectations for schools (Hargreaves, 2003).

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As Esther Crane and her counterparts in the new generation of teachers enter the profession, they find most schools, as they are currently organized, ill-prepared to help them succeed in their work. School structures and practices forged in a bygone era are no longer adequate to support either teachers' development or students' learning. They perpetuate private practice, fail to acknowledge the unique developmental needs of new teachers, and, in many cases, leave new teachers to sink or swim on their own. Yet some new teachers have the good fortune to work at schools that deliberately and thoughtfully attract and retain them. These schools are "finders *and* keepers." They provide appropriate supports for novice teachers and promise varied growth opportunities in the future as these novices gain expertise. Unfortunately, such schools are all too rare. In order to attract and retain the next generation of teachers, school leaders must first understand who the next generation of teachers are. With better insight into their early experiences and subsequent career decisions, public policymakers, education officials, and school leaders can act to support them so that they not only survive but also thrive in their schools.

### **Is Teaching a Less Attractive Career?**

First, however, schools must convince promising candidates to enter the classroom. Indeed, as schools gear up to recruit, hire, and induct a vast cohort of novices to replace many retiring—often expert—teachers, researchers report that the quality and diversity of new teachers has declined over time. Assuming that teaching quality depends on intelligence, researchers have demonstrated that the IQ scores of teachers have fallen since the early 1970s, and teaching candidates have lower SAT scores than their counterparts preparing for other professions (Henke, Choy, Geis, & Broughman, 1996; Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple, & Olsen, 1991). If these trends continue and if test scores are appropriate measures of intelligence, any success achieved in recruiting a new teaching force through traditional routes will be tempered by the fact that these entrants, as a

group, may be less capable than the veterans they replace. Although there is considerable debate over the use of SAT and IQ scores as measures of teacher quality and competence (Goldhaber, 2002), these findings arouse alarm. Why does teaching as a career today fail to attract large numbers of candidates whose caliber is beyond dispute?

School leaders are also troubled by the shortage of teachers of color. In 2003, nearly 40 percent of United States public school children were members of minority groups, compared to less than 10 percent of teachers (Snyder & Hoffman, 2003). This problem has intensified over the last decade, as the proportion of teachers of color has declined in relation to the total number of teachers. While the nation's student population becomes more and more racially diverse, the teaching force is moving in the opposite direction, becoming more racially homogeneous (Henke, Chen, & Geis, 2000; Snyder & Hoffman, 2003).

### *Addressing the Shortage*

It is important to understand that states and districts face a far greater challenge in staffing their schools than simply addressing a shortfall of newly prepared teachers. If the teacher shortage were simply a straightforward problem of recruitment, states could expand, subsidize, and promote their teacher education programs for a few years until there were enough strong recruits to cover all classrooms. Or, like Massachusetts, they could relax entry requirements and quickly license able candidates through alternative routes. However, the problem with today's teacher supply runs much deeper than that. For although teaching is worthwhile and compelling work, potential recruits today find it far less attractive than their counterparts did thirty years ago. They are put off by teaching's low pay and low status, the relentless demands of the job, and the conditions of the school as a workplace. Many people who might become fine teachers never seriously consider the profession; others who earn a license never enter the classroom; and increasing numbers who begin to teach leave after only a few years. In fact, if

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all of those who have prepared to teach did so, the projected shortage would never materialize.

Until the mid-1960s, teaching was the primary career option for large numbers of well-educated women and people of color, for whom other professions were formally or informally off limits. That is no longer true. Comparable candidates today also are actively recruited for other careers, many of them more attractive than teaching. The earnings gap between teachers and others who hold a bachelor's degree is even larger than many people realize and it widened in the late 1990s (Nelson & Drown, 2003). In 1998, teachers between the ages of twenty-two and twenty-eight earned \$7,894 less than similarly aged graduates with bachelor's degrees; this gap was three times larger for teachers aged forty-four to fifty (Wilson, 2000). Moreover, low pay in this country is linked to low status. Although individual teachers may be revered and remembered fondly by their students, the U.S. public continues to have little respect for teaching as a profession.

