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ABSTRACT

A basic assumption about school enrollment is that classrooms are stable over the school year. Patterns of student mobility, teacher strategies for student orientation, teacher perceptions of mobile students, the effects of student mobility on principals' decision making, and the relationship between principals' decisions and student population type are described in this paper. Eight Sacramento area schools serving four different student populations--agricultural, military, urban, and stable--were studied. Findings indicate that a significant number of students move frequently enough to impact students, teachers, and schools. Unlike research on migrant students, little acknowledgment of student mobility and its effect on the educational system exists in current literature. Problems related to student mobility are inconsistent curricula, difficulty of student needs assessment, and the primary assignment of responsibility to teachers. Unlike migrant student research, little acknowledgment of student mobility and its effect on the educational system exists. Recommendations are made concerning patterns of student mobility, classroom strategies, teacher perceptions, and effects of student mobility on principals' decision making. Figures and tables highlight the research results. An extensive bibliography and appendices containing the survey and interview instruments are included. (LMI)

NEW PERSPECTIVES ON STUDENT MOBILITY

by
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in collaboration with

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Office of Curriculum and Instructional Services

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Executive Summary

Chapter 1: New Perspectives on Student Mobility

- 19% of school-aged children move during a single year, and that number is as high as 23% for primary grade children.
- Not all moves made by students occur at convenient points in the academic year.
- Migrant students have been studied for 20 years. Their education cannot be provided easily at a single school site within a standard academic calendar. Solutions to problems associated with such movement have been offered: a computerized system to provide an efficient exchange of student records; extra staff, teachers and aides to supplement the regular program when migrant students are in attendance; instructional programs provided over the summer.
- With the exception of migrant students, there are no special educational services or school programs for students who move. The major responsibility for working with these students rests with teachers.
- Teachers have the challenge of integrating newcomers into established classes. New students need to become part of a class that already has built a history, including a common understanding of rules and routines and a shared knowledge base. Complicating this is the fact that a newcomer's educational history may not match that of the class.
- Student mobility may challenge principals also. Because principal decisions help to establish a context for classroom instruction, it is important to understand how principals consider student mobility in their decision making.
- The research reported here was designed to address six questions:

  1. What mobility patterns describe the enrollment and withdrawal of students from elementary schools?
  2. What strategies do teachers use to integrate new students into a class so that (a) the student understands classroom rules and routines and (b) the student's instructional needs are being met?
  3. How do strategies for orienting new students to class rules and curricula compare with those used to orient a class of students at the beginning of the year?
  4. What are teacher perceptions of working with students who move?
  5. How is principal decisionmaking influenced by student mobility?
  6. Are teacher strategies, perceptions and principal decisions related to the type of student population served?

Chapter 2: Study Populations and Research Methods

- The teachers and principals from eight schools in the greater Sacramento, CA area took part in this study.

- The schools served four different student populations or mobility types that were defined according to the reason for the move:

  1. Agricultural, in which moves are determined by harvest seasons;

  2. Military, in which moves are determined by the personnel needs of a large organization;

  3. Urban, in which moves often are determined by changes in family status and employment; and

  4. Stable, a contrast population in which moves are infrequent.

- The study was designed to maximize the opportunity to observe differences in mobility patterns. Schools were selected to meet specific criteria established for the study. Four types of data were gathered to address the research questions.

  1. Student enrollment and withdrawal information was collected. The dates of enrollment and withdrawal were obtained for every student who attended a study school during the study year.

  2. A sample of four teachers in each school was interviewed twice during the study year. The fall interview was used to establish teachers' instructional and organizational styles. The spring interview was used to discover how teachers worked with students who enrolled during the school year.

  3. The full faculty of each school was surveyed by questionnaire to examine general trends in teacher perceptions of student mobility.

  4. Principals were interviewed to obtain information about school level responses to students moving into and out of the school.

Chapter 3: Characteristics of Student Mobility in Four Types of Schools

Mobility Characteristics of Student Populations

- The percentage of students who moved during the study year varied across schools and differed by mobility type. In one urban school, 50% of the students moved during the study year, and in the other about 40%. In one agricultural school 50% of the students moved and in the other 22% moved. In each military school about one-third of the student population moved during the study year. In stable schools 25% and 17% of the population moved.

- Mobility characteristics of the student populations distinguished the four mobility types. As anticipated, schools selected because they served stable communities had lower percentages of students move during the study year than other schools.

- Enrollment changes that occurred in the urban and stable populations were more likely to be late enrollments than they were to be early withdrawals of students who had started at the school at the beginning of the year.

- Only in agricultural communities did a large percentage of students re-enroll after withdrawing from the school during the study year.

- Within each pair of schools, the schools serving stable, military, and urban communities displayed distributions of enrollment duration similar to each other. In stable communities school enrollments were for longer periods of time, as expected, and in urban communities there were more short-term enrollments.

- The schools that served agricultural populations were less similar to each other than schools in the other pairs. The percentage of mobile students was higher and typical lengths of enrollment shorter at one school. There are reasons for these differences.

Patterns in Enrollment Change Over Time.

- Except in schools serving stable communities, teacher descriptions of mobility generally matched the patterns documented by enrollment data.

- Teachers in all types of schools reported that enrollment changes occurred near holiday vacation time, a trend confirmed by the plots of enrollment data.

- There were distinct patters to enrollment change in schools serving agricultural communities. The large numbers of fall withdrawals and spring enrollments were a direct result of the harvest and planting cycles in the fields surrounding the schools. To a lesser degree, these schools experienced another cluster of withdrawals later in the fall and another cluster of new enrollments in January.

- Like the teachers there, principals in agricultural schools described a pattern of enrollment, withdrawal, and re-enrollment for students whose families moved with the farming seasons. In military and urban schools, principals were less clear about the patterns of mobility in their schools, but were very knowledgeable about the events that caused them. In both types of schools, very few students remained throughout their elementary years. No students re-enrolled in military schools; though some did re-enroll in urban schools, the principals were unable to provide exact figures.

Teacher Comparisons Among Mobility Patterns

- Teachers in military, urban, and stable communities agreed that a pattern of individualistic moves, in which students enroll and withdraw one at a time during the academic year, best described the mobility in their classes. To a lesser extent they also agreed that it described the pattern that was most disruptive to classrooms.

- Teachers from all schools agreed that the individualistic pattern would be most disruptive to teachers' instructional planning.

- Teachers reported a discrepancy between their experiences and their training for working with students who move. Teachers in all types of schools reported that their training prepared them to teach in classes where moves occurred only between semesters, a pattern that they believed was not disruptive, or that they were trained to teach in classes where moves were individualistic. Their reports did not differ across the four types of populations.

Chapter 4: Teaching Mobile Student Populations

Instructional Planning

- No more than half the teachers interviewed from military and urban schools considered student mobility in their planning. As anticipated, student mobility was not a major factor in instructional planning for teachers in stable schools.

- Teachers reported that they could not plan for mobility because student movement was too unpredictable and because they could not know in advance the abilities and needs of the individuals who would arrive.

- Teachers in agricultural schools considered the timing of student moves and the movers' levels of English language skill when they planned instruction. They delayed some topics until the migrant students returned to their classes, and they scheduled some small-class activities for the intervals when migrant students were away.

- Teachers in migrant, military, and urban schools preferred teaching methods that facilitated student interactions and the movement of the whole class, as a group, through the curriculum. They recommended organizing students into mixed-ability groups, all of which worked on a single class assignment, and they recommended supporting newcomers through peer tutoring and cooperative group arrangements.

Assessing Instructional Needs of Newcomers

- It was rare for teachers to receive information about new students before the students joined their classes. Not only did teachers fail to receive information about newcomers before students arrived, but it was rare for teachers to receive advance notice of new students.

- The primary source of information that teachers had about new students' knowledge, skills, and previous experiences were the students themselves.

- Teachers typically assessed how well a new student would fit into the class curriculum by examining a student's work on current assignments. They also obtained information by asking students directly to describe their skills and previous education.

- It was rare for teachers to receive or seek information from newcomers' parents, guardians or previous teachers. Information provided in students' official files, the cumulative records, arrived too late to aid placement decisions.

- A substantial percentage of teachers reported that they would adapt their strategies for teaching newcomers if they had information about the student's previous curriculum. However, this information generally was not available to them and they did not seek it.

- Teachers estimated that they needed a week on average to learn about a new student's instructional needs. There was less agreement among teachers on the amount of time needed to understand the needs of a class of students at the start of the year. On average, they estimated two weeks, but their estimates ranged widely.

Orienting New Students To Classroom Processes.

- All study teachers taught classroom rules and routines to students at the start of the school year; most teachers also introduced classes to math and reading curricula early in the year.
- Teachers delegated to other students the responsibility of teaching newcomers the classroom rules and routines.
- In many classes teachers did not orient newcomers to curricula.

Monitoring the Progress of Integration

- Nearly all teachers looked to see if newcomers were making friends as a clue to whether they were making the transition to their new classes. Teachers also looked at student emotions and whether they were successful academically.
- Teachers said that a new student's personality was a primary factor affecting the amount of time it took for the student to become part of a new class.

Teacher Recommendations

- About one-third of the teachers would recommend to school administrators that more and better information about the new students who enter their classes be provided to them. Teachers suggested a variety of methods to convey this information.
- Teachers also made suggestions for program and staff support.

Chapter 5: Teacher Perceptions of Student Mobility

- The analyses of teacher (N=166) responses to a questionnaire survey indicated that it was possible to measure teacher perceptions of student mobility, that teachers differed in their perceptions, and that those differences related to the type of mobile population they taught. Further, findings from the survey questionnaire generally were consistent with information provided in teacher interviews.
- Factor analyses of responses supported seven opinion scales. Four scales concern teachers' opinions about their work with students who move: satisfaction with this work, benefits of working with mobile populations, responsibility for students at their school, and the importance of the educational history of students. Three scales centered on school characteristics: the importance of student mobility as an issue in the school, administrative supports for teaching, and parent support for teaching students who move.
- As expected, student mobility was not an issue for teachers in stable schools. Student mobility was important to teachers in urban schools, who also reported the least amount of benefit from and satisfaction in working with students who move.
- The opinions of teachers in urban schools may be due to a perceived or actual lack of support for their work. Teachers in military schools reported high levels of parent support, and teachers in agricultural schools high levels of administrative support. Teachers in urban schools reported lower levels of support from both parents and school administration.

- There was a clear limit to teacher responsibility for students in transition between classes that related to school boundaries. Teachers reported significantly less responsibility for students who transferred out of their classes to move to other schools than for students who moved to other classes in the same school. They reported significantly less responsibility for learning about the instructional experiences of new students if the students transferred into their classes from other schools as opposed to transferring from other classes in the same school.

Chapter 6: School Level Responses to Student Mobility

Student Mobility and the Principal's Job

- Seven of the eight principals agreed that student mobility did affect their jobs. Even in stable schools, principals said student mobility would make their jobs more difficult.

- Principals from all four types of schools agreed that there were three areas in which student mobility would make the job of principal more difficult: extra burdens in clerical and administrative work, extra effort in getting to know students, and additional time required in getting to know new families. Principals in urban schools described the added task of coordinating the services provided by outside social and welfare agencies.

- Principals in stable schools said that newcomers brought valuable experiences to the school. Principals in agricultural and military schools said that moving created problems for movers related to a lack of continuity in their education. Both principals of urban schools agreed that student mobility was disruptive in classrooms for movers and nonmovers alike, focussing teacher attention toward newcomers for a day or two while stable students are put on hold.

Student Mobility and Principal Decisionmaking

- Student mobility did influence the planning decisions principals made, and there were differences among principals about how that factor affected their decisions

- Budget decisions were problematic for principals in schools with lots of student mobility because they were often made far in advance of actual enrollment. Adequate staffing to the number of students served in highly mobile schools was difficult because class sizes fluctuated during the year and students who left were not always replaced by students at the same grade level. Shortages of classroom materials often occurred in schools that over the course of a year served more students than there were seats. Principals in military and urban schools made changes to the school calendar as a result of mobility, and principals in agricultural schools were creative in the way they used space.

- Some principals solved planning problems at a school level through educational program choices or a flexible attitude toward space. Other principals determined that the best place to solve problems related to student mobility was in the classroom.

Instructional Leadership

- Student mobility did not affect a principal's curricular decisions.

- Student mobility did affect class assignment processes, and hence the makeup of classrooms.

- Typically, principals in schools with more mobility used more avenues to communicate information to both students and parents than did stable schools.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Recommendations

- A basic assumption of most research on classroom instruction and management is that classrooms are stable over the school year. This assumption of stability is inappropriate for many schools. The magnitude of student movement documented in this study, and its potential impact on students, teachers, classrooms, and schools argue that student mobility deserves more attention from educators and policymakers alike.

Selected Recommendations

- School level personnel should examine and graph the mobility patterns of their schools over the school year. This documentation would serve several purposes.

- Class size, or the maximum number of students to be enrolled in a classroom at a single point in time, is not a useful figure to indicate a teacher's workload during the year in schools with high levels of student mobility. A more realistic figure would be the number of students who pass through the classroom in a given year.

- Teacher training programs should examine the skills needed by teachers in classrooms with high levels of student mobility. Specifically, organizational and diagnostic skills are described by teachers and principals alike as essential.

- Educators could make a priority of developing a common language about learning that would be used by students and teachers alike. Teachers rely on students to explain what they know and what type of curriculum they have studied. A shared, precise language would help students convey this information to teachers.

- Policymakers may need to address the question of where the responsibility for a comprehensive view of a child's education lies. The federal government has assumed that responsibility for migrant students only.

- There appears to be less support for teachers who work with the least predictable and highest amount of student mobility. A review of migrant education programs may offer urban educators methods to support teachers who work with urban students.

- Districts that have some schools with highly mobile student populations might consider a different formula for allocating resources in advance of student enrollments. That allocation might be based on the number of students served by a school in a single year, or a time trend showing how enrollments change, rather than the average daily attendance.

- In regions where students typically move from one school to another within a well defined, geographic area it might be useful for a single authority to coordinate administrative and curricular policies. For instance, a county office of education could facilitate the curricular alignment between districts that share many students.

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Chapter 1: New Perspectives on Student Mobility

A conventional image of schooling is one of a system serving a stable group of students who begin school in the fall, study with their classmates until June, and return to their schools following a summer vacation. However, school populations are dynamic, continually changing as new students enroll and others withdraw. Nationwide, 19% of school-aged children move in a single year. Younger children are even more mobile with 23% of the primary-grade children relocating each year (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1987).

Not all of these moves occur at convenient periods in the academic year, such as over the semester or summer breaks, and their timing depends in part on the reasons for the move. Seasonal jobs require employees to move their families when schools are in session. Migrant farm workers come to mind immediately, but fishing, timber, tourism, and construction are also seasonal industries, and many people who engage in this work move themselves and their families in accordance with their work schedules. Job and military transfers require families to relocate at times convenient to the employer but not necessarily to the family. Finally, changes within the family which can occur at any time of the year, such as divorce and financial instability, may result in children relocating to new homes and schools.

For more than 20 years educators have recognized that certain relocations that occur during the academic year can disrupt schooling and the education of the children who move (e.g., Nance, 1961). These disruptions, and methods designed to reduce their impact, have been studied almost exclusively for migrant students, the children of workers in the migrant agricultural and fishing industries.

Migrant students' education cannot be provided easily in a manner consistent with the conventional image of schooling -- at a single school site within a standard academic calendar. These students move across school boundaries in accordance with a seasonal calendar; about half of them change schools at least once during an academic year (Cameron, 1981; Office of the Inspector General, 1987). Because school changes often mean changed educational requirements, behavioral expectations, and curricula, migration can disrupt students' education. In a national study of migrant education programs, Trotter (1988) learned how differences between schools can affect students:

> Many migrant children feel like ping pong balls as they are bounced from one curriculum to another, often going up or down a grade by taking a different standardized test. Migrant children, since the timing of subjects differs from school district to school district, often get half a subject every time they change schools. (p. 9)

Special programs have been designed to aid migrant students in their transitions between schools (See Exotech Systems, Inc., 1974; Harrington, 1987; Johnson, 1987; Marks, 1987). As one example, the Office of Migrant Education established a computerized system to provide rapid exchange of student records from one school to the next. This system was needed because the students' cumulative files, the primary source of information about a student's education, typically are exchanged by school through the mail and arrive too late to be used by teachers for assessment and placement (cf., Applied Systems Institute, 1988). Second, schools that serve large numbers of migrant students often hire extra staff, teachers and aides to supplement the regular program when migrant students are in attendance. A wide variety of such programs exist; in some the extra staff work in the regular curriculum teamed with the classroom teacher, while in others they offer separate instruction. Additionally, in some locations, instructional programs are provided between June and September.

The special programs and services provided to migrant students are supported by federal funds set aside by Congress under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. With the exception of specifically identified migrants, students who move do not receive special educational services routinely, nor do most schools have in place programs to aid mobile students (Bayer, 1982; Cornille, Bayer & Smith, 1983).

In the absence of school programs, the major responsibility for working with children who move rests in the classroom with the teacher. The primary focus of the study reported here is on teachers' methods for assisting students in transition between schools. Additionally, the study examines the nature of student mobility in four types of schools, teacher perceptions of their work with mobile students, and principal strategies for serving a mobile student population.

A Classroom Perspective

Teachers who work with mobile students have the challenge of integrating newcomers into established classes. New students need to become part of a class that already has built a history, including a sense of purpose, a common understanding of the rules and routines that govern activities, and a shared knowledge base acquired from previous instruction and required for subsequent learning. The challenge is complicated because new students bring educational histories and a knowledge of subject matter that do not match the shared experiences of the classes they enter. Moreover, integrating new students needs to be accomplished in ways that maintain continuity in learning for both the newcomer and the class.

Three things must be accomplished before successful integration of a new student into a class can occur. The newcomer must learn the behavior accepted and expected in class, as well as the expectations for learning. The newcomer's instructional needs must be identified and met. In addition to learning needs that existed before the student moved, these instructional needs include those resulting from the mismatch between curricula used at the two schools and any instruction the student may have missed due to the the move. It is also necessary for newcomers to adapt socially, but social integration is outside the scope of the present study.

Research that examines how teachers communicate their behavioral expectations to a class, how they orient the class to the curriculum, and how they assess learning needs, has examined the teaching of stable classes. Although there is a substantial empirical literature that describes the classroom instructional and managerial processes employed by more effective teachers (e.g., Brophy & Good, 1986; Doyle, 1986), this literature treats student mobility as a problem of missing data or sample attrition rather than as a managerial and instructional challenge to teachers that deserves examination. As a result, the recommendations derived from this literature may have limited value in classrooms with high levels of student mobility. For example, it is well documented that more effective teachers establish a system of rules, expectations, and routines during the first few weeks of school (e.g., Evertson, Emmer, Clements, Sanford, & Worsham, 1984). What is not known is how they maintain those systems throughout a school year when many students in attendance during the critical first weeks leave and others later enroll.

Fitting a new student into an ongoing class presents a challenge to teachers as they bring the newcomer up to speed without losing momentum for the rest of the class. Balancing the competing needs of the newcomer and the class requires teachers to make choices about the time they will spend with the newcomer, the instructional methods to employ and what changes they will make if the newcomer does not make the transition easily. The choices teachers make about how they will work with newcomers may vary with the amount and pattern of student mobility in their classes. For instance, teachers who are able to predict student movement throughout the year might organize students in such a way that the change will cause minimal disruption to the part of the class that remains or delay teaching a particular topic until the change occurs. Preparation could also include class assignments that would allow the teacher time to work individually with new students so as to ease their transition into the class. Teachers who experience one or two new students per year may use different methods from teachers who experience one or two new students each month.

A School Perspective

The primary focus of this study is on how teachers respond to student mobility. However, teachers do not operate in a vacuum. Classroom practices can be influenced by actions taken at a school level. These actions could affect instructional and management systems in the classroom and the integration of new students. School level decisions establish the context or boundaries for classroom instructional and management systems. Since principals are responsible for decisions made at the school level, and for the day-to-day operation of the schools, it is important to find out how mobility affects the choices principals made.

The principal's role in the school is to initiate school level policies, instructional and administrative, and to implement district and state level policies. An example of how principal decisionmaking can influence the classroom is provided by the assignment of students to classes. New students do not enroll in classrooms directly. They enroll in schools and are assigned by the front office to classes. Principals can choose from a variety of methods a process for assigning students to classes (Monk, 1987), and the assignment method will affect the class composition (Beckerman and Good, 1981) and thus how classes are organized by teachers for instruction (Barr and Dreeben, 1983).

The manner in which principals exercise their decisionmaking authority over teachers and students varies. First, principals directly control the allocation of resources available within the school. These resources can be physical, such as classroom space and location, or material, such as enrichment programs and classroom aides. Second, principals more subtly control the environment for students and teachers through decisions they make in such areas as daily, weekly and annual schedules, allocation of students to classrooms, and the articulation of school curricula across classroom boundaries (Firestone & Wilson, 1985). Least tangibly, principals affect school climate in the ways that they develop attitudes and skills in teachers, foster expectations for achievement and represent the school in the community.

The decisions principals make about how best to exercise authority -- the strategies they use to achieve particular goals -- are not understood, particularly as there appears to be no single style of leadership that would assure educational excellence (Brophy and Good, 1986; Hall, Hord, Huling, Rutherford & Stiegelbauer, 1983). Reviews of literature that suggest principals are crucial to school effectiveness, particularly in the areas of school climate, curricula and instruction, provide little description of how principal actions differ in various settings (Bridges, 1982; Brophy & Good, 1986). Yet those decisions are likely to affect classrooms dramatically, as the example of assigning students to classes demonstrates. The decision rules that determine where a new student will be placed can filter or alter the effects on classrooms of the school's mobility pattern. Further, the timing of the placement and the steps the school might take toward integrating the new student into a classroom are apt to be important to teachers, and would be weighed in the strategies teachers might employ.

The particular needs of a school population can affect the principal's decisions as well. In their case studies, Dwyer, Lee, Rowan and Bossert (1982) imply that institutional context both limits and provides opportunities for principals to react differently to the same issue. A model of the principal's role in instructional management shows the multitude of contextual factors that affect principal decisionmaking on a daily basis, including student transiency (Barnett, 1985; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982). However, little is known about how those factors influence the decisions principals make.

Research Questions

The research reported here was designed to address six research questions:

1. What mobility patterns describe the enrollment and withdrawal of students from elementary schools?

2. What strategies do teachers use to integrate new students into a class so that (a) the student understands classroom rules and routines and (b) the student's instructional needs are being met?

3. How do strategies for orienting new students to class rules and curricula compare with those used to orient a class of students at the beginning of the school year?

4. What are teacher perceptions of working with students who move?

5. How does student mobility affect the decisions typically made by principals?

6. Are teacher strategies, perceptions and principal decisions related to the type of student population served?

Chapter 2 discusses the research design, samples and methods of data collection. Chapter 3 describes the student mobility that occurred in the study schools during the study year. Chapter 4 examines teacher strategies for working with students who move into and out of their classrooms, based on data collected from a sample of teachers through interviews. Chapter 5 explores teacher perceptions of student mobility at their school and its impacts on their work. The information comes primarily from a survey of all teachers in the eight study schools. Chapter 6 looks at school level strategies for working with students who move, and is based on data collected in interviews with the principals. A discussion of the findings are presented in Chapter 7 along with recommendations for practice.

Chapter 2: Study Populations and Research Methods

The teachers and principals from eight schools in the greater Sacramento, CA, area took part in this study. The schools served four different student populations or mobility types that are defined according to the reason for the move: migrant, in which moves are determined by harvest seasons; military, in which moves are determined by the personnel needs of a large organization; urban, in which moves often are determined by changes in family status and employment; and stable, a contrast population in which moves are infrequent. A variety of data were gathered. The principal and four teachers from each school took part in an in-depth interview study, and all teachers were surveyed by questionnaire. School records provided the dates of enrollment and withdrawal for every student who attended the study schools. The following sections outline the sample identification and selection process for schools and teachers, describe the study samples, and introduce the data collection methods.

School Sample

Eight schools, two of each mobility type, were identified for participation in this study from a review of over 200 schools in the greater Sacramento, CA, area. The goal in constructing this sample was to include four pairs of schools that differed as much as possible in the type of mobile population they served, but were as similar as possible in their ethnic distribution, size, and history serving the student population, or mobility type, for which they were selected. Individual schools were not selected to represent a particular population of schools. Rather, the collection of eight schools was built to meet the following criteria in an attempt to maximize the contrasts among mobility types and minimize the effects of potential confounding variables:

1. Each school should serve the specified population type as purely as possible. We did not want an urban school that also served children of migrant agricultural workers, for example.

2. The schools should have enough enrollment to support 10 classrooms across grades 1 - 6. We wanted enough teachers in the school to give us some selection for the interviews and at least 10 respondents to teacher questionnaires.

3. The schools should be as similar to each other as possible in terms of ethnic distribution. We controlled ethnic distribution because we could not vary it systematically nor did we wish to confound it with mobility type.

4. The pair of schools within a mobility type should not be part of the same school district. We did not wish to confound district-level practices and mobility characteristics.

5. For each school, the mobility and economic characteristics of the student population should not have changed in the last few years and they should not be expected to change during the study year. We wanted schools that had a history of working with the type of mobility for which they were selected, and that would enroll students with that type of mobility during the study year.

School Identification

School selection took place in three stages. First, a collection of schools was identified as potential study schools for each mobility type. This was a complex process because each type required slightly different information and methods for identification, as the paragraphs below describe.

Agricultural Schools. Migrant education in California is organized by geographic regions which differ from county boundaries. The migrant education coordinators in the two regions that include or surround Sacramento County identified the 21 schools having migrant education programs in the area. We called the larger schools for information about the number and type of migrant students enrolled. There are three classes of migrants in California, and only one class actively moves. Of the eight schools that met our enrollment criteria, three served a mixture of mobile populations. From the five schools that remained, we identified the three that served actively migrant students. In this report, the terms "agricultural" and "migrant" school are used interchangeably.

Military Schools. Administrators at schools located near the two military bases in Sacramento County were asked to identify schools that served children from military families. The secretaries of those schools were called and asked to provide information about the

percentage of students in the school whose parents worked for the military. Five schools were identified.

Urban Schools. This category contains urban schools that report high degrees of mobility and poverty. They were identified by analysis of school mobility and poverty data obtained from the California State Department of Education, California Assessment Program. The index of mobility is the percent of third graders present for Spring, 1987 achievement tests who were new to the school that year. The poverty index is the percent of students who received Aid for Dependent Children (AFDC) funds. We examined the joint distribution of these two indices for the population of 200 elementary schools in Sacramento County. Schools that fell in the top quartile for both indices were identified, and their location within the county determined. Using information from the Sacramento Area Council of Governments and the Sacramento County Office of Education, we confirmed that these schools were located in densely populated areas, in or surrounding the city of Sacramento. Seventeen schools were identified.

Stable Schools. This category includes schools with low mobility and low poverty. They were selected in much the same way as the urban schools. From the joint distribution of mobility and poverty, we identified schools in the lowest quartile on each index. Twenty-four schools were identified.

Further Delineation. Once a group of candidate schools was determined, information was gathered for each about enrollment, grades served, characteristics of the surrounding community, and school programs that could alter the populations served. For example, it was important to identify magnet schools likely to have a mixture of mobility types because they draw students from a wide geographic area. A variety of information sources were used in this process. The Sacramento Area Council of Governments provided information about economic growth and population change in various parts of the region. Statistical reports and computer data tapes from the California State Department of Education provided student demographic and economic characteristics, and 1980 census data described housing in target school tracts. Personnel from the Sacramento County Office of Education shared their knowledge of the county schools and communities and also called school principals and secretaries when current data or future projections were needed.

In the third and final stage of school selection, specific exclusion criteria were established to balance the ethnic distributions of the schools in the four categories. Schools were excluded where: (a) one ethnic minority made up more than 40% of the population, or (b) Caucasian students comprised more than 75% of the student body. Since the number of military and migrant schools were low, they defined the ethnic make-up of the study schools to a large degree.

Sample Description

The eight schools selected as our top choices agreed to take part in the study. The schools were selected to meet specific criteria for study; we do not consider them to be representative samples from specified populations. One advantage of the selection process is that it identifies how the study schools may differ from other schools of the same mobility type that were considered for this study. The agricultural schools in this study are larger than most schools having migrant education programs in the communities around Sacramento County. One of them has a larger percentage of migrant students than all other migrant education schools. One of the study military schools is located on an Air Force base, which may not be typical of other military schools. Finally, stable schools in this study are in urban and small town settings; most suburban schools were excluded from the sample because their student populations were not ethnically mixed.

Table 2.1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the schools. All but one school served students in grades 1-6. It was necessary to accept a migrant school serving only grades 3-5. The schools ranged in size from 442 to 712 students. With the exception of the migrant schools, the student populations were predominantly white with a mix of minority students. Table 2.2 provides narrative descriptions of the schools, their communities, and school wide instructional programs.

Teacher and Principal Samples

Teacher Interview Sample

For the in-depth interview study, we sought four teachers at each school. Our goal was to find a teacher group that (a) had experience working with the type of mobile students for

which their school was selected, (b) would teach for the entire study year and thus be available for the spring interview, and (c) included primary and upper elementary teachers. We gave the following criteria to principals who took one of two approaches to recruiting teachers. Either they asked for volunteers and then selected the volunteer teachers who met most closely the criteria, or they identified specific teachers who met the criteria and asked them to participate.

1. Teachers should not be first-year teachers in the 1988 - 1989 school year.

2. There should be no reason to believe that the teacher would leave the school before the end of the school year (e.g., for maternity leave).

3. In the group of four teachers one should teach Grade 1, one Grade 3, one Grade 4, and one Grade 6.

Table 2.3. shows the grade levels and teaching experience of the study teachers. The teachers had at least two years of experience at their schools; half had five years or more. All teachers had at least three years of teaching experience; half had been teaching for more than 10 years. It was not possible to meet the criteria in all schools, and the first selection rule to be relaxed was #3, concerning grade levels. Still, both primary and upper elementary grades are represented in each school. Additionally, at one agricultural school (Appleton), not all teachers worked with migrant students: we specified that two interview teachers come from the migrant education program. Because of this additional requirement we had to relax criteria #2 and accept a pregnant teacher at Appleton who returned to school in spring for her interview.

Although this teacher sample was experienced working with a particular type of mobility, the teachers did not have formal training for this work. Teachers were asked directly whether they had any training to work with students who moved. Only six teachers, five of them from agricultural schools, described any training. In particular, teachers mentioned the training they received as part of their bilingual certification (4 teachers). That training emphasized a multicultural approach in the classroom, and specific strategies for working with migrants. The fifth teacher at an agricultural school had participated in some inservice training provided by her school's bilingual teacher. Finally, one teacher at a stable

school had taken extra coursework in reading instruction in order to better remediate students in a highly mobile school where she had worked previously. The remaining 80% of teachers said they had no training that prepared them to work with students who moved.

Teacher Survey Sample

The entire faculty at each school was surveyed by questionnaire. Table 2.4 describes the teachers who responded to the questionnaire. The 166 teachers who responded were distributed about equally across the four mobility types. The teacher sample ranged widely in terms of total years of teaching experience (from less than one year up to 42 years) and years teaching at the study school (from less than one year up to 31 years). On average, the total sample had 11.4 years of teaching experience with 6.4 years at the study school. On average, military teachers had been teaching longer, but this difference was not statistically significant ($F = 2.39$, $df = 3$, $p < .07$). Differences in tenure at the study school differed reliably by type of school, however ($F = 67.0$, $df = 3$, $p < .001$). Teachers in the stable and urban schools had less tenure at their school on average than the teachers in agricultural and military schools.

Principal Sample

The sample consists of the principals ($n = 8$) of all the study schools. All were female with experience ranging from two to 13 years (see Table. 2.5). Stable schools had the oldest, most experienced principals. Agricultural and urban schools had first time principals in their fourth year on the job. In urban schools, principals had the fewest number of years prior teaching experience in the sample.

Research Methods

This study was designed to maximize the opportunity to observe differences in mobility patterns. Four types of data were used to answer the research questions. Student enrollment and withdrawal information was collected, a sample of teachers was interviewed twice during the study year, all teachers at the study schools were surveyed by questionnaire, and all principals were interviewed once. Copies of all instruments appear in the Appendix.

Enrollment Data

The dates of enrollment and withdrawal were recorded for every student who attended the study schools. In most cases the dates came from the class attendance books maintained by teachers and used by schools to document average daily attendance. In four schools, the dates were obtained from office records that listed the names of students who entered and withdrew each month along with the date of the enrollment transaction. The data were gathered by a member of the research team who visited the schools and photocopied the records periodically during the study year. A computer file of these data was created for each school, using D-BASEIII software, which contained an identification number, teacher identification, grade, dates of enrollment(s) and withdrawal(s) for each student who attended the school during the 1988 - 1989 school year. Chapter 3 summarizes the analyses and findings from the enrollment data set.

Teacher Interviews

Two structured interviews were conducted with teachers, one in late October and one in May. Interviewers met with teachers at their schools while a specially hired substitute covered their classes. The 40-minute interview was taped for later transcription, and the interviewer took field notes. The fall interview was used to establish teachers' instructional and organizational styles. The interview was structured to obtain information about the instructional and management decisions teachers made. In particular, teachers were asked how they oriented the entire class to the school and classroom rules, routines and expectations, and how the teachers learned their students' instructional needs. The spring interview was used to discover how teachers learned the instructional needs of students who enrolled during the school year. In particular, teachers were asked what kinds of adjustments they made in their instruction and management to accommodate new students, how long it took for new students to become integrated into the curriculum, and the impact of new students on the classroom, curriculum and job of teaching. Chapters 4 and 5 present the findings from the interview study.

Teacher Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire contained closed-response questions about classroom teaching. It was structured to capture teacher attitudes about student mobility, sources of

support for working with students who moved, the limits of teacher responsibility, and whether teachers could describe the enrollment and withdrawal patterns in their schools. The information from the questionnaire would allow us to propose some generalizable results that would not be possible from an interview of a small sample of teachers. The specifics of the analyses of the questionnaire and its results are included in specially marked sections in Chapters 3 and 5.

Principal Interview

Principals were interviewed in their offices in May 1989. The purpose of the principal interview was to obtain information about school level responses to students moving into and out of the school. These school-level responses would provide us with some context in which to understand teacher responses. In addition, we wanted to know how student mobility affected the principal-teacher relationship. The principal also is the school's link to the larger system of schooling -- the district office. The decisions made by principals, and how those decisions were affected by student mobility, could provide us with clues about the responsiveness of the school system per se to the issue of student mobility. The principal interview also provided a check on the teacher interviews and questionnaire in the area of resources available to teachers. Chapter 6 summarizes information learned from the principal interview.

Chapter 3: Characteristics of Student Mobility in Four Types of Schools

Although it is possible to document that nearly one in every five school-aged children moves each year in this country, it is difficult to discover who those children are, and any pattern there might be in their educational needs. Every year the U.S. Census documents geographic mobility, providing an overall picture of mobility trends by region and age of movers. Educational organizations report on mobility also. Typically, mobility is assessed by different indices that are not easy to interpret, and do not capture characteristics important to instruction.

As part of its annual assessment program, the California State Department of Education asks schools to document mobility of students in certain grades. The index of mobility is the grade at which a student first enrolled in the school. In Spring 1987, for example, 24% of the third graders were new to their school that academic year (California Assessment Program, 1987). The percentage of new third graders ranged widely in the 4321 schools reporting. The median response of the schools was that 22% of the third graders were new. School districts also derive indices of student mobility. As an example, the Sacramento City Unified School District describes student mobility for a school year as the number of student transactions (enrollments plus withdrawals), expressed as a percentage of the average monthly attendance.