Working conditions further detract from the appeal of teaching (Johnson, 1990). Critics often belittle teachers for their secure salaries, short workdays, and long summer vacations, but anyone familiar with schools knows that stories about the easy job of teaching are sheer fiction. Good teaching is demanding and exhausting work, even in the best of workplaces. A teacher is virtually always "on," hour after hour, day after day, week after week. A typical school day reliably brings constant, though often unpredictable, demands from students, administrators, and parents. Even the most experienced teacher simply cannot rely on acquired expertise or dare to teach on automatic pilot, because each group of students presents unique instructional dilemmas and opportunities. The best lesson plan still requires continuous adjustment and improvisation. The school day rarely ends at 3:00 for a teacher, who must grade papers, plan the next day's classes, and gather resources to ensure that lessons go smoothly. And that is under the best of conditions.

In the worst of conditions, school facilities are dilapidated and outmoded, with leaky roofs, broken blackboards, and substandard

wiring. Teachers often lack the basic equipment needed to teach their subjects well. Science teachers have no Bunsen burners or microscopes. History teachers struggle with decades-old textbooks and lack current maps. Elementary school teachers have but one computer for over thirty students. With budget cuts, there are recurrent shortages of basic supplies—paper, crayons, pencils, paper clips, and rulers—which teachers discover they must purchase with their own money if they want their teaching to go well. On average, a first-year elementary school teacher spends \$701 of her own money on classroom materials (Quality Education Data, 2002). The school's photocopy machine is routinely broken. Few classrooms have working phones, and clocks throughout the building, if they run at all, seldom show the same time. With these conditions and the media's repeated stories about unmotivated and rude students, dangerous corridors, and unreasonable administrators, it is no wonder that a career in teaching seems unattractive, particularly to candidates who could as easily choose another line of work.

### ***Teacher Attrition: The Undertow***

Recently, it has become clear that the attrition of teachers in the early years of their career severely exacerbates the challenge of staffing schools today. Anticipating the demand for new teachers, states and districts initially focused their money and efforts on recruitment, operating on the assumption that once hired, teachers would stay for a lifetime. Given the retention rates of teachers hired in the 1960s and 1970s, this was a reasonable assumption (Huberman, 1993). However, as John Merrow pointed out in 1999, such expectations were unfounded: "The teaching pool keeps losing water because no one is paying attention to the leak. That is, we're misdiagnosing the problem as 'recruitment' when it's really retention" (1999, p. 64).

The increasing rate of attrition among novice teachers today constitutes a steady undertow in any progress that states, districts, and schools make in dealing with their staffing demands. With every new report, the statistics on teacher attrition are more alarming.

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Nationally, approximately 30 percent of new teachers leave teaching within three years, and 40 to 50 percent leave within five years (Ingersoll, 2002; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

However, it is not enough to monitor the numbers of teachers who leave the profession. For as educational researcher Richard Ingersoll has documented, there are also large numbers of teachers each year who are dissatisfied with their school and transfer to another. Ingersoll and fellow researcher Thomas Smith report that nationally 15 percent of new teachers leave the field within the first year while another 15 percent change schools. A typical school annually would lose 30 percent of its newly hired staff, thus creating continuous disruption and discontinuity (Smith & Ingersoll, 2003). From the perspective of the individual school, it matters little whether a teacher leaves teaching altogether or transfers out, since the school still loses that teacher's knowledge of the students, curriculum, and community.

This is especially important, given compelling evidence that attrition and transfer most severely affect schools located in low-income urban and rural communities, where students arguably deserve the best teachers and the most continuity in their schooling. A considerable number of low-performing, low-income schools lose a high proportion of their first-year teachers each year and, as a result, they perpetually must recruit and hire. Given the cost of turnover, which is estimated to be 20 percent of the leaving teacher's salary (Benner, 2000), the schools that can least afford such expense are paying the highest price in the rush to keep up with the "revolving door" of attrition—hiring new, and possibly the least qualified, teachers in August only to lose them again by June (Ingersoll, 2001).