These indicators of mobility summarize in a single number the movement that occurs over the course of a calendar or academic year. They provide a "snapshot" taken at a single point in time of movement that is continuous during the year. The indicators do not capture well characteristics of student mobility that impact the educational process. In addition to the simple number of movers, these characteristics might include whether the movement is due to new students enrolling, students leaving, or both; how long students typically remain enrolled in that school; whether or not students return after leaving; and whether there are times in a school year when the number of enrollment changes is greater. It is also likely that the predictability of that movement -- whether it is random, monthly, seasonal, or in some other way cyclical -- will affect the instructional process.

This chapter examines characteristics of mobility in the eight study schools, and teacher and principal perceptions of that movement. The primary source of data for student mobility was the school's documentation used to calculate average daily attendance. From these records, the dates of enrollment and withdrawal were gathered for every student who attended the eight study schools during the 1988-1989 school year. Perceptions of teachers and principals were gathered by questionnaire and interview.

Mobility Characteristics of Student Populations

There are two segments of the student population in each of the study schools. Students are part of either a stable segment that remains enrolled from the beginning to the end of the school year, or a mobile segment that includes those who enroll after the first weekend of the school year, withdraw before the last day of school, or enroll late and withdraw early. The analyses of enrollment data describe the relative size of these sub-populations, and the length of time students were enrolled in the study schools.

Population Segments

The percentage of students who moved during the study year varied across schools from 17% at Creekside to 50% at Ninth Street and Elm Schools (Table 3.1). With one exception, the schools selected for the study because they served mobile populations had higher percentages of movers during the study year than both schools that were selected because they served stable communities. At Appleton, selected because it served an agricultural population, 22% of the students were mobile during the study year. This was lower than the percentage at Fairview, a stable school, where 25% of the students moved[3.1].

For the remaining schools that served mobile populations, substantial segments of the student populations were comprised of students who moved. At Ninth Street, which served urban students, and at Elm, which served agricultural students, half of the student populations were enrolled for less than the full school year. Slightly more than a third of the urban

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3.1 Because the sample size for student enrollment change was so large (N=4939), Chi-square tests of frequency differences between groups reached statistical significance even for small absolute differences. This chapter summarizes the data and discusses practical significance, since statistical significance was achieved readily.

students (38%) at Broadway moved during the study year. In the schools that served military families, movers comprised about a third of the school population (31% at Doolittle and 33% at McArthur).

The mobile portion of the student population can be partitioned further. Some movers were enrolled at the beginning of the school year and then withdrew before the end of school. Other movers arrived late and joined classes during the school year, and some of these students also withdrew before the end of school. Finally, students who withdrew sometimes re-enrolled. The schools differed in the type of enrollment changes that occurred during the study year as Table 3.1 summarizes. Urban and stable schools experienced similar enrollment changes: Movers were more likely to arrive during the school year than they were to withdraw after starting the year at the school. As compared with agricultural and military schools, the urban and stable schools had lower percentages of movers enrolled at the start of the school year. (The percentages of movers enrolled in school at year's start were 53% for military, 51% for agriculture, 35% for urban and 29% for stable.) Student mobility in agricultural schools had a special characteristic: Many of the students who withdrew later re-enrolled. Half of the students who left Elm and 40% who left Appleton returned before the end of the school year.

Duration of Enrollment

A teacher's opportunity to instruct a student and a student's opportunity to adjust to a new class and school are limited by the number of days a student is enrolled in the school. The length of enrollments may vary even between schools having similar percentages of mobile students. The duration of enrollment was computed for each student in the eight study schools. The computation counted weekdays between a student's date of enrollment and date of withdrawal, excluding the days allocated for Thanksgiving, Christmas, and spring vacations. For students who withdrew and later re-enrolled, the duration includes all periods of enrollment.

Depending on the study school, the academic year was 183 to 186 days. The median duration of enrollment was the full school year for all but two study schools. In Elm and Ninth Street, where close to half of the student populations were mobile, the median enrollment period was 181 and 180 days, respectively.

There were differences among schools in the duration of enrollment for percentiles below the median, as Figure 3.1 shows. For the purposes of comparison, the maximum enrollment period in Figure 3.1 is set at 180 days, the shortest median period of enrollment in the study schools. Three patterns are evident. First, in three schools, about 75% of the students were enrolled for the maximum period of 180 days and 10 percent were enrolled for 75 school days (about 15 weeks) or less during the study year. These schools, the pair that serves stable communities, and Appleton, which serves an agricultural community, had similar distributions of enrollment duration that differed from the distributions at other schools during the study year.

Second, in the pair of schools that served military families, 10% of the student population was enrolled about 75 days or less, as in the first pattern. However, the remaining students did not stay through the maximum enrollment period. Twenty-five percent of the students at Doolittle were enrolled for 164 school days or less, and 25% of those at McArthur were enrolled for 150 days or less. Thus, 25% of the students at Doolittle missed at least three weeks of the school year, and at McArthur, 25% were not enrolled for at least six weeks.

Finally, in the two schools serving urban students as well as Elm, an agricultural school, a larger percentage of students was enrolled for shorter periods of time. In these schools, 10% of the populations were enrolled for 30 days or less. The 25th percentiles also were much lower than the other schools. For Broadway and Ninth Street, the 25th percentiles were 92 days (about half the school year) and 80 days respectively. Enrollment periods were even shorter at Elm, were 25 percent of the students were enrolled for 50 days (10 weeks) or less.

Summary

Mobility characteristics of the student populations distinguish the four mobility types. As anticipated, schools selected because they served stable communities had lower percentages of students move during the study year than other schools. Enrollment changes that occurred in the urban and stable populations were more likely to be late enrollments than they were to be early withdrawals of students who had started school at the beginning of the year. The reasons for the late enrollments differ for stable and urban schools, however. As a "receiving" school for its district, Fairview, a stable school, enrolled new students from outside the

from neighboring schools were enrolled at Fairview, the district did not transfer them back until the following school year. This may explain why Fairview had a higher percentage of movers than Creekside, the other stable school, and why 78% of Fairview's movers were late enrollments. In urban schools and in Creekside, the decision to move was made by students, parents or guardians and not by the district.

Only in agricultural communities did a large percentage of students re-enroll after withdrawing from the school during the study year. The agricultural industry in the areas surrounding Appleton and Elm employed migrant workers from spring planting through fall harvest times. The high percentage of re-enrollments in these schools reflects this cycle. Students attended school in the fall until the harvest was completed; they withdrew to move with their parents for work elsewhere; when their parents returned to the area for spring planting the students re-enrolled. In addition, teachers reported in interviews that some students withdrew during the Thanksgiving and Christmas holiday season and re-enrolled in the first months of the new year.

Within each pair, the schools serving stable, military, and urban communities displayed distributions of enrollment duration similar to each other. In stable communities, school enrollments were for longer periods of time, as expected, and in urban communities there were more short-term enrollments.

The schools that served agricultural populations were less similar to each other than schools in the other pairs. The student population at Elm had a higher percentage of mobile students, and typical lengths of enrollment were shorter than at Appleton. Appleton's population was more similar to the stable populations in terms of the percentage of mobile students and the duration of enrollment in the school. There are some explanations for this difference. While Appleton did serve a migrant population during the study year, that population was a small percentage of the total number of students in this large school. Further, independent study programs allowed some migrant students to be enrolled officially when they were not in attendance at Appleton School. As a result, the enrollment records at Appleton underestimate the number of movers.

Patterns in Enrollment Change over Time

The mobility characteristics of a student population are useful for describing the general level of mobility in a school and the length of time students remain at a school. Though this information describes a population generally, it cannot help teachers predict when changes will occur. In order for a teacher to accommodate enrollment changes, knowledge of when students are more likely to enroll or withdraw would be useful for preparation and planning. The examination of time trends of students mobility drew on three sources of data: the dates of enrollment and withdrawal for each student, the teacher responses to the spring interview, and principal interview responses. The analysis describes trends that occurred during the study year in the four type of schools and examined teacher and principal perceptions of those trends.

Study-Year Trends in Enrollment Data

The analysis of time trends partitioned the school year into 18 half-month periods and examined the number of new enrollments and withdrawals that occurred in each period. The first 15 days of a month were included in the first period, and remaining days in the second period for a month. The analysis presented here summarizes trends for the four types of mobility, pooling the data for the two schools within each type. In these analyses the mobility, particularly in agricultural communities, may be underestimated because the analyses do not count the first withdrawal or second enrollment of students who leave and re-enroll during a single school year.

Table 3.2 summarizes the distributions of enrollment changes for the four types of schools. In all mobility types, at least one new student enrolled and one student withdrew each period of the year. In a typical half-month period, the pair of schools serving agricultural communities had 6 new enrollments and 4 withdrawals, the pair serving military communities had 6 new enrollments and 12 withdrawals, the pair serving urban students had 21 new enrollments and 16 withdrawals, and the pair serving stable communities had 9 new enrollments and 4 withdrawals. The average number of enrollment changes during a half-month period differed significantly across the four types of schools both for enrollments ($F = 3.65$; $df = 3, 68$; $p \leq .02$) and for withdrawals ($F = 8.95$; $df = 3, 68$; $p \leq .0001$). While urban

schools experienced the greatest change on average across periods, schools serving agricultural communities experienced the greatest number of changes in a single period. In one period 70 new students enrolled in that pair of schools. Also in a single period 38 students withdrew.

Enrollment trends across the academic year for the four types of schools are displayed in Figures 3.2 to 3.5. Each figure graphs new enrollments and withdrawals, standardized separately over the 18 periods. Within mobility type, frequencies of enrollment changes were standardized by subtracting the average over half-months and dividing by the standard deviation over half-months. Standard scores were used so that the differences in the absolute number of enrollment changes and the variability in the number that occurred each period would not mask pattern differences among the mobility types. In all figures, zero represents the average number of new enrollments and new withdrawals, and a scale unit equals one standard deviation.

Agricultural. The number of withdrawals peaked dramatically in the last half of October, and the number of new enrollments in the first half of May in schools serving agricultural communities (Figure 3.2). The number of withdrawals was elevated in December, before the Christmas holiday vacation, as was the number of new enrollments in January, following the vacation. Relative to these highs, there were few differences in enrollment changes from one period to the next.

Military. During the fall months, until the second half of November, the number of new enrollments was above average for the year in the pair of schools serving military communities (Figure 3.3). After a drop just before the Christmas vacation, new enrollments increased in January, peaking in the first half of the month. For the remainder of the school year the number of new enrollments was below average with one exception: The number of new enrollments was above average in the second half of March, the period that contains the week of spring vacation. The number of withdrawals increased from September to mid-February, and then declined to below average until June, when the largest number of withdrawals occurred.

Urban. In urban schools, the number of new enrollments and withdrawals followed similar patterns during the fall (Figure 3.4). Both increased during September and remained above average for the year until the second half of November. Beginning in December the patterns diverged. The number of withdrawals reached a high point in the first half of

December and then fell below average during the first three periods of the new calendar year. In contrast, the number of new enrollments was lower than average in December and above average during the first three periods of the new year, peaking in the first half of January. During March and April the patterns converged again; the numbers of new enrollments and withdrawals were above average at the beginning of March and declined through April. While the number of new enrollments continued to decline during the last six weeks of the school year, the number of withdrawals increased but remained below the average for the year.

Stable. In the pair of schools serving stable communities, the number of new enrollments was higher than average from mid-October to mid-February (Figure 3.5). Enrollments peaked in January, during the second half of the month, and then declined over the remainder of the year with a small increase during the first half of April, the period following spring vacation. The number of withdrawals was below average during October and November, when new enrollments were high. The number of withdrawals increased in December and peaked at the beginning of January. Withdrawals then declined, remaining at or below average with two exceptions -- the latter part of March, in the period containing spring break, and the last period of the school year.

Teacher Reports of Enrollment Trends

During the spring interviews, four teachers at each school responded to the question: In your experience at this school, is there a systematic pattern to the times new students enroll and others withdraw? Teachers who had experienced patterns of mobility were asked to describe the pattern (Table 3.3).

In all schools teachers reported that enrollment changes could occur throughout the school year, but most teachers (26 teachers) identified periods of the year when enrollment changes were more frequent. Looking over all schools, the most common period for enrollment change was after holiday vacation time (14 teachers). As one fifth grade teacher described:

> It seems [the heavier times occur] after major holiday periods, like Easter or Christmas, because that's the time when the family has time to move. And some parents are concerned about the kids missing school, so they will wait until the child is out of school for a big block of time. We have a week at Easter and two weeks at Christmas. (UN5)[3.2]

The second most common pattern was reported only by teachers in agricultural communities (7 teachers). This pattern coincides with the planting and harvest seasons: students who migrated with their families withdrew in October after the harvest was completed and enrolled in May at the start of spring planting. The third most frequently mentioned pattern was enrollment change that took place in the fall during the first few weeks of school (5 teachers). New students enrolled late in the fall at Fairview, the stable school that served as an "overflow" school for its district, and both enrollments and withdrawals occurred in the fall according to teachers at the urban school. The remaining pattern mentioned by teachers from more than one type of school was spring enrollment changes. Two teachers in military schools and one at Creekside, a stable school, described this pattern but did not provide a rationale for it.

Teachers' descriptions of the mobility patterns at their schools varied by type of school. Teachers in stable schools did not identify a pattern, primarily because so few students transferred into and out of their schools. In military and urban schools the most frequent response described moves that occurred around holiday vacations, while in agricultural schools the moves followed the planting and harvest cycles. In agricultural and urban schools, patterns were described that were unique to the type of school. Two of the four teachers at Appleton, an agricultural school, explained that students withdrew in late fall and re-enrolled in January or later. This pattern was not described for any other type of mobility or in fact, for any other school.

> We have two patterns. We have the migrant farm worker that really [follows] the crops. We have other kids, some of them are classified migrant but they're really residents. They stay here but they do take off during those months where there's not much work going on here and then they go back to Mexico. So they'll be gone from one to two months, some of them. (AA3b)

3.2 Codes in parentheses following quotations in this report identify the source of a quotation. The first letter indicates the type of community served by the teacher's school, A=Agricultural, M=Military, U=Urban, and S=Stable. The second letter in the code is the first letter of the school name. The number indicates the grade level of the teacher.

> There is an additional pattern too that is our Hispanic students who leave for Christmas. They might leave in November or December and come back anywhere between January and April. I started with 28 [students] about five [left in October] and then in January at one point I had 17. Then they start coming back. (AA5)

Two teachers of urban students, one from each school, mentioned a monthly cycle to moves in which enrollment changes occurred around the beginning of the month. The teachers reported that the timing of these changes may be related to the terms of rental agreements because many of their students lived in rental housing.

Principal Reports of Enrollment Trends

Principals in the study also were knowledgeable about student mobility at their schools. A cluster of questions asked principals about patterns to student mobility, and reasons there might be for that pattern, how long the pattern had existed, and the average amount of time a student enrolled in the study school. Another cluster of questions asked where students went when they withdrew from the study school, and how often re-enrollments occurred.

Like the teachers, principals at both agricultural schools described a long-established pattern of enrollment, withdrawal and re-enrollment that coincided with the availability of farmwork in the region (Table 3.4). They reported that the average amount of time a migrant student enrolled was 13-14 weeks during the year, and many of the migrant students who left school in the fall re-enrolled the following spring. From Appleton, those students typically went to Mexico or where farmwork was next available (Table 3.5). At Elm, students left and went to other farm communities in California or to Texas. However, during the time they were not enrolled at the two study schools, these students were not necessarily enrolled in any school. At Appleton, students were encouraged to take work to complete independently during the time between enrollments there. Both rural schools also had communities of stable students, some whose families had been there for generations and others attracted by the availability of inexpensive housing.

Principals at schools serving military families described enrollment patterns that were less clear than those in agricultural schools. The moves were dependent on military decisions about a parent's posting, and at one of them the availability of on-base housing. Students could

remain for as little as four or five months while a parent was in a training program, but more often, the average stay was three years. One principal found that out of all the sixth grade students the previous year, only four had been enrolled from kindergarten through sixth grade. Students who left these schools could go anyplace in the world, and they seldom, if ever, returned to the study schools to re-enroll.

Student mobility in schools serving urban populations was continuous and random, according to the principals. This appeared to be at least partly a result of the many reasons principals cited for student mobility, including financial instability, divorce, apartment condemnation and legal difficulties. The principal at Broadway did not know how long students typically stayed enrolled at her school, but she had asked her faculty to identify how many students stayed in the school throughout the reading mastery curriculum. She said that only six students were identified who had remained from Kindergarten through the third grade, the duration of the curriculum. The other principal guessed it might be about two or three years.

Principals in both schools serving stable communities described very little mobility, and what little that did occur was random and unpredictable. At Creekside, the principal attributed the stability of the school population to that of the neighborhood. The principal at Fairview described the first two weeks of the school year as filled with commotion, until the district redistributed students to balance enrollments. From that point on, very few students enrolled or withdrew. When students left stable schools, they generally transferred to other schools within the district, particularly magnet schools.

Summary and Discussion

Except in schools serving stable communities where there were few enrollment changes, teacher descriptions of mobility generally matched the patterns documented by enrollment data. Teachers in all types of schools reported that enrollment changes occurred near holiday vacation time, a trend confirmed by the plots of enrollment data. There was a high number of enrollment changes near the Christmas holiday vacation in all four types of schools, and near spring vacation in all but the urban communities. Though many enrollment changes occurred in December and January in all types of schools, there were some differences in the timing of the moves. In urban, military, and agricultural communities the numbers of withdrawals were relatively high, if not the highest, early in December before the holiday vacation, and the numbers of new enrollments were highest in the first period of the new year, following the

Christmas vacation. In stable communities, however, the moves were delayed by one half-month period. Withdrawals peaked at the beginning of the new year and enrollments peaked the second half of January in schools serving stable communities. While the reason for this difference is not known, one possible explanation relates to the academic calendar. The first semester of the school year ends in January, after the start of the new calendar year. It may be that in stable communities, a greater percentage of families can time their moving to coincide with the school calendar.