### **Inequities in the Competition for Qualified Teachers**

In the competition for qualified teachers, some schools and districts get more than their share, while others go wanting. When the school year opens, most unfilled positions are in rural and urban schools serving low-income students. However, since children cannot be left

untended, administrators eventually find an adult to cover every classroom, although there is often no assurance that this adult will be a competent or caring teacher. Large disparities in teacher qualifications already exist among urban, rural, and suburban schools and between schools serving low-income and high-income students (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2001; Haycock, 2000; Olson, 2003). As schools and districts compete for able new teachers, there is the danger that these disparities will become even greater.

### ***A Preview of the Teacher Shortage***

California provides the rest of the nation with a preview of how inequitably a shortage might play out. In the early years of the state's class-size reduction initiative, the percentage of primary grade teachers working without full credentials increased from 1.8 percent in 1995–1996 to 12.5 percent in 1997–1998. Simultaneously, a teacher credential gap opened between schools serving low-income and high-income student populations. In 1995–1996, such schools had similar proportions—under 4 percent—of uncredentialed teachers. By 1998–1999, 21.2 percent of the teachers at schools with a high concentration (more than 30 percent) of low-income students lacked full credentials, compared to only 4.3 percent of teachers in schools serving few low-income children (less than 7.5 percent). This gap persisted through at least 2001 (Bohrnstedt & Stecher, 2002). In 2002, voters in Florida—where student enrollments rose 31 percent in the 1990s (Young, 2003)—approved a mandatory reduction in class size (Johnston, 2002), which, if fully implemented, will almost certainly lead to similar shortages and dysfunction.

### ***The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001***

In an effort to address disparities in teacher quality such as those experienced in California, the federal government passed the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), requiring that all teachers

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employed by local school districts be “highly qualified” by 2005–2006. Before the law, districts that could not find fully licensed teachers routinely granted emergency credentials to adults willing to staff classrooms on a temporary basis and, thus, hard-to-staff schools could cope with growing demand. However, over time, many such emergency placements achieved *de facto* permanence. Moreover, as the California example shows, these unlicensed teachers were concentrated in high-poverty schools and districts, once again subjecting low-income students to unprepared teachers (Olson, 2000). For a time, it seemed that traditionally prepared and certified teachers would be in great demand when districts began to comply with the law. However, controversy about the definition of “highly qualified” ensued and, in April 2003, federal education officials urged state education agencies to adopt the loosest interpretation of the law, making it possible in some states for prospective teachers to enter the classroom with no preservice training (Finn, 2003).

It is impossible to predict whether a relaxed definition of “highly qualified” will attract strong, new candidates to teaching, as some argue. It seems clear, however, that if the law is enforced it will prevent public schools from hiring teachers on emergency credentials, who are often the least able or least prepared candidates. It is important to recognize, however, that excluding this group of teachers will both restrict a supply of teachers that many schools have relied on and create an even greater demand for new teachers as positions previously held by emergency credentialed teachers open up.

### ***Conditions for a Perfect Storm***

There is a convergence, then, of several factors that increase the demand for new teachers—massive retirements by veteran teachers, enrollment growth, class-size reductions, the requirements of NCLB, potential teachers’ decisions not to pursue a career in teaching, and the attrition and transfer of many new recruits. Together, they create the conditions for a “perfect storm” in education, a storm in which valuable teaching expertise is lost and never re-

placed, schools suffer repeated disruption as new teachers come and go, and low-income schools are further undermined by their inability to attract and retain strong teachers. Such a storm might severely weaken the quality of our nation's schools and compromise the future of our nation's students. Its impact cannot be precisely predicted and, in fact, it might change course or seem to dissipate in the wake of state budget cuts or amended licensing regulations. Its effects will differ from state to state and across regions of the country.<sup>2</sup> However, if this turbulence proceeds on course without careful monitoring and response by those in policy and practice, it could well have enormous costs for students and enduring consequences for society. When it subsides there will be a changed teaching force in its wake. Who will teach, how long they will teach, and how well they will teach depend on choices made today.