There were distinct patterns to enrollment change in schools serving agricultural communities, making it easy to identify peak periods. The large numbers of fall withdrawals and spring enrollments were a direct result of the harvest and planting cycles in the fields surrounding the schools. To a lesser degree, these schools experienced another cluster of withdrawals later in the fall and another cluster of new enrollments in January. These changes were identified by teachers as well.

Two urban teachers reported that enrollment changes frequently occurred at the beginning and end of calendar months. To examine this trend, we computed the percentage of enrollment changes that occurred mid-month, and compared that number with the number of changes that occurred on the remaining 15 days, the period spanning the completion of one month and the beginning of the next. The differences were negligible; close to half the changes occurred mid-month: 47.1% of new enrollments occurred during the middle of a month, and 48.3% of withdrawals.

Principals were knowledgeable about student mobility in their schools, and responded to our questions with a great deal of contextual information. Like the teachers there, principals in agricultural schools described a pattern of enrollment, withdrawal and re-enrollment for students whose families moved with the farming seasons. The principals described where migrant students went when they left, knew something of their schooling elsewhere before they returned, and prepared for the re-enrollment of many students over the years. These principals also described the stable populations of students served by their schools.

Principals in military schools were less clear about the patterns of mobility in their schools, but were very knowledgeable about the events that caused it. These included the timing of postings, of training programs offered at the base, availability of on-base housing and

other family plans. Upon leaving these schools, students seldom, if ever, re-enrolled. In urban schools, principals cited an impressive list of reasons for student mobility, which was continuous and random. Though students sometimes re-enrolled, the number of enrollments and withdrawals was so great that principals were unable to provide exact figures. At both military and urban schools, there were very few students who remained at the study schools throughout their elementary years.

Principals in stable schools described little student mobility over the years. The exception, at Fairview, involved student movement between schools in the district during the first two weeks of school.

Teacher Comparisons among Mobility Patterns

There may be periods of the year, such as semester break, when it is easier for teachers and students to adjust to enrollment change; and for some year-long patterns it may be easier for teachers to plan for and accommodate enrollment change. Teacher perceptions of student mobility patterns were gathered by questionnaire survey of the faculties of the study schools (N = 166). The questionnaire asked teachers to identify the patterns that described their classes and then to identify patterns that described classes they were trained to teach. In addition, it asked for patterns that disrupted classroom processes and complicated instructional planning. Teachers responded by selecting one of four patterns:

(A) Students enrolled and withdrew only between semesters,

(B) students enrolled and withdrew individually throughout the year,

(C) students enrolled and withdrew during a single month in the spring, and

(D) students withdrew as a group in the fall and re-enrolled together in the spring.

The four patterns describe key characteristics of the patterns we had expected to find in the stable, urban, military, and agricultural schools, respectively. [3.3]

[3.3] As the questionnaire was developed before enrollment data were gathered and analyzed, the pattern descriptions do not describe the actual trends that occurred during the study year. In particular, the description of a pattern for military school enrollment which was inferred from a report that military transfers occurred in spring was not an accurate description of the mobility trend during the study year. Though military transfers are announced in spring, some families do not withdraw their children and move to the next base until summer. Those who do

First, looking over all schools, teacher responses highlighted a discrepancy between their experiences and their training for working with students who move (Table 3.6). Teachers agreed overwhelmingly that there was no pattern to the student mobility that occurred in their classes. Over all schools, 81% of the teachers said the pattern that best described their class was B: students enrolled and withdrew individually throughout the school year. Most of the remaining teachers (13%) selected the agricultural pattern (D), and very few selected the stable (4%) or military (2%) pattern (A or C). Although the teachers agreed on the pattern that described their classrooms, they did not agree this was the pattern that described the classes they were trained to teach ($\chi^2 = 650$, df = 3, $p \leq .001$). The teacher sample was split about evenly between training for pattern A, students enrolled and withdrew only between semesters, and pattern B, the individualistic pattern that described most of the classes (each pattern was selected by 43% of the teachers). Most of the remaining teachers (11%) selected the agricultural pattern.

Teachers agreed that student transfers that occurred between semesters caused little difficulty in their classrooms relative to the other mobility patterns. Teachers identified patterns that made it difficult to integrate movers into the classroom activities, that complicated instructional planning, that disrupted the education of students who move, that disrupted the education of other students in the class who do not move, and that disrupted classroom management. Few teachers (6% or less) selected the between-semester pattern in response to these questions ($\chi^2 = 77$, df = 1, $p \leq .001$). For each disruption, pattern B, individualistic moves, was selected consistently by about half of the teachers. The remaining teachers split, with more selecting the agricultural pattern (27% to 34%, depending on the disruption) than the spring or military pattern (13% to 18%).

Responses to the questionnaire items varied among teachers from different types of schools. The pattern that best described their classes varied by mobility type ($\chi^2 = 62.5$, df = 9, $p \leq .001$). As expected, a higher percentage of teachers in schools that served agricultural communities selected the agricultural pattern to describe their classes (45% of the agricultural, 3% of stable, and no urban or military teachers selected this pattern). The stable, between-

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move often leave for their new base in spring, travel and take vacation between assignments and enroll their children in a new school the following fall.

semester pattern (A) was selected slightly more often by teachers in stable communities (11%) than by teachers in other communities (5% military, 3% urban, and 0% agricultural).

Teacher responses differed significantly among the four types of schools for three other questions also. There were systematic differences on the mobility pattern that most disrupts the education of students who move ($\chi^2 = 27.03$, df = 9, $p \leq .001$), which corresponded to the patterns that existed in the schools. Pattern A, the between-semesters pattern, was selected most often by teachers of stable school communities, pattern B, the individualistic pattern, most often by teachers of urban students, and pattern D, the migrant pattern, most often by teachers of schools in agricultural communities. Teachers differed reliably in the pattern they believed most disrupted the education of students in the class who do not move ($\chi^2 = 21.05$, df = 9, $p \leq .01$). In schools that served agricultural communities, 60 percent of the teachers believed the agricultural pattern was most disruptive, while only about 25 percent of the teachers in other types of schools selected this pattern. In other schools, teachers were more likely to select pattern B, the individualistic pattern. Finally, differences were found across school types in the pattern teachers believed most disrupted classroom management ($X = 32.5$, df=9, $p \leq .001$). Again, teachers in agricultural schools more frequently selected the agricultural pattern (pattern D) as being the most disruptive, while teachers in other types of schools more frequently selected the pattern of individual moves (pattern B). Teachers in schools serving stable and military communities also selected pattern C, the spring pattern. There were no statistically significant differences among the four types of schools in the patterns teachers selected to describe (a) the classes they were trained to teach ($\chi^2 = 14.27$, df=9, $p \leq .11$), (b) the pattern that makes it most difficult to integrate movers into the ongoing classroom activities ($\chi^2 = 15.77$, df = 9, $p \leq .07$), and (c) the pattern for which instructional planning is most difficult ($\chi^2 = 8.8$, df = 9, $p \leq .45$).

Summary

There were differences among teacher comparisons of mobility patterns that varied systematically with the type of mobility they experienced and with the question asked. Teachers in military, urban, and stable communities agreed that the individualistic pattern (B) best described mobility in their classes, and to a lesser extent that it also described the pattern that was most disruptive to classrooms. In contrast, almost half the teachers in agricultural communities selected the agricultural pattern (D) as best describing their class,

and with one exception this pattern was selected most frequently as the most disruptive pattern by teachers in agricultural communities. The exception was that when considering instructional planning, teachers in schools serving agricultural communities tended to agree with teachers in other schools that the individualistic pattern would be most disruptive. Teachers in all types of schools reported that their training prepared them to teach in classes where moves occurred only between semesters (pattern A), a pattern that teachers believed was not disruptive, or that they were trained to teach in classes where moves were individualistic (Pattern B). Apparently teachers received similar training, as the reports of their preparation did not differ significantly across the four types of populations.

Chapter 4: Teaching Mobile Student Populations

The major responsibility for working with children who move rests in the classroom with the teacher. This chapter examines teacher strategies for working with mobile student populations. We look first at instructional planning to learn how teachers prepare to instruct classes that change composition during the school year. Then we examine how teachers work with individuals: how teachers evaluate instructional needs, orient newcomers to their classes, and monitor the integration process of new students in their classes. Finally, we report teacher recommendations for working with students who move.

Instructional Planning

One strategy for teaching in a highly mobile population would be to plan instruction to accommodate that mobility. We asked teachers how they took student mobility into account when they prepared for the school year, when they set out their curricula, including the selection, sequencing and timing of topics, and when they chose instructional techniques, including methods for organizing students for lessons. Table 4.1 summarizes teacher responses to this series of questions.

Year-Long Planning

At the start of the school year, when they designed their curriculum and classroom organization, about half of the teachers (47%) planned for a stable class of students, even though they may have worked in schools with mobile student populations. As a third-grade teacher described, " Basically, I just plan my curriculum throughout the year ... I have the same expectations and I just go through the curriculum as if it was the same class." (UN3)

We asked teachers how they planned for the patterns of enrollment and withdrawal that occurred at their schools and the percentage of teachers who planned for stable classes differed significantly across the three types of mobile populations ($X^2 = 6.4$, $df = 2$, $p \leq .04$). In urban schools, 75% prepared to teach a class that would not change composition during the school year; in military schools 50% of the teachers prepared for a stable class; and in agricultural schools 12% of the teachers assumed a stable class for planning purposes. Teachers in schools with high levels of student mobility said they planned for a stable class because

they could not predict the changes that would occur, or the individual needs of the students who would move into or out of their classes.

> I don't make any special plans for that ... because it's so unpredictable as to when it's going to happen and how many it's going to happen to. (UB1)

> I don't think I really consider that in my overall planning ... Even if you know they are leaving, sometimes their plans change. They might plan to leave in November and not get away until January. (MD3)

In schools serving agricultural communities, teachers did consider mobility when they planned their year-long program. First, they considered students' language abilities when they decided how they would organize students for instruction (3 teachers). Because many migrant students spoke Spanish only, or had weak oral or written English language skills, teachers planned to pair or group migrant students with bilingual classmates more proficient in English. One teacher prepared a detailed instructional routine that her students followed each day. This teacher believed that it was easier to integrate newcomers when the class followed a well-developed routine because the students in the class could teach the routine to the newcomers themselves. Another migrant teacher planned the sequence of her curriculum to accommodate the seasonal movements of the migrant students.

Other types of plans were reported by teachers in stable, urban, and military schools. Five teachers prepared for newcomers by stocking extra books, materials and supplies for newcomers. Two teachers planned instruction to meet individual needs of students whether they started the year with the class or not. One teacher in a military school chose to follow a standard curriculum and common teaching methods so that the instructional activities in her classroom would be familiar to newcomers.

Curricular Planning

The percentage of teachers who considered student mobility when they planned their curricula differed across the four types of schools ($X^2 = 10.5$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .02$). With only three exceptions, teachers in schools serving military, urban, and stable communities did not consider student mobility when they planned the content and sequencing of their curricula. The three exceptions were a teacher in a military school who did not begin major projects after April because military families often moved in late spring; a teacher in an urban school who taught

basic skills after major holidays, periods when new enrollments were common; and a teacher in a stable school who did not introduce new material until the second month of school, after new enrollments sent from other schools filled her class.

In agricultural schools, teachers planned curricula to accommodate student mobility. Half of the teachers sequenced instruction to include migrant students in activities or delayed the start of a new project that the migrant students could not complete before leaving the school:

> I go two ways, I guess. I say at Christmas time, when there's fewer kids there, you can do things that you might not do with larger numbers. On the other hand, if it's something that's really fun, then I might save it, and think "Gee, only 12 of my kids are going to be able to do this instead of 30." It's certainly something you always keep in mind. You think, "If I teach it now, are too many people going to miss it?" (AA5)

> I try to save the last part of the year [when migrant students are in attendance] as a review, so those who do come in...can practice, especially in math. That way you can pick up, for example, fractions. (AA4)

Teachers in migrant schools reported they altered some curricular topics to make them more relevant to their school communities (2 teachers) and that they altered instructional activities to support the migrant students (2 teachers).

> I try to cover Mexico, which isn't even in our social studies curriculum, and talk about the indigenous people more and the influence and the contribution that they have given ... so that we're not always studying something real obscure. (AA3a)

> I keep [mobility] in mind ... Only in preparation does it affect me because I know "Aha, if I'm getting ready for the insect unit in May I'm going to need to incorporate some things that are going to involve new students." Normally ... I have step-by-step drawing lessons with my science units. I'll keep in mind that [for] the insect unit I'm going to have a lot of kids who aren't used to doing step-by-step drawing lessons. (AE1)

Teaching Methods

The instructional methods and classroom organization that teachers recommended as useful for working with mobile populations had two characteristics in common: (a) they fostered interactions among the students, and (b) they allowed a teacher to move an entire class through the curriculum as a single group. Teachers recommended grouping students

heterogeneously with respect to ability levels into cooperative learning groups, peer tutoring arrangements, pairs, triads, and other small groups There were no reliable differences among the four types of schools in the percentage of teachers making this recommendation ($\chi^2 = 1.3$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .71$).

Classroom organizations that encouraged interactions among students were preferred because teachers relied on their students to help integrate newcomers into the class routines and curriculum.

> A lot of the time you'll find that students who move around a lot are lower in a lot of academic areas than other students. They're somewhat behind the class, so it doesn't make any sense for me to go back and teach for them ... I have my students working in groups of four or five. I will buddy that person up with somebody who cannot only show them around the school and help them with some of the rules ... but also help with their work. (UN5)

Additionally, when students worked cooperatively in groups, it was possible to involve a newcomer quickly in classroom activities:

> I've been doing a lot more with cooperative groups, and I've found that that helps [new students] ... They've got a support system built right in to the lessons to bring them up where they might not have the skills that we have been working on. [New students can contribute] the things that they do know. If they don't know, the whole assignment is not ruined. (UN3)

> I do a lot of cooperative learning and that makes it a little bit easier to deal with children who go in and out ... because they're not swimming alone, because they are part of a group and they have a job within that group. You can tailor the job to give [the newcomer] some time to get caught up. For instance, if they don't speak English but they can tell time, they can be the time keeper for the group. And they're there taking part in what's happening, but they are not on the spot to do the writing. (AE4)

Teachers recommended organizing students into mixed-ability groups for instruction and they discouraged individualized instruction and grouping by ability levels for two reasons. First, with mixed-ability groups, classmates could help teach new students. Second, teachers believed that mixed-ability groups allowed them to meet individual needs of students without the need to tailor instruction for numerous student groups. In schools with mobile students, teachers reported it was difficult to tailor instruction because they worked with a large number of students and a wide ability range.

[The size of my class this year] has been between 30 and 35 kids, and with a lot of them coming in and out, it's really hard for me to individualize and catch them up ... so I just get other people to help them and I try to help them. (UN1)

I could group my class in 20 different [ability] groups and that's really frustrating and really hard to do, so I try not to do that grouping so much. I teach to the whole class, and we do do projects and work together in the cooperative groups. (AA3)

Last year I used self-paced instruction in math, with the mastery type of approach, and this year I'm whole-group. I'd like to find the middle ground between them. I think that will actually help a lot of the problems [due to mobility]. What I think I'm going to do is go back to self-paced within a unit framework, ... That way everybody's exposed to [the same material]. (AE5)

Summary

As anticipated, student mobility was not a major factor in instructional planning for teachers in stable schools. However, it was also the case that no more than half the teachers in military and urban schools considered student mobility when planning instruction, particularly when they selected and sequenced topics in their curricula. Teacher responses provided some insight into the reasons they did not plan for mobility. Some teachers reported that they could not plan because student movement was too unpredictable and because they could not know in advance the abilities and needs of the individuals who would arrive. In contrast, teachers in agricultural schools considered the timing of student moves and the movers' likely levels of English language skill when they planned instruction. Migrant teachers delayed some topics until the migrant students returned to their classes, and they scheduled some small-class activities for the intervals when migrant students were away.

Teachers in migrant, military, and urban schools generally agreed on instructional methods well suited for teaching mobile student populations. These teachers planned methods to facilitate student interactions and the movement of the whole class, as a group, through the curriculum. They wanted to maximize their flexibility for placing and meeting the needs of a newcomer. They also wanted to minimize the number of different lessons that would need to be taught during a single day. Teachers recommended organizing students into mixed-ability groups, all of which worked on a single class assignment, and they recommended supporting newcomers through peer tutoring and cooperative group arrangements.

Assessing Instructional Needs of Newcomers

In most classrooms there is an assessment and adjustment period at the start of the school year when teachers learn about the academic skills and abilities of the students in their classes. As they come to understand their students, teachers may adjust their curricula and instructional plans to accommodate the range of student experiences and ability levels in their classes. With newcomers who arrive after the start of the school year, there is a period of assessment and adjustment as well. During this time teachers may gather and examine information about the student in order to place a newcomer in their curriculum, they may monitor the newcomer's progress, and they may adjust the level or type of instruction provided to the newcomer. We asked teachers a series of questions about this adjustment period to learn what information teachers sought about new students, and how they obtained and used that information.

Information Received Before Enrollment

Teachers rarely received information about newcomers before students joined their classes. In fact, teachers in the four types of schools rarely had advance notice of newcomer arrivals (See Table 4.2). Of the 32 teachers interviewed, only two described situations where they received information about a student and more than a few days notice of the student's arrival. In both cases an adult relative of the student visited the school about two weeks before enrolling the student. At an agricultural school, one teacher was visited by a stepmother who wanted to discuss her child's emotional problems before the child started at the school. At a stable school, a parent observed a teacher's class before deciding whether to enroll her child.