### Research Methods

In an effort to understand the motivations, priorities, and experiences of the new generation of teachers today, we began a study in 1999 of fifty first- and second-year Massachusetts teachers who had entered teaching via various paths. Based on the recommendations of teacher education program directors, we selected new teachers who had participated in traditional teacher education programs at either undergraduate or graduate levels in public and private institutions. We also selected individuals from the first group of participants in the Massachusetts Signing Bonus Program, which provided recipients with a fast-track alternative certification program sponsored by the state. Finally, we solicited the participation of new teachers in charter schools, who at that time were not required to hold state licenses. As we selected participants, we sought to ensure that our sample would include variation by race, gender, ethnicity, and career stage.

We interviewed these teachers twice, once during the 1999–2000 school year and again after the 2000–2001 school year. In the summers of 2002 and 2003, we sent them a brief survey to track

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their career decisions year to year. In our interviews, we sought to understand why they had chosen to teach, how they prepared, what their early experiences were, and what their career plans were. We have explored these teachers' experiences from an organizational perspective, first trying to understand their needs and what they encountered and then drawing implications for how best to organize schools so that teachers such as these can succeed and thrive in their work. The methodology for this study and for additional, supporting studies that we draw upon here is explained more fully in Appendices A and B.

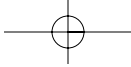
### **The Plan of This Book**

The following chapters examine the experiences of ten new teachers, and through this subgroup, the experiences of the larger group of fifty in our study. Chapter Two introduces these featured teachers and explores the characteristics of the next generation of teachers, a cohort that is far more diverse in experience, preparation, and career plans than the retiring generation. This diversity has implications for schools and the support they can offer new teachers. Chapter Three considers the role of pay and incentives in individuals' decisions to enter and stay in teaching. It examines the costs of teaching and reveals why some teachers cannot afford to teach. It explains how individuals who are initially attracted by the intrinsic rewards of teaching may become dissatisfied with pay when they do not succeed in the classroom. Chapter Four looks at the role that students play in teachers' efforts to succeed in their work. It is students who simultaneously provide the primary motivation for teachers' work and introduce the greatest source of uncertainty. This chapter considers the challenge teachers face when their students' lives are very different from their own. It explains how well-organized and supportive schools enable teachers to succeed with a wide range of students. However, as Chapter Five shows, traditional school organizations promote isolated rather than interdependent work among teachers and thus compromise teachers'

chance of success with their students. This chapter explains how schools and school leaders can provide the infrastructure and integrated work experience that new teachers need.

In the next two chapters, we closely examine two crucial aspects of teachers' experience in their schools—the curriculum and their work with colleagues. Chapter Six explains how curriculum has taken on new importance in this age of standards and assessment. It reveals how only a few teachers reported having adequate guidance about what to teach and how to teach. Many novice teachers reported being uncertain and anxious, spending long hours translating state curriculum frameworks into lessons and creating teaching materials from scratch. Chapter Seven considers the professional culture that new teachers encounter in their school—the mix of norms, values, and patterns of practice among their colleagues. It shows how new teachers who have rich and ongoing interactions with teachers of all experience levels report greater success and satisfaction with their work.

The next three chapters look toward new and promising practices of hiring, induction, and career development, all approaches that can improve recruitment and retention. Chapter Eight examines the process of hiring, both what it is and what it might be. It explains how the hiring experiences of most of our new teachers gave them little information or insight into the school where they would teach, and it highlights certain schools where hiring provided for a rich exchange of information, leading to a good match between prospective teachers and their school. Chapter Nine focuses on the process of teacher induction. Because our study began in 1999, before most schools began to offer formal induction programs, few teachers in our study experienced a deliberate and sustained system of induction. However, we have documented the induction programs of three additional schools, each of which goes well beyond one-on-one mentoring and helps new teachers establish themselves at their new school. Chapter Ten discusses the professional growth that teachers sought and found, as well as the opportunities they envisioned for their future as teachers. Traditionally, teachers have confined their



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vision of professional growth to a continuous refinement of classroom practice. Our research shows, however, that the next generation of teachers seeks a range of roles, both within the classroom and outside, by which to exercise broad influence. Finally, Chapter Eleven discusses the implications of this research for policymakers and practitioners, including new teachers themselves.