In military and urban schools teachers typically learned about a newcomer on the day the student arrived in their classes. They were never notified more than one day in advance of the newcomer's arrival "Usually I just get a message over the intercom ... saying send a student down to pick up a new student." (UN5)

Because the lack of notice disrupted classes, the faculty and administration at Broadway, an urban school, had designed an enrollment procedure that would provide teachers a one-day notice of new enrollments. Unless new students arrived before the school day began, they were to complete their enrollment papers and begin school the following day. The school

secretary would notify teachers of students who would join their classes by leaving a note in their mailboxes. The note would include basic information about the student, such as the newcomer's name, address, birthdate, and social worker, if any. However teachers reported that frequently the procedure could not be followed, and as a result they often did not learn about newcomers in advance of their arrival:

> I had one kid come into my class and his cousin say "He's in your class now." The cousin brought him in. I went to the office and asked "Is it true?" ... [the cousin] might have been wrong. Who knows? [the office hadn't gotten] the paperwork done yet, so I didn't have any idea. (UB3)

In agricultural and stable schools, teachers sometimes received notice that a student would enroll, but rarely did they receive any information about the student (Table 4.2). Teachers in agricultural schools knew that enrollments of migrant students would increase near the opening date that the migrant labor camps nearby. Although they knew the timing of enrollments, they could not know which students would join their classes until the students arrived at the school. In the fall at Fairview, a stable school that serves as an overflow or receiving school for its district, teachers sometimes learned a few days in advance of plans to bus new students to their school, but they did not learn about the individuals who would be placed in their school.

Information for Curricular Placement

To place students in the math and reading curricula, teachers needed information about newcomers' knowledge in these topics. While all teachers[4.1] reported that they needed information about newcomers' skill levels or abilities in these areas, only six teachers identified other information they would like to have in order to place students in their curricula. Five teachers would have liked information about the new student's previous curriculum (AA3, AA4, MM1, UB6, and UN6). These teachers would like to have known the textbook series that the newcomer had used and how far the student had progressed in the series. One of these teachers also would like to have known the type of instruction, whole class

4.1 With the exception of a teacher in a stable school, all teachers interviewed had received a new student in their classes during the study year. The Chapter 4 analyses from this point forward are based on the 31 teachers who had experience with newcomers during the study year.

or individualized for example, that the student experienced. The sixth teacher (AE5) wanted to know about students' oral language skills.

In most cases, teachers gathered the information they needed from the newcomers themselves (Table 4.3) and their methods of choice differed for math and reading placement ($\chi^2 = 23$, df = 5, $p \leq .001$). More than half of the teachers (18 teachers) used the current classroom assignment to assess a newcomer, and this practice occurred more frequently in math (15 teachers) than in reading (3 teachers).

> I usually give them the paper we're doing that day and explain it to them a little extra if they need it. Some kids have been able to just pick up a pencil and know just what to do. Others are dumfounded, and I just try to give them that extra help. I say "Do you know how to add? " If they know the word and they say "Yes" then you're probably okay. But if they just look at you blank ... they haven't even had the word yet ... [so then you back up] "Do you know plusses? " or "Do you know how to count?". (MD1)

> ... they're just immediately part of our group. Whatever we're doing, that's what they do, and that's how I assess them. (AA5)

A second common practice was simply to ask the new student about previous work (18 teachers), and teachers used this practice in math (10 teachers) about as often as they did in reading (8 teachers).

> I try to ask them what book they're in, and then if they don't know the book, I'll just straight out ask them, "Well, what kind of reader are you, what kind of group were you in?" (SC5)

> You ask the child..."What color was your reading book?" ...And then we may have a variety of books and I can show them books and they [say] "Oh, yeah, it was that blue book." (AA3)

> We ask them, "What did you do at your other school?" And they pretty much know by fourth grade. "I was doing long division, or I was doing this," and then you ask them "Do you remember the book you were reading?" (AA4)

Teachers also assessed newcomers by asking them to complete chapter tests, quizzes, or other informal written tests (15 teachers), or by questioning the student in a one-to-one session with the teacher (14 students). Teachers used written assessments more often for math placement (10 teachers) than for reading (5 teachers), and they conducted individual oral assessments more frequently for reading (10 teachers) than for math (4 teachers).

> I start with an easy level reader and ask them to read a little bit to me. And I ask them questions about what they've read ... and in math it's an informal test ... sometimes I use flashcards, sometimes I just sit down with them and write a few problems on the chalkboard or on paper. (MM3/4)

Parents and previous teachers were used infrequently as sources of information about a newcomer's academic skills. One teacher each in an urban and a stable school reported receiving information from parents, and two teachers in urban schools reported calling newcomers' previous teachers for information. Communications between teachers via students' cumulative folders were rarely useful for placement decisions because the folder arrived weeks after the student.

The methods teachers used to gather information did not vary by grade level taught ($\chi^2 = 3.6$, df = 5, $p \leq .61$) or by mobility type ($\chi^2 = 19.8$, df = 15, $p \leq .18$). Placement practices for reading varied by school, however. In three schools, Doolittle, Ninth Street, and Fairview, a reading specialist or the principal tested new students and assigned them to classes, in part, on the basis of their reading levels. In those schools, classroom teachers were relieved of the responsibility of reading placement, though they could change it.

There was a trend in teachers' reports that suggested their need for information about individuals depended on the type of curriculum they taught. Teachers reported that whole-class and heterogeneous groups required less detailed information than teaching to ability groups or in individualized programs.

> I ask them what they've been doing and hope it's the same thing we've been doing. When I had self-paced, I always gave them a placement-type test. This year [for the new student] it's jump into the whole-group instruction and hope you don't repeat and hope you have enough background to get it. (AE5)

> They just come in and either sink or swim. I don't do a placement test in math because there wouldn't be a whole lot of variations I could make in the program. (UB1)

> This year I've pretty much done whole-class instruction [in reading] because we're working with the Core Literature books ... So when a student comes in, it really doesn't matter what the reading level is, they can fit into the class instruction. (MD4)

Information About Newcomers' Educational Histories

If teachers do not have information about a newcomer's previous educational experiences, they are limited in their ability to help new students in the transition between classes. Without knowing about the topics covered and the teaching methods used in a newcomer's previous class, teachers cannot link new and previous instruction easily. This limits their ability to help students see connections between the knowledge they have and new information to be learned.

When we asked teachers what information they needed to determine instructional needs of students, only five teachers in the sample mentioned information about the educational experiences of new students. To probe further, we asked teachers specifically if their strategies for working with newcomers would depend on a student's previous curricula. We posed two hypothetical situations, one for math and one for reading, and for each we asked teachers if their strategies for working with the newcomers would differ. The situations were:

1. Suppose two new students enrolled. One student previously studied in a curriculum that taught basic arithmetic skills through drill and practice in those skills. The other student had studied a curriculum that developed an understanding of math concepts through use of manipulatives and a problem-solving approach.

2. Now suppose two new students enrolled who had different experiences in reading. One student previously studied in a curriculum that taught basic decoding and word-attack skills primarily through a basal textbook. The other student previously had studied in a curriculum that took a whole-language approach to teaching reading through children's literature.

Mathematics Curriculum. For the situation involving mathematics instruction, 53% of the 30 teachers who were queried (16 teachers) reported that their methods for working with the two newcomers would not differ (Table 4.4). Response frequencies were similar across the four types of schools ($\chi^2 = 1.78$, df = 3, $p \leq .62$). Eleven of these teachers believed their math programs would accommodate both new students because the programs included problem-solving and drill and practice components.

> Both [students] would blend in pretty well because we do both [approaches] in the classroom. So they both would have their needs met because we teach in both modes. We have a couple of days when we do centers, [using] manipulatives, and then we do group instruction and we have some drills. So they're going to find their own little mode, I think. (MM1)

Five other teachers said they would not deviate from their own program, as one teacher explained: "I've gotten away from the drill-and-practice approach and I'm not going to go back to it." (UB4).

Thirteen teachers, or 43% of those asked, said their approaches to working with the two students would differ depending on the students' math background. Five of these teachers predicted they would need to devote time to working on manipulatives and problem-solving strategies with any newcomer whose previous curriculum took a drill and practice approach.

> Our program now is pretty much a problem-solving focus. I do a lot of that as opposed to drill and practice. So somebody that's coming in from the drill and practice approach ... I'm going to need to nurse them a little bit until they get a feel for the problem solving. In that case I will have somebody hook up with them, along with me spending a couple of extra minutes here, a couple of extra minutes there ... just getting them to understand the strategies of problem solving. (UB6)

Three other teachers, whose curricula had components of each approach, said they would work with newcomers on whichever approach the students were missing, and three other teachers said they would wait and see where the students were having difficulty and then address individual needs.

> If the student coming in with the drill and practice experience was having difficulty with the concepts, I would concentrate more on giving them experience with manipulatives and problem solving. I might adjust my program for just a little while and incorporate more of that into my program. The student who had the manipulatives and problem solving ... again, if they had difficulty with the drill, I might incorporate a little more of that for the whole class [and] work with them a little bit on an individual basis to give them the automaticity that my kids had. (SF1/2)

Reading Curriculum. For the situation concerning reading instruction, responses did not differ across the four types of schools ($\chi^2 = 2.4$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .50$). Of the teachers queried, 48% (14 of 29 teachers) reported that they would not alter their approach to teaching students who had had different reading curricula, and all of them explained why they would not. Six teachers

reported that the curricular differences would not create difficulties for the newcomers. Two of these teachers, both from schools serving stable communities, taught at the fourth or fifth grade level and reported that by the time students reached those grades the students had already developed basic skills such as decoding and phonics. A student's previous curriculum was not cause for concern for the four other teachers because their own curricula could accommodate a variety of past experiences, as one first grade teacher described:

> Since my program right now is more whole literature and whole language approach, the person who comes in from a strictly phonics-based reading program might originally have a tough time adapting to my program because ... I have a group reading book that on normal terms, as far as Ginn or levels would tell you, is above their reading ability. But we do the book so many times, and we repeat it and chart it, that they've got it memorized. (AE1)

Two other rationales were given by the remaining teachers who predicted they would use the same approach for working with two newcomers whose experiences differed. Four of the teachers reported that their curricula incorporated both approaches, so newcomers familiar with either approach should be comfortable. The other four teachers reported that their methods would not change because they followed a particular curriculum, usually one recommended by their school or district.

Ten teachers, or 34% of those queried, would work with newcomers differently depending on the students' previous curricula, and all but one of these teachers described why or how they would alter their methods. Five teachers identified differences between the two approaches to reading instruction that could cause students problems, and they believed they would need somehow to link the two approaches for the students.

> I think you use different strategies just in the bridging stages, in terms of letting them see the difference between the two programs. But I think if you're going from decoding basal into literature, it's a much easier bridge because it's fun doing literature and analyzing stories and rewriting stories and making puppets that go with the stories and all the things that come with the package. If you're going from literature into basal, which is a lot of the drill and practice workbook pages, if it were not that I'm open-minded, I would think that it would be very frustrating for a student. (SF2)

None of the five teachers who identified program differences described how they would alter or design instructional activities to bridge the programs for newcomers. Two teachers reported

they would try to relate the curricula by explaining to newcomers the differences between them, and one teacher said she would teach whichever type of material the newcomer was missing.

The remaining four teachers who predicted they would use different methods for the two newcomers reported that they would call on other adults to assist them. These teachers would ask special reading teachers, compensatory education teachers or parents to help students learn phonics and decoding skills necessary to participate in the classwork.

Five of the 29 teachers queried (17%) did not respond to the question concerning reading instruction. Four of these teachers described their own curriculum but did not offer information about how they would help a newcomer understand that curriculum. One other teacher, who also did not respond to the question about math instruction, said she could not answer because she would never be in the situation of knowing about a student's previous curriculum.

Time Required to Understand Instructional Needs

We wondered how long were the periods of adjustment when teachers assessed students' learning needs and adapted instruction if necessary. In the fall interviews, teachers estimated the number of days it took before they understood the instructional needs of the class of students who started school with them in September. In the spring interviews, they estimated the number of days it took, on average, to understand the instructional needs of a new student who entered their classes during the school year. Table 4.5 summarizes their answers.

A typical teacher spent a period of two weeks at the start of the school year learning about the class of students who started school in the fall and a period half that long for each new student who enrolled during the school year. To understand the needs of a class of students in the fall, some teachers estimated they required as few as 3 days, others required as many as 120 days. The median response was 10 school days, or two weeks. The variability in teachers' estimates was not explained by the type of school in which they taught ($p \leq .49$). There was greater agreement among teachers on the amount of time necessary to understand a newcomer's instructional needs. Looking over all schools, teachers estimated 1 to 12 days were needed. The median response was 5 school days, or one week. There were no systematic differences between estimates given by teachers from different types of schools ($p \leq .58$). Also, the difference

between the amount of time needed for an entire class and for each newcomer did not vary systematically across the four types of schools ($p \leq .44$).

Summary

Since they did not know the experiences and instructional needs of newcomers in advance of their arrival, teachers could not make preparations to accommodate particular individuals who would join their classes. It was rare for a teacher in this study to receive information about a new student before the student arrived. Moreover, it was rare for teachers to receive advance notice of the arrival. Typically a teacher learned about a new student when called by the office to meet the student or when the student appeared at the classroom door. In schools serving agricultural communities and at Fairview, a stable school that served as an "overflow" school for its district, teachers familiar with the enrollment patterns at their schools could predict periods of the year when new students were more likely to join their class. Still, they received no advance notice about class assignments or advance information about newcomers.

The primary source of information that teachers had about new students' knowledge, skills, and previous experiences were the students themselves. To evaluate reading and math achievement, teachers relied on information obtained from the new students. Teachers typically assessed how well a new student would fit into the class curriculum by examining a student's work on current assignments. Teachers also obtained information by directly asking students to describe the topics they had studied and their skill levels. It was rare for teachers to receive or seek information from newcomers' parents, guardians, or previous teachers. Information provided in students' official files, the cumulative records, arrived too late to aid placement decisions.

Although the teachers in this study typically did not seek or receive information about new students' previous curricula, a substantial percentage reported they would adapt strategies for working with newcomers if they had such information. The adaptations would be designed to bridge the curricula of the newcomer's current and previous class, teaching students how to use manipulatives in math lessons or explaining why there were no workbooks in a literature-based reading program, for example. Most teachers who would not tailor their strategies to the previous curricula of newcomers reported that curricular differences, at least those addressed in

the study, were unimportant. These teachers believed their own curricula were varied enough to contain some content and methods familiar to any new student. A small number of teachers refused to tailor their methods for working with newcomers because that would cause them to deviate from their instructional programs.

Teachers estimated that it took a week on average for them to learn about a new student's instructional needs. There was less agreement among teachers on the amount of time needed to understand the needs of a class of students at the start of the school year. On average, they estimated two weeks were needed at the start of school, but their estimates ranged widely.

Orienting New Students to Classroom Processes

During the first few weeks of the school year, effective elementary school teachers convey to students their behavioral and academic expectations. They teach students instructional routines, such as when and how to work cooperatively in groups, administrative procedures, such as steps to turn in completed assignments, and classroom rules of behavior. They also may convey what they expect students to learn, and what they will look for in students' work when they evaluate learning. Students who arrive during the school year also need to learn the behavioral norms and academic standards of their new classes in order to function successfully as class members and in order not to disrupt classroom processes.

The methods teachers use to orient new students may differ from the methods used to orient an entire class at the start of the year. In the fall interview we asked teachers how they taught their classes the class rules and what they told them about their reading and math programs. In the spring, we asked teachers, in a parallel set of questions, to describe how they conveyed their expectations to newcomers.

Methods for Conveying Classroom Rules

Teachers used a variety of methods to teach classroom rules to their classes at the start of the school year (Table 4.6). All teachers posted a list of rules, and 94% held a class discussion about classroom rules. Other common methods were for teachers to tell students the rules (88%) and to prepare a handout for students that listed rules (81%). Some teachers (42%) gave students an assignment concerning the rules of the class.

Teachers took a different approach to conveying classroom rules to new students who enrolled during the year. With the exception of the posted list of rules, the most common method was to assign to another student the task of teaching rules to a newcomer (77%). Teachers delegated this responsibility to classroom officers or to students they asked to serve as buddies, hosts, or special friends to new students. Less frequently, teachers explained the rules to new students themselves (55%), gave handouts listing rules to newcomers (48%), and held class discussions about the rules when new students enrolled (45%).

A teacher's use of a particular method in the fall to orient an entire class did not predict that teacher's use of the method during the year to orient new students. For none of the methods was there a statistically significant relationship between use for the entire class and use for new students. A teacher's use of handouts listing rules was the method for informing newcomers that was best predicted by fall use ($\chi^2 = 2.99$, df = 1, $p \leq .08$).

Introducing Students to the Curriculum

During fall interviews, most teachers reported that they oriented their classes to math and reading curricula at the start of the school year. Teachers informed classes about the topics they would study and the procedures they would follow, for example forming small groups for reading instruction. Some teachers also described their teaching approach. In math, teachers described problem-solving approaches and the use of manipulatives in math class. In reading, teachers who used a literature-based approach explained to their classes how the reading books and activities would differ from the standard, basal-text approach. In all, 79% of the teachers interviewed in the fall reported that they oriented their classes in some manner to the reading curricula, and 73% to the math curricula. These percentages did not differ significantly among the four types of schools either for reading curricula ($\chi^2 = .70$, df = 3, $p \leq .87$) or for math curricula ($\chi^2 = 3.34$, df=3, $p \leq .34$).

Fewer teachers oriented new students who enrolled during the year to their curricula. Over all schools, 62% of the teachers reported that they introduced their reading curricula to newcomers and only 40% introduced the math curricula to newcomers. There were no reliable differences among the four types of schools in the percentage orienting newcomers to the reading curricula ($\chi^2 = 3.34$, df = 3, $p < .34$)) or to the math curricula ($\chi^2 = .40$, df = 3, $p \leq .94$). The type

of information teachers provided new students varied from simple descriptions of topics or procedures to more detailed descriptions of teacher expectations and the type of curricula that would be used. The quotes below present two of the most detailed orientations reported by teachers.

> There's going to be a lot of problem solving and I need to know how much problem solving you've done. And maybe I need to talk about word problems or whatever [the newcomer] called it. I tell them that it's important to know your basic facts, and I need to know [if they do]. I have a little timed test of basic facts. And [I tell them] that in our book, Open Court, that it's a different kind of a book than they might have been familiar with, and so-and-so in your group is a good helper in math, and he or she is willing to sit with you and talk with you and help you during our group math time. If you're confused by what they're saying, get with me ... and in the meantime I'm checking all this out, kind of over-the-shoulder type of thing. (PB6)

> I show them the book, and I kind of introduce them to the book as a whole. Let them flip through a little bit, make sure they know where the table of contents is, because the things we use a lot I want to make sure that they know, and if they don't I orient them to that. I tell them we do the reading and we talk about the stories and we'll be doing some testing and some workbook pages, and in addition we do some literature. (SF1/2)

Teachers who reported orienting classes in the fall were more likely to report orienting newcomers during the year (Table 4.7). All of the teachers who described their math curricula to newcomers also had oriented their classes in the fall, and 94% who described their reading curricula to newcomers had done so for their classes at the start of the school year. Teacher reports of fall and newcomer orientations were related significantly for reading curricula ($\chi^2 = 6.6$, df = 1, $p \leq .01$) and for math curricula ($\chi^2 = 7.3$, df = 1, $p \leq .002$).

Some of the teachers who did not orient newcomers explained why they did not. Teachers reported that students learned about the curricula on their own:

> They can pick up a lot just by looking around and seeing what other people are doing and then what the expectations are. (UB3)

For some teachers, there was no time to orient students:

> Well, usually they come in when school's already started, and you don't have much time to tell them anything. "Sit here, here's a book." ... and when you get to the lesson, you're delivering the lesson to the whole class, and that's why I sit the new student with someone who speaks Spanish, and I tell that child "You're this person's buddy, and I want you to help explain what we're doing."

> ... They're coming in after the bell has rung. You've already started your day, and here's this child. You quickly say, "Here's a chair, here's a seat, oh how nice to see you. and here's some books." and then you're off. (AE3)

A few others did not believe students would be interested in learning about the curriculum.

> I really don't tell them anything. Kids are flexible enough ... I think in the fourth grade even if I told them ... it would be water off their backs. They'd have no idea what we were talking about. (UB4).

Summary

All of the study teachers reported that they taught classroom rules and routines to students at the start of the school year, and most teachers reported that they also introduced classes to the math and reading curricula early in the year. In contrast, newcomers typically were taught class rules and routines by other students designated by teachers to complete this task. In many classes, newcomers did not receive information about curricula. Sixty percent of the teachers did not provide information to newcomers about math curricula and 38% did not provide information about reading curricula. Without orientations, students were left to discover on their own what they were to learn, how they were to go about learning, and how their new curricula related to curricula they had studied previously.

Monitoring the Progress of Integration

Teachers monitor newcomers during their first weeks in a class to learn if the students are becoming integrated into the class academically and socially. Teachers in this study used a variety of indicators to assess integration (Table 4.8), but most were signs of social integration. The most frequent clue to integration was whether a newcomer was establishing relationships with peers, with 90% of the interviewed teachers mentioning it.

> I'd see if they had made friends, if they look like they're happy, see how the kids are treating them when they go out of the room and enter back in the room, how they're doing at recess. (AA3a)

> It's how they interact with the other students. If they're crabby or if they're friendly and willing to share. So that's, you know, just by observing their interaction. (AA4)

The next most frequently cited clue to social adjustment was the expression on a newcomer's face. A majority of the teachers (53%) observed students to learn their feelings: happy, bewildered, nervous, anxious, frustrated, or comfortable.

> Whether the child is smiling and if they seem happy and content, I think that's a pretty good indication. If they're morose and not enjoying themselves or enjoying their classmates, something is not going [well], so I judge it just by how content they seem in the classroom. (PB1)

Other clues to social integration were the student's behavior in class (mentioned by 27% of the teachers), the class reaction to the newcomer (17%), and whether the teacher and the newcomer were establishing a working rapport (13%).

Most teachers (53%) also looked to see if newcomers were successful in their school work. This was described variously as success with assignments, academic progress, and satisfactory test scores. Other academic areas teachers watched included whether the newcomers could follow classroom rules and routines (23%), whether they volunteered or shared something in class (17%), whether they followed instructions (13%), and whether they turned in class assignments in a timely fashion (13%).

Only in military schools did academic adjustment equal social adjustment in value, in the teacher's estimation, as a signal of student's integration into a class. In migrant, stable, and urban schools, not more than a third of the indicators mentioned by teachers centered on academic performance. However, this difference between types of schools was not statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 3.06$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .38$).

Time Required for Integration

We asked teachers to estimate the amount of time it took before new students began to function in the class as if they had been part of it from the start of the school year. This was not an easy question for the teachers to answer. Of the 28 teachers queried, only 9 (31%) provided a precise answer, and their answers ranged from 2 days to 2 weeks. Fourteen teachers (50%) answered with a time interval that spanned at least a week and at most a month, and five teachers (18%) could not provide an estimate because they believed the amount of time needed depended on the student who enrolled.

For the 23 teachers who answered with a time estimate, 52% (12 teachers) reported that newcomers become integrated within two weeks from the time or their enrollments. There was a pattern to teacher responses that varied with the type of mobile students they taught, but the differences were not statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 3.9$, df = 3, $p \leq .27$). The percentage of teachers who believed newcomers were integrated into a class within two weeks was 60% for stable schools, 67% for military schools, 40% for agricultural schools, and only 29% for urban schools.

Factors Affecting the Integration Process

From teachers' perspectives, there were a number of factors that contributed to how much time new students needed before becoming integrated into classes (Table 4.9). The type of factors that teachers believed were important did not differ systematically among the four types of schools ($\chi^2 = 13.3$, df = 12, $p \leq .34$). The most common factor reported by 61% of the teachers queried was the new student's personality or attitude. Teachers said whether newcomers were shy or aggressive and whether they had positive or poor attitudes toward school or toward moving influenced their integration into classes. Eleven teachers (38%) identified as key the newcomer's social ability, including the abilities to make friends and get along with classmates.

> How shy the child is is a major factor too. Moving is very hard on some kids, and for others it's just a matter of course and they can handle the changes easily and make friends very quickly. The quieter kids have a harder time because they're more isolated. (PB1)

Eight teachers (28% of respondents) said the academic abilities of newcomers were important to the time it took for integration in the classroom. By academic abilities, teachers included issues of placement, whether the student's abilities and the class work were closely matched, and the severity of any learning problems.

> If their [math] facts are real weak, it takes them a lot longer to move into the concept areas ... whether you're a strong reader or an extremely weak reader ... whether your problem is decoding or whether your problem is you never learned any kind of phonics and you're just kind of memorizing every word you see and try to remember it, or, you know, that kind of thing takes longer. (AE4)

> If everything's different and you're not real quick at catching on to something new and everything you're presented with is something new, then it's tough. (MD5)

> If we had some kind of assessment device for all of our subjects. We do have assessment for reading, but if we could assess them in all the areas, by specialists or somebody who has the time and is not in the classroom, that would save a lot of time too. (PN3)

Program and staff supports were strong recommendations. Thirty-one percent of the teachers recommended extra aides, counselors, resource personnel and specialized programs as ways to support teachers who work with students who move.

> I see lots of kids who could use just some counseling time, just some private time that I can't give them ... Just a lot of hurting things that if I could say, "Why don't we make an appointment for you to talk to the counselor? I think you'll feel better." I think that would help. (AE1)

> The support people that I work with at the school are really terrific though .. They're real flexible. Usually [we have a Compensatory Education person] and usually a reading person. So those are people I can usually count on, and they're real supportive. (PN1)

Except in agricultural schools, teachers (29%) wanted more notice in advance of student enrollment. Teachers did not ask for much notice; learning about a newcomer the day before the student's arrival would be helpful.

> I would like for them to register the child whenever the parents show up and then have the child come the next morning so that at night I could get the things ready and I wouldn't be so scatter-brained the next morning trying to immediately, as soon as the child gets there, to deal with all this stuff. And that would save a lot of stress. (MM3)

Other recommendations were made but only by a few teachers each. Four teachers (14%) recommended that students carry academic information with them to a new teacher. This information could be in various forms: the cumulative record itself, a note from the previous teacher, a form that could be filled out providing the name of textbooks used and page numbers completed, or a form with state curricular guidelines listed as a checklist. The extra forms suggested by teachers would be temporary but immediate: the information they would contain would be confirmed by the arrival of the official cumulative record some weeks later. Four teachers (14%) suggested administrators limit new enrollments in the classrooms either by limiting class sizes or eliminating district programs that moved students from school to school. Three teachers (10%) suggested changes in the curriculum so that there were fewer curricular differences across the state or between neighboring districts.

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Chapter 5: Teacher Perceptions of Student Mobility

The teacher interviews summarized in Chapter 4 provided detailed information about the work and perceptions of a sample of teachers. To gather data more representative of the teachers in the study schools, we surveyed by questionnaire all of the teachers in the eight schools. The purpose of the survey was to learn if student mobility was an issue for teachers, and if it was a greater issue for teachers in schools serving mobile populations than in schools serving stable populations. In addition, the survey was designed to gather teacher opinions about working with students who move and about the supports they have for their work. The first two sections of this chapter describe the development and validation of the opinion scales. Much was learned about teacher perceptions from the validation study. The third section, which may be read first without loss of continuity, uses the scales that result from the questionnaire to examine the opinions of the teachers at the four types of schools.

Opinions About Working With Students Who Move

Twenty-three questionnaire items described opinions about teaching students who transfer to a new school during an academic year. Teachers rated their level of agreement with each opinion. Three measurement scales, each comprised of seven or eight items, were built into the questionnaire to assess : (a) teacher attitudes about student mobility, (b) teacher satisfaction with sources of information about newcomers, and (c) teacher perceptions of their responsibility for the education of students who move. Using factor analysis, we examined how teachers responded to the items and whether the relationships among their responses supported the clustering of items into three separate scales. The analysis (a principle component analysis) resulted in four orthogonal factors that accounted for 46% of the variability in responses. While this analysis partially supported the three-scale design, it suggested that four scales, corresponding to the four factors, would provide a more valid summary of teacher opinions.

Teacher Satisfaction and Benefits of Student Mobility

Eight items were designed originally to assess teacher attitudes toward student mobility. The items reflect positive or negative opinions teachers had expressed at a school

serving a highly mobile population in a single-school, pilot study of student mobility (Lash & Kirkpatrick, in press). The eight items were:

Positive attitudes.

The variety of experiences brought to the classroom by mobile students can be used as a resource for instruction.

New students provide me with ideas about how other teachers do things.

Working with mobile students is exciting.

I am satisfied with my approach to working with children who move.

Working with new students is no different from working with students who started the year in my class.

Negative attitudes.

I would rather not work with students who move.

Student mobility complicates the job of teaching

It is difficult to meet the needs of both a newcomer and the rest of the class at the same time.

When teacher responses to the 23 items were factor analyzed, the items from the attitude scale clustered into two factors, as opposed to clustering together to form one bipolar opinion scale. The first three positive items formed a factor, along with one other item from the information scale (Table 5.1). Items in that factor describe benefits to working with individuals who relocate and an appreciation for the contributions newcomers can make to a class. The remaining five items formed a factor, along with two information items, that described teacher satisfaction in working with students who move. High scores on this factor indicate mobility is not a problem and teachers are satisfied with their approaches to working with mobile students. Low scores on this factor are consistent with the opinion that mobility complicates the job of teaching.

Responsibility for Educating Students Who Move

Eight questionnaire items were written that described teacher responsibility for aiding students in making the transition between instructional settings. The items varied the nature of

the transition: transferring between schools, transferring between classes within the same school, or returning to a class after a lengthy absence. Also varied was the responsibility of the teacher: to assess student abilities, to learn about the student's previous instruction, and to help the student adjust to the new situation.

I. Return from lengthy absence.

~~Assessment:~~ Past Instruction	When a student returns to my class from an absence of a month or more, it is my responsibility to find out what instruction was provided the student, if any.
Adjustment:	When a student is absent from my class for a month or more, I am responsible for the student's adjustment upon reentry.

II. Transfer between classes in one school.

Assessment:	When a student transfers to my class from another class in the school, it is my responsibility to find out what the student knows and is able to do.
Past Instruction:	When a student transfers to my class from another class in this school, it is my responsibility to find out about the instruction provided in the previous class.
Adjustment:	When a student from my class transfers to another teacher's class in this school, I share responsibility for the student's adjustment to the new class.

III. Transfer between schools.

Assessment:	When a student from another school enrolls in my class, it is my responsibility to find out what the student knows and is able to do.
Past Instruction:	When a student from another school enrolls in my class, it is my responsibility to find out about the curriculum and instruction provided at the student's previous school.
Adjustment:	When a student from my class transfers to another school, I share responsibility for the student's adjustment to the new class.

A responsibility scale, containing six of the eight items, was supported by the factor analysis (Table 5.1). The resulting scale describes teacher responsibility for students in their

school. The two items that did not correlate with the responsibility factor, and thus were not part of the resulting scale, described transfers between schools. Teachers did not perceive the responsibility for a student's adjustment to a class in another school or the responsibility for learning about the curriculum of another school to relate to the other six responsibilities. From the teachers' perspective, however, the responsibility for assessing new students from other schools was related to the responsibilities for transitions that occur within their school.

Importance of Students' Educational Histories

Seven questionnaire items were constructed that describe opinions about the type of information teachers receive about new students and information they need to assess student learning needs. They were intended to form a scale about teacher satisfaction with information sources:

> It is important to know if a new student's previous math instruction followed a basic skills approach or a problem-solving approach.
>
> It is important for me to know if a new student's previous reading instruction followed a whole-language approach or a basic skills approach.
>
> I try not to read a newcomer's cumulative folder.
>
> It is not important for me to know about the curricular approach used in a new student's previous school.
>
> The cumulative folder provides sufficient information for me to place newcomers in my curriculum.
>
> Most students can accurately describe what they have studied in a subject area.
>
> Placement tests that accompany my textbooks provide the information I need to place a student in the curriculum.

In the analysis of teacher responses, the first five items clustered together in a factor along with the two items about teacher responsibility that did not correlate with the responsibility factor. High scores on this factor indicate teacher interest in the educational histories of their students, including past curricula, the information contained in cumulative folders, and student adjustment to future classes.

The two remaining items clustered with other factors, but there are no clear explanations as to why this occurred. The item concerning the accuracy of students' self-assessment loaded most strongly, and positively, with the factor that described teacher satisfaction. Apparently teachers who are satisfied with their approaches to working with mobile students also perceive student self-reports of previous instruction as accurate. The item about placement tests loaded most strongly, and negatively, with the items that describe benefits to working with mobile students. Teachers who report learning valuable information from the new students in their classes apparently do not believe they obtain sufficient information about students from the tests provided by their textbooks.

School Characteristics and Resources

A second portion of the questionnaire contained 22 items grouped into three scales designed to assess (a) the importance of student mobility to the faculty and administration of a school, (b) the amount of support teachers perceived from their principals, and (c) the amount of support they perceived from the parents of students who move. Again, teachers responded by rating their level of agreement with the statements. A principal component analysis of these data resulted in four orthogonal factors, accounting for 45% of the variability in responses.

Mobility As An Issue for the School

A ten-item scale was designed to assess how important student mobility was as an issue for the faculty and administration at the school. The items stated opinions about student mobility in the school, described faculties that worked together to solve problems created by student mobility, and described school programs established to accommodate student mobility.

Student mobility in the school.

Anyone considering a teaching position at this school should be told how many of our students move during the school year.

Working with students who move is a key aspect of my job as a teacher.

Student mobility is not an issue at this school.

Faculties working together.

As a faculty, we share ideas about working with students who move.

As a faculty, we share books and materials in order to meet the needs of children who move.

It would be unusual for teachers at this school to talk about student mobility.

At faculty meetings we frequently discuss topics related to student mobility.

School programs.

Our school provides special orientation materials to newcomers and their parents.

Our school has established procedures to help teachers work with newcomers.

Our school has enough books and supplies to serve the students who enroll during the year.

In the factor analysis of the 22 questionnaire items, not all of these ten items clustered together to form a factor (Table 5.2). The first six items, however, formed a factor of their own. The factor contained the three statements about student mobility at the school and the first three statements about the school faculty. The statement concerning faculty meetings and all statements about school programs related more highly to other items than to this factor. The measurement scale resulting from this analysis assessed teachers' perceptions of the importance of student mobility to the teachers at the school. High scores indicated mobility was important. It was discussed among teachers and was a key aspect of their jobs as teachers.

School-Level Teaching Support

Six items were written to assess teachers' views of how strongly principals responded to student mobility. The first three statements describe situations in which principals allocated resources to support teachers' work with mobile students, the fourth describes a task often shared between principals and teachers, and the remaining two items concern the supervisory role of the principal:

The principal has identified student mobility as a topic for inservice training.

The principal has hired extra staff to help teachers work with students who move.

The principal routinely visits my class to see how newcomers are adjusting.

I am able to influence the assignment of new students to my class.

The way I work with new students is a factor in my performance evaluations.

The principal recognizes that student mobility is an important factor affecting my job as a teacher.

The first four of these items formed a factor that also contained two of the items originally written for the "issue" factor: (a) At faculty meetings we frequently discuss topics related to student mobility, and (b) Our school has enough books and supplies to serve the students who enroll during the year. It is important to note that all but the last item, concerning books and supplies, related positively to this factor. Apparently, in schools where principals provide resources such as inservice training and extra staff to help teachers work with mobile students, the amount of books and supplies are insufficient to serve the number of students who enroll. It is interesting that the question about faculty meetings related more strongly to the principal items than to the other items about faculty interactions. It may be that teachers distinguished informal conversations among teachers from discussions that occurred at faculty meetings, associating the latter with the principal who typically leads the meetings. The factor that resulted may be interpreted to measure perceptions of the amount of administrative support for working with mobile populations that is provided by the school. Higher scores indicate greater support.

Parent Support

The six questionnaire items designed to assess teacher perceptions of the support provided by parents to students who move were highly intercorrelated, and they formed a factor of their own. High scores on this factor indicate teachers view parents as active participants in the education of the mobile students.

Newcomers' parents tell me their children's strengths and weaknesses.

Newcomer's parents bring information to me from the previous school.

Before students move to another school, their parents ask me for information to take to the teacher.

Parents of new students are willing to work with me to catch the student up to the class.

Parents accompany new students to my class on their first day.

Most parents of newcomers could do more to help their children adjust to a new school.

Specialized School Programs

A fourth factor resulted from the analysis of teacher responses. It contained three items that originally were written for other scales but that did not correlate with those scales. Two had been designed to assess the importance of mobility as an issue to the school; they were the final two items describing school programs. One of these items defined this factor: "Our school provides special orientation materials to newcomers and their parents." The second item also related moderately with the other factors: "Our school has established procedures to help teachers work with newcomers." The third item that correlated more highly with this factor than with others was: "The principal recognizes that student mobility is an important factor affecting my job as a teacher." With only three items, this factor is not easily interpreted and for that reason further analyses exclude this factor.

Comparison of Teacher Perceptions Among Four Types of Schools

Are teacher perceptions of student mobility related to the type of student population served by their schools? To address this question, teacher ratings on seven opinion scales were examined. The seven scales were identified from factor analyses of teacher responses to 45 questionnaire items. Four scales assess teacher perceptions about working with mobile students, and the three others assess perceptions about school characteristics. Using analysis of variance, the scales were examined for effects of mobility type--agricultural, military, urban, or stable--and effects for schools nested within type (Table 5.3). In this discussion, quotations from teacher interviews are used to enhance the meaning of the survey results.

Teacher Perceptions About Working with Mobile Students

Teachers from all four populations held similar views about their responsibility for educating the students in their schools. Differences existed between schools serving the same population, however, indicating that teacher perceptions of responsibility may be influenced by school characteristics in addition to the type of mobile population served.

The remaining three scales displayed systematic differences among the four types of student mobility, but not between schools of the same type. Urban school teachers reported less satisfaction with their experiences in teaching mobile students than did teachers in other types of schools. One urban teacher from the interview sample explained mobility complicated her job in this way:

> It's easier to have kids throughout the whole year because you get to know them and they get to know you, so everybody knows where we are. [With] the new student I have to go through that learning process again, and it's time-consuming ... It's not that I mind doing that. I like doing that, but when you get the ball rolling and then students leave and some other students come in, you have to go through that again ... It takes time away from something else. (UB6)

Teachers in urban schools also perceived less benefit to working with mobile students than did teachers in other schools. Teachers in migrant and military schools had the highest ratings for benefits of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire. In the interview sample, no teachers from urban schools provided examples of positive impacts of student mobility, but teachers in migrant and military schools did describe benefits.

> Often students that move around have wonderful experiences from where they've lived, so you have a lot of cultural things they bring to the classroom. When we study about Japan or we study about Mexico, some of them will say, "Oh, I've been there." (MM1)

> The students get to see people coming from different places ... It gives kids a feeling "oh, there are kids who move, "or"look, you've come from a different place," and we talk about where they come from. (AE1).

> I think there's a friendship established. I get a kick out of these kids coming back and I'm sure a lot of the kids do too. You know, "Myra's back in town." There are some positive things here. You make some cultural things and, sometimes a kid comes in and they've already had the fractions and they're the whiz and they're showing people how to do it. A lot of them bring a good, positive attitude towards school (AE5)

On the third scale, the importance of the educational history of students, military teachers' ratings were lower, indicating that a students' educational history was less important to them than to teachers at other types of schools. Because students from military families travel and attend schools throughout the world, their teachers may feel they have fewer

opportunities or less reason to gather this information or to prepare students to move to other schools.

Although some teachers in the questionnaire survey, particularly in military schools, did not rate the educational history of students as important to them, teachers who were interviewed did recognize that relocation disrupts the continuity of a student's education.

> It fragments their education, because where I am in May may not be where the teacher they go to is in May. They may have catching up to do, or they may be far ahead and not stimulated in the time it takes for that other class to catch up. (AE1)

> And sometimes too, there may be gaps. Maybe I've already covered verbs, for instance, and adjectives by the time that a new student comes in, and they haven't had it, and so then they don't really get it in fourth grade. (MD4)

> Since school districts don't ... necessarily use the same [reading] programs ... the consistency isn't there for them. Especially if they move from a look-see program to a phonetic-based program (PB1)

It may be that teachers recognize a problem exists but, perhaps for practical reasons, they are unable to solve that problem or accept responsibility for finding a solution.

School Characteristics and Support

There were systematic differences among teachers from the four types of schools on the three scales related to school characteristics and support. Reliable differences between schools of the same type existed also. Thus teacher opinions about school characteristics and supports were related to the type of mobile population served and also to other school-level variables not measured in this study.

Student mobility varied in importance as an issue in schools. As expected, mobility was least important in stable schools. Among the three mobile populations, teachers in urban schools perceived mobility to be a greater issue than did teachers in migrant and military schools.

Urban school teachers reported the lowest levels of parent support, while teachers in military schools reported the highest levels. This finding based on the questionnaire survey is consistent with the interview data. Teachers in military schools reported they routinely

delegated to parents the task of tutoring or drilling students so that they could catch up with the rest of the class. It was also the case that parents in the military learned relocation dates several weeks in advance of their move, and thus they were able to inform teachers and request information to take to the next school.

Administrative supports for teaching mobile students were rated highest by teachers in migrant schools. This finding also is consistent with reports obtained in interviews. The agricultural schools had special funds and programs designed specifically to help them teach migrant students. Appleton had established a core program where migrant students worked with a bilingual teacher for a portion of the day, and there were teacher aides from migrant education programs in the classrooms of Elm School. None of the other schools had programs specifically to assist teachers who worked with mobile students.

Summary of Teacher Perceptions

The analyses of teacher responses to the survey questionnaire indicated that it was possible to measure teacher perceptions of student mobility, that teachers differed in their perceptions, and that those differences related to the type of mobile population they taught. Further, findings from the survey questionnaire generally were consistent with information provided in teacher interviews.

The factor analyses supported the development of four opinion scales about working with students who move and three scales about school characteristics. Of the four concerning students, one scale assessed teachers' satisfaction in their work with mobile populations. High scores indicated student mobility was not perceived as a problem by teachers. A second scale summarized benefits to working with mobile students. High scores on this scale were consistent with the belief that newcomers brought valuable ideas and experiences to a class. A third scale assessed teachers' views of their responsibility for instructing students in their schools. Teachers who received high scores on this scale perceived themselves as responsible for assessing learning needs of new students, for learning about instruction students received while away from their classes, and for helping students adjust to other classes in their schools. A fourth scale measured teacher perceptions of the importance of the educational history of newcomers. Teachers who scored high on this scale valued information obtained from and about

other schools, including information about a new student's previous instruction and information about a former student's adjustment to a new class.

The three scales about school characteristics summarized teacher opinions of the importance of student mobility as an issue in the schools and the level of support provided by parents of movers and the school administration for working with mobile students. Teachers scoring high on the issue scale reported that student mobility was an important characteristic of their schools, and it was a topic discussed among the faculty. High scores on the scale of parent support indicated teachers viewed parents as active partners with teachers in the education of students who move. Parents brought information about their children to teachers and were willing to work with teachers to integrate new students into classes. Administrative supports, provided primarily by principals, comprised the final scale. Higher scores indicated teachers perceived greater support.

There were two unexpected findings from the factor analyses, both of which resulted from analysis of teacher opinions about working with mobile students. First, benefits to working with mobile students did not correlate highly with the factor describing teacher satisfaction. Instead, the items formed a second, orthogonal factor. This finding suggests that teacher perceptions about the ease or difficulty of working with mobile students was not related to beliefs about the worth of the experiences and information newcomers brought to their classes. For some teachers there may have been few problems and few benefits to working with mobile students. It is not inconsistent for teachers who were unsatisfied or who believed mobility complicated their jobs to recognize benefits of working with mobile students.

The second unexpected result was the formation of a factor which we interpreted as the importance teachers place on information about the educational histories of students. That factor was unrelated to teacher perceptions of their responsibility for educating the students in their schools. The level of responsibility teachers accepted for students enrolled in their schools was not related to the interest they took in the past or future education of those same students, if the education occurred at other schools. There was a limit to teacher responsibility that became clear on inspection of responses to the eight items in the original responsibility scale. Figure 5.1 positions the items along a portion of the four-point rating scale at the average rating given by the 166 teachers in the study. Standard errors for the average are noted in the figure. Teachers reported significantly lower levels of responsibility for the

situations that might require them to gather information from sources outside their schools than for situations that required information available in their schools. To a lesser extent, classroom boundaries limited teacher responsibility also. As compared with situations that occurred in their classrooms, such as assessing students, teachers reported feeling less responsibility for the situations that might require them to look outside their own classrooms, such as learning about the instruction another teacher in the school provided a student.

There are important implications raised by the separation of teacher perceptions about the importance of a student's educational history and about their own responsibility for educating students in their schools. Even teachers who accepted a high degree of responsibility for the students in their schools may not have accepted that the education of their students is a process that spans a number of years and perhaps a number of schools. Teachers who did not believe it was important to learn about the educational history of a student could not build on that history in any systematic way. They limit their own ability to help a student make connections between material that was already learned and new information.

Teacher perceptions varied systematically with the type of student population they taught. As expected, student mobility was not an important issue in schools serving stable communities. Mobility was reported to be an important issue by teachers in urban schools, who also reported the least amount of benefit from and satisfaction in working with students who move. The opinions of the teachers in urban schools may be due to a perceived or actual lack of support for their work with mobile students. Teachers in military schools reported high levels of parent support, and teachers in agricultural schools high levels of administrative support. Teachers in urban schools reported lower levels of support from both parents and school administration. Teacher perceptions of support were consistent with descriptions of programs and practices that a smaller sample of teachers had provided in interviews.

Chapter 6: School Level Responses to Student Mobility

The primary focus of this study was on how teachers responded to student mobility. Since school level decisions establish the context or boundaries for classroom instructional and management systems, it is important to understand the context within which teachers make management and instructional decisions. Further, a knowledge of school level practices for placing new students is necessary, because those practices might alter the effects of student mobility in the classroom. This information was acquired in interviews with the principals at the study schools.

Student mobility also serves as a practical dilemma confronted by principals in six of the eight study schools. That context of mobility, and how principals understand the educational needs it engenders, affects their decisionmaking. An underlying assumption is that the goal for these principals is to act so as to best promote and sustain productive learning outcomes for all the students in their schools, stable as well as mobile. Two questions guided our thinking in this study of principals:

1. Are the strategies used by principals in mobile schools different from those of principals in stable schools? e.g., how does student mobility affect the decisions typically made by principals?

2. What commitments do principals make in order to provide services to students who move vs. those who are stable? e.g., how does the principal organize her world to provide education to all students?

Student Mobility and the Principal's Job

In order to first determine if principals believed that student mobility affected their jobs, we asked four questions. Two of those questions focussed on the principal and two questions required the principal to describe how mobility affected the students themselves.

Principal Focus

Seven principals agreed that student mobility did affect their jobs (Table 6.1); even in stable schools, principals said student mobility would make their jobs more difficult. The

single exception, the principal of a military school, said mobility didn't affect her job. She then proceeded to describe the things she did that were a direct response to student mobility. Principals from all four types of schools agreed that there were three areas in which student mobility would make the job of principal more difficult: extra burdens in clerical and administrative work, extra effort in getting to know students, and additional time required in getting to know new families. Further, principals in the urban schools described the added task of coordinating the services provided by outside social and welfare agencies. Principals in agricultural schools said that curricular adjustments and finding money to support those adjustments added to the complexity of their jobs. There was one principal, at a military school, who mentioned that student mobility was hard on the teachers.

When asked what advice should be provided a new principal in a school with lots of student mobility, the responses of principals in mobile schools had more to do with personal characteristics than with strategies for solving problems. Five principals, all from mobile schools, said that new principals should be advised to have patience and flexibility. More concrete suggestions included adjusting the curriculum, adjusting the staff, and adjusting administrative routines (two mobile school principals for each suggestion). One urban school principal suggested calling on someone with experience and learning from them.

Student Focus

Responses to questions about how mobility affected the education of students who did or did not move appeared to vary by the degree of student mobility principals experienced in their own schools (Table 6.2). Principals in stable schools said that newcomers brought valuable experiences to the stable students in their schools. One principal said mobility might be hard on the mover, but the other thought moving enhanced a student's own education.

Principals in military schools said that moving had no impact on the stable students, but admitted that they had very few students who had not moved. They both agreed that the problems for movers related to a lack of continuity in their education, that they were required to make so many transitions among many different curricula.

One agricultural school principal said that moving was a problem for both the movers and the stable students. First, moving impacted the education of mobile students because they

missed large blocks of time in school but still had to compete with students who had been enrolled for the entire year. For stable students, newcomers required that a teacher's attention be taken away from them for a period of time, impacting the pace of their learning.

One urban school principal felt "very badly about the mobility," while the other saw movers as less likely to attend school immediately after moving, developing a poor attitude toward school, and more likely to finally drop out of school. Both principals of urban schools agreed that student mobility was disruptive in classrooms for movers and nonmovers alike, focussing teacher attention toward newcomers for a day or two while the "other kids have to usually be put on hold."

Student Mobility and Principal Decisionmaking

We categorized typical principal responsibilities into three broad areas:

1. Planning, including budgeting, staffing, materials, scheduling, and logistics.

2. Instructional Leadership, including school-wide curricular and management programs, administrative support, and parent participation.

3. Supervision of Teacher Work, including resources, training and evaluation.

Planning

Data collection was organized around the planning dimension by asking principals how student mobility affected their decisions about staff, budget, calendar, and about tradeoffs they made in their decisions. We were particularly interested in how principals accommodated changing school populations in the decisions they were required to make. Since the decisions principals make about providing services to students are constrained by state education code and district policy, we believed that this area of questioning would also provide clues about how responsive schools could be to student mobility (Table 6.3).

Principals in schools with mobile student populations faced planning challenges that were not evident in stable schools, primarily because needs were continually changing. The issues raised by mobility had effects on budgeting, staffing, materials, space, and the programs

and services a school provided. Principals of schools with high student mobility had differing strategies for resolving issues brought on by student mobility within the given constraints.

Budgeting. Decisions about budgets were problematic for principals in schools with lots of student mobility for several reasons. First, the budget was generally prepared a year in advance. Often line item allocations were based on student enrollment at a given point during the previous school year or on an assumption of maximum enrollment.

> We're given an allocation in our budget, and it goes according to the CBEDS, which is the enrollment from the previous October. And then when I'm given that allocation, that's the money that I have to work with. So, since I had a hundred less students this year at this school, my budget was cut accordingly. (McArthur).

Second, specialized funding for particular needs was often controlled at the district level, and authority for supervising and directing that work lay outside the school itself. Within the school budget, the principal's authority to make tradeoff decisions occurred at the very heart of the educational enterprise -- purchasing a copy machine rather than enrichment programs, relinquishing a compensatory education teacher for a counselor, and searching for ways to provide needed services free.

Staffing. Adequate staffing to the number of students served in schools with high student mobility was a big issue. Except in stable schools, principals were unable to determine how many students needed to be served at each grade level until they arrived. In the study schools, hiring a new full-time teacher was a district responsibility. Principals typically had to negotiate with the district for the number of teachers needed based on an enrollment figure at a given point in time. "I basically fight for the number of teachers I have, and if the district decides that [it sees] our numbers differently than I do, they [at the district] decide" (Ninth Street). In urban and agricultural schools, federal resources were available through Chapter 1 and Migrant Education provisions to hire extra personnel to work with specifically designated children, whether they moved or not. At least in the case of migrant funding, principals had no authority over their work, supervision, or evaluation, which was accomplished by a regional Office of Migrant Education.

Not only did class sizes fluctuate during the year, but students who left were not always replaced by students at the same grade level. Principals in mobile schools were continually adjusting classes to distribute students evenly. For instance, class sizes in migrant schools were

set so that fall classes met district requirements. When migrant students left, class sizes fell to around 20 students. When the migrants returned, some classes could get no new students and others could get 20 new students. Moreover, because of their relatively isolated locations, there were no other schools in the area that could enroll excess students at a given grade level. Principals at military and urban schools solved the problems created by an uneven distribution of students by sending excess students to another school, by combining grade levels within classes, or by moving students from one class to another during the year as enrollments changed.

Classroom Materials. Shortages of classroom materials often occurred in schools that served more students than there were seats. Principal strategies for resolving this issue included providing teachers with their own budgets for consumables and allowing them to purchase supplies as needed, having students reuse workbooks, and purchasing a copy machine to make extra copies of workbooks. One principal commented, "Teachers understand if we have a shortage of supplies. They're very good about it and very understanding." (McArthur)

The School Calendar. Another area where principals in schools with highly mobile student populations made changes was in the school calendar. Generally, the district determined the calendar for the entire school year, often in negotiation with the teacher union, and, at least in the case of one agricultural school, tied to particular needs in the community. However, two principals said they had successfully lobbied to have state testing scheduled for a later part of the school year in their schools. "We try to get [CTBS testing] done early in May, before most of the kids start to leave." (Doolittle) "Why would you test midyear at a school like this? It just doesn't make sense. The later the better, till everybody's in and settled and keeps coming in." (Broadway) At a school serving military students, the principal had to establish a promotion date: if a student left the school before that date, she would not recommend promotion to the next grade.

Space. Accommodating changing student populations was a problem only in agricultural schools. Once urban and military schools reached maximum enrollment at a given grade, excess students were transferred to another school in the district. In the rural areas served by the two agricultural schools, there were no other schools where excess numbers of students could be sent. Principals in these two schools had strategies for meeting space demands, but confessed to the difficulty of meeting needs adequately. "I have no control over that. I'm allocated no funds for room, so wherever I can put those poor children, that is where

they go. It's very difficult." (Appleton). "Space is a real problem at this point. We don't have a space left in the school. We've converted closets, we've converted bathrooms. There is no space left." (Elm).

Summary. Student mobility did influence the planning decisions principals made, and there were differences among principals about how that factor affected their decisions. The number of ways that student mobility affected planning decisions was greater in agricultural and urban schools than in military schools. There were also differences in the strategies that principals used to confront issues raised by student mobility. Some principals solved planning problems at a school level through educational program choices or a flexible attitude toward space. Other principals determined that the best place to solve problems related to student mobility was in the classroom; they delegated authority for supply budgets to teachers and hired specialized personnel to help teachers as they worked with mobile students.

Instructional Leadership

Data collection was organized around the instructional leadership dimension by asking principals how student mobility affected their decisions and activities in the areas of curriculum, administration, school rules and routines, and parent involvement. Since this is an area where principals have a great deal of autonomy, we looked for consistent differences in the way students who move were treated vis a vis their stable peers.

Curriculum. There appear to be no systematic differences in curricular decisions made by principals in stable schools from those in schools with high student mobility (Table 6.4). Classroom teachers generally assessed new students' reading and math ability with support, particularly in urban schools, from reading specialists. Where they existed, instructional programs that crossed classroom boundaries were put in place in order to provide more individual attention to students, not as a response to mobility per se. Indeed, even when asked, principals in schools with the highest student mobility had ambivalent opinions as to whether such programs made it easier or more difficult for teachers to work with mobile students: "I would like to believe it makes it easier. I don't know what the teachers would say. Basically they're the ones initiating this." (Broadway). "I don't know. I think they [the teachers] think it makes it easier." (Ninth Street). In three schools with mobile students, including both military schools, principals said that mobility would not be a factor in the

decision to adopt a new curriculum. In one urban school, the principal said that the self-esteem of the many low achievers in her school would be the most important element in selecting a new curriculum. In another mobile school, the district selected the curriculum, and one principal of an agricultural school was not asked.

Administration. With one exception, new students in the study schools were placed in their classrooms the same day they registered (Table 6.5), though the number of reasons why that wasn't always possible was greater in schools with mobile students:

> It depends on when they get here. If they're here at 1:00, we ask them to wait until the next day. If they're here first thing in the morning, yes, they are placed. But it also depends upon a number of things. We always check their heads for lice. If they have lice, they go home. If they don't have the information to enroll, we don't enroll them. (Ninth Street)

One urban school had a policy of placing students in class the day following registration, allowing teachers 24 hours to prepare. The other schools provided very little or no notice to teachers of a new arrival. Nor was there any systematic difference in the basis used to place students in classrooms: the majority of principals placed students where there were empty seats at that grade level, balancing the student load per teacher. Where possible, they also tried to balance classrooms by sex, behavior problems and/or special needs. Three schools placed students according to their reading or ability level. This process differed from that used to make up new classes in the fall, which generally involved teachers in the decision. Again, there were no systematic differences between stable and mobile schools.

School Routines. Stable schools did not provide a formal orientation intended to convey school rules and routines to new students; half of the schools serving mobile students did (Table 6.6). In stable schools, information about rules and routines was generally provided directly to the students, though newsletters were intended for parent consumption as well. Typically, principals in schools serving mobile populations sought multiple avenues for informing and orienting new students. All but one school serving mobile students used handbooks to provide information about school rules and routines, primarily for parents. In schools with more mobility, principals typically used separate strategies to get information to the parents and their children, in addition to newsletters and notices meant for both audiences.

Though all study schools had some sort of school-wide management system in place, information about how it worked was conveyed to students differently in mobile and stable schools. In stable schools, that information was conveyed directly to the new student by classroom buddies and either the office staff or the teacher. Classmates were not the primary source of information about the management systems in mobile schools. In half of these schools, a handbook described the system to both students and their parents. In half the mobile schools, there were regular, formal reviews of the rules, including assemblies conducted by the principal.

Parents and Transitions. A parent handbook, or parent/student handbook was provided to parents in seven of the study schools, including all of those serving mobile student populations. Typically this handbook described school routines -- hours for class, special programs -- and rules governing student behavior and homework. There were differences though, in how principals perceived parental support for their students. In stable and military schools, principals described parents as supportive either at home or as volunteers in the classroom, or both. One military school principal described parental support as "... the preparation that they do before they get here." (McArthur). Another military school principal described a unique resource that helped her provide services to students -- the military itself:

> The dad's real mad because he was supposed to go remote to Korea for the year, and because there were lots of problems involved with this child, I called Major G who happens to be the head of ... Family Services. And they called [the boy] in and Dad ... we called to make sure that [the boy] needed help right away. And so then the dad's orders were canceled...and so what I do with that is, before I go to the SARB [Student Attendance Review Board], I'll call the First Sergeant and say ... "This is the pattern, and we may have to go to SARB over it." And usually it doesn't happen again. (Doolittle).

Principals in migrant and urban schools described little direct contact with parents. Concerns about students were channeled to parents through a migrant liaison in one agricultural school.

> They're out working in the fields most of them, and their person that they count on is ... the migrant aide, paid for out of migrant funds, who's on our site. She visits the camp, she tells them what's going on, she meets with them, she does home visits, and she is their person that they rely on for information. But we very rarely see them. They're busy all the time. (Appleton).

Principals in urban schools said that parents of mobile students did not help ease the transition of their children to a new school. Often, the school did not know a student was leaving and so could not provide any materials that would ease the transition.

> We ask that they let us know. I ask in newsletters and I ask in the parent handbook, that if they're going to leave, to let us know ... I ask again if they move during the summer to please call us, but very often we're dealing with so many disconnects, even if I call them during the summer I'll never find out because they're disconnected ... So we may be saying a kid is unexcused in his absence for two weeks, and all of a sudden we figure out they really moved. (Ninth Street).

To ease the transition when students leave for another school, most schools updated the student's cumulative record so that it was ready when the new school requested it. Agricultural and military schools did other things as well. Report cards, notes from teachers, transcripts and current progress reports were often prepared, and military schools typically handed the cumulative file over to the moving families to carry to the next school if it was abroad or out-of-state.

Summary. Though student mobility did not affect a principal's curricular decisions, it did affect class assignment processes, and hence the makeup of classrooms. Administratively, some principals used strategies to relieve teachers of some of the burden of integrating new students into the classroom by providing assessment and orientation through the front office. Typically, principals in schools with more mobility used more avenues to communicate information to both students and parents than did stable schools. As in stable schools, parents were a considerable resource to military school principals. That was not so in agricultural and urban schools.

Supervision of Teachers

The effects of student mobility are experienced in the classroom, challenging teachers both instructionally and managerially. It is reasonable to assume that mobility would have an impact on the decisions principals make in their supervision of teachers. Data collection was organized around this dimension by asking principals about the skills needed by teachers to work in mobile settings, whether those skills were formally evaluated, and how student mobility affected principal decisions about the support and resources made available to teachers.

Skills. The principals in all study schools agreed on the qualities possessed by a teacher particularly effective in working with mobile students (Table 6.7). However, mobile school principals evaluated teachers on specific skills that would best serve the students in their schools. Five of the six principals at mobile schools described personal characteristics possessed by successful teachers in those settings, including flexibility, an acceptance and understanding of individual differences, patience, and a sense of caring. Other skills mentioned by principals included diagnosing student learning needs, adjusting the curriculum appropriately to individual needs, planning and organization, and a variety of teaching techniques. Mobile school principals, particularly those in urban schools, emphasized that highly skilled teachers were a priority for them. They explained that such teachers were able to work successfully with an entire class, never knowing who was going to move. These principals evaluated teachers primarily on technical skill in teaching, especially in schools serving military populations, and diagnosis, particularly in the agricultural schools.

Resources. Five of the six principals in mobile schools found many ways to support teachers as they worked with mobile students, despite constraints (Table 6.8). Principals in schools serving mobile student populations were unable to provide teachers extra time for planning because of district policy or union contracts. However, two did provide extra preparation time for teachers, one thanks to lottery funding and the other by not convening school meetings on district scheduled minimum days. Half the principals in mobile schools had found inservice training programs that were useful for working with students who moved, and supported their teachers in those programs. These included skills for integrating new students provided in ESL training, teachers' own "metacognition" gained as they evaluated themselves teaching on videotape, and idea fairs on motivation and methodology for working with high risk children. Though all principals claimed they were a resource for teachers having difficulty working with students who moved, there were also specialized staff available to help, including bilingual teachers, resource specialists, reading specialists, a psychologist, a counselor and the grade team of which the teacher was a member. One principal cited 10 individuals or resources available to teachers in her school for help in working with mobile students.

Summary. Student mobility did affect the decisions principals made as they supervised teachers. Particular skills and techniques were valued, and opportunities were

provided for teachers to acquire them. Specialized personnel were generally made available to help teachers work with students who moved.

Discussion

In this study of eight principals, student mobility was a factor that affected the decisions principals made as they structured school environments. Student mobility affected long and short term planning, administrative processes, communication strategies, and the support and supervision of teachers. Student mobility was not a factor in the curricular decisions made by principals.

Though there were areas where principals had limited authority to respond, there were differences in how principals structured school environments in schools with different types of student mobility. Those differences might be reflected in the way that resources closest at hand were used. For instance, military school principals were able to include parents as a resource for teachers, even if pressure from military authorities was required, to help students overcome the difficulties caused by changing curricula. Principals in urban and agricultural schools did not rely on parents, but had access to grants, specialized funding and personnel, and could use those resources to help teachers work with students who moved. Other differences might have to do with decisions about how to best meet individual student needs. For instance, one principal regularly moved students from classroom to classroom in order to provide them appropriately targeted instruction; another provided separate instruction for migrant students during part of the school day.

The strategies used by these principals to accommodate changing school populations were different in each school type. In planning decisions, principals in military schools sought solutions to problems of student mobility primarily at the school level. Principals in agricultural and urban schools sought solutions to planning problems at both the classroom and the school level. Principals in agricultural and military schools tended to defer decisions about curricular issues to classroom teachers, while urban school principals were most likely to seek school level solutions. Urban school principals were more likely than those in other schools to treat new student placement as a school level problem, rather than a classroom problem. Principals in schools with student mobility were more likely to use multiple avenues of communication to both students and families than were stable schools.

Principals recognized the extra effort student mobility required of classroom teachers. They reported that teachers were provided with resources, such as time, training and specialized personnel, to help them with students who moved into their classrooms. If that support was not readily available through district resources, principals searched for ways to provide it, sometimes by way of volunteered services and sometimes at the expense of other school priorities. Principals in schools with student mobility emphasized particular skills in teacher evaluations rather than personal characteristics, especially in agricultural schools.

How responsive are schools to student mobility? In this study, it appears that the response is limited. The reasons for this seem to lie outside the school itself, primarily with the long term planning accomplished at the district level, and the constraints on principal autonomy that came from funding formulae, lines of authority, and union negotiations. Examples include a budget based on enrollment at a previous point in time or a maximum enrollment for the school; staff hires based on district priorities; staff supervised by another authority; and union-negotiated preparation time.

When principals had developed ways to respond to issues raised by mobility, it was generally at the expense of other students in the school, a tradeoff several did not want made common knowledge. Other principals simply said they could not plan for mobility and operated their schools as though it did not occur. Their strategy was to plan for maximum enrollment at all times:

> We can't plan for what might be. We only plan for what we have right now. And that's basically how I plan. I look at what we have right now. I promote everybody up, and I pray that they all come back. (Ninth Street).

Some patterns emerged in the different strategies principals used when confronting the problem of student mobility. Examining the answers principals gave about decisions they made, or the reasons for their decisions, we could see that some planned for mobility by thinking of the number of seats in the school that were always filled with students, no matter who those students were. Others planned for the large number of individual students who passed through the school during the year.

Principals who thought in terms of the number of seats in the school tended to look toward school level solutions: planning, budget tradeoffs and calendar issues were confronted at

the school rather than class level, new students were placed in empty seats in ways that kept class enrollments numerically even, and the school office was involved in conveying rules and routines to new students.

> So you still can't have more than that number [specified by the state] of students, so you only have that amount of books, and you have that amount paper and pencils and what have you ... Kids, the population in your classroom can change, but the desks will still be 34, and the books will still be the same, and the paper will still be the same, because it's just [different students]. (Doolittle).

Principals who thought in terms of the individual students who passed through the school tended to provide teachers with the autonomy to make adjustments in the classroom: classroom budgets allowed teachers to make tradeoffs as needed within each class, instruction that crossed classroom boundaries was arranged by teachers and confined to grade level or subject matter, new students were placed with some thought given to balancing the classroom composition, and conveying school rules and routines was delegated to the teacher and other students in the class.

> We've put a tremendous amount of money into the copy machine. I mean, those things are astronomical. [It costs a great deal] to service the thing and to feed it, not counting paper, just all the other stuff. And I think that's one of the areas we've put a lot of money into because of mobility...Trying to duplicate materials rather than having, you know, , st 20 p.ges of a workbook used or something like that. (Elm).

Reviewers went back to the transcripts of the principal interviews and read them through. Then reviewers rated the principals to whether they responded to student mobility as if it were an issue of providing services to individual students or to seats in classrooms. A 1-5 scale was used, where one represented an individual student approach and five represented a seat approach. When we compared approaches across school types (Table 6.9), it was possible to see a relationship between the type of student mobility and the degree of student or seat focussed response to the dilemma. Principals in urban and agricultural schools were the most seat focussed and principals in stable schools were the most student focussed. While this is not conclusive, it suggests that student mobility might influence principal decisionmaking toward school-level solutions.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Recommendations

Students do move, and enough of them move frequently enough to present educators with some important educational challenges -- in schools serving mobile populations, as much as 50% of the student body is enrolled for less than a school year. Teachers and principals alike say the effects of student mobility on their jobs are substantial. Who those students are and the pattern of their educational needs have been examined only for the children of seasonal agricultural workers.

The issues confronted by those who work with migrant students, documented by 20 years of research, are no less salient for other students who move. As with migrants, students who move cannot be provided education in a manner consistent with the conventional image of schooling, at a single school site within a standard calendar. As with migrants, information about the special needs of students who move and their educational histories is difficult to obtain in time to help teachers address students' needs in a timely fashion. As with migrants, the primary responsibility for meeting the needs of students who move lies in the classroom with the teacher.

However, unlike migrants, most students who move do not have a protective arm of the federal government overseeing their needs. Special programs and services are not available to the majority of students who move. Teachers are not trained to understand the particular needs of movers, or to work in classrooms where student mobility is high. Indeed, except for migrants, there is very little acknowledgement that students do move except in the many schools and classrooms all over the country affected by that mobility.

Patterns of Student Mobility

Teachers and principals in the study schools were generally knowledgeable about student mobility in their own schools throughout the academic year. That knowledge did not come, nor was it conveyed by, the indices used by the district and the state to compute student transiency. Rather, that knowledge came from an understanding of the cycle of student movement over time, its rhythms through the year and the factors that caused mobility among the students and families served by the schools.

In this study, we documented those patterns of student movement throughout the school year. The clearest pattern was in schools serving students whose families were migrant agricultural workers. The students were enrolled for a predictable amount of time in the fall and then withdrew. At a predictable time in the spring, many of those who had withdrawn re-enrolled, along with some new students, and remained until the end of the school year.

In military, urban and stable schools, enrollment change occurred most often near the time of major school holidays -- Christmas or spring breaks; new enrollments were somewhat delayed after the new year in stable schools to coincide with the new semester that begins in late January. The major difference among these three types of schools was the volume of students who enrolled and withdrew. More students moved in urban schools than in the other two types. Student mobility in urban communities was also greater than mobility in agricultural communities.

Teachers in military, urban and stable communities agreed that individualistic moves throughout the year, like what they had in their own classrooms, were the most disruptive to the educational process. Teachers in agricultural schools agreed with their colleagues in other schools that the many individual moves throughout the year would make instructional planning most difficult -- more so than the agricultural pattern. Teachers in all types of schools reported either that their training prepared them to teach in classes where moves occurred only between semesters, a pattern that they believed was not disruptive, or that they were trained to teach in classes where moves were individualistic.

This study of student mobility in different school types has three implications for educators. First, there are student mobility patterns other than the migrant pattern. If school-level personnel can document a pattern to moves, they can relate that pattern to instructional planning.

Second, the volume of students who move is different at different schools. The greater the number of students who move during the year, the less opportunity there may be for teachers to understand and meet individual learning needs. Further, the more moves that occur, the less time students are enrolled. Knowing how many students are served throughout the year, and the average amount of time those students spend at a school, would provide better

information about the simple need for things like supplies, texts, and furniture. It would also provide principals with the information they need to determine and justify extra staffing needs, training recommendations, and administrative change.

Finally, teachers are not prepared to teach classes that change composition frequently and continuously throughout the year. Except for teachers in agricultural schools, teachers in schools serving mobile populations had no training for teaching in these special communities. Nevertheless teachers from all school types agreed that this type of movement would disrupt education of movers and non-movers alike was and was most difficult to plan for instructionally.

Recommendations

School-level personnel, perhaps the principal, should examine and graph the mobility patterns of their schools during the school year. This documentation would serve several purposes.

1. A graphed mobility pattern would validate teacher and principal perceptions of the student mobility at their schools, and eliminate misconceptions.

2. The duration of student enrollment in schools should be calculated and compared with the pattern.

3. By comparing the enrollment and withdrawal patterns, and the duration of enrollment with other school events, such as testing, principals and teachers will have better information to make administrative, instructional and planning decisions. Some study principals had lobbied to change state testing dates, but there are other areas that could be examined as well. Curricular questions, such as "Which among a group of texts is most suited to the enrollment pattern?" or "Is it smart to have a curriculum remarkably different from other schools in the area if student mobility is great?" might be asked. Choices among various inservice training programs might be clearer with this information. Such a picture of enrollment is also a powerful tool for principals to use to demonstrate to district personnel and the school board the specific needs of a particular school population.

A Classroom Perspective on Teaching Students Who Move

With the exception of teachers in agricultural schools, not more than half the teachers in mobile schools considered mobility in their curricular and instructional planning. Teachers said they did not plan because student movement was unpredictable and the needs of individual students were unknown before their enrollment. Nor did teachers have particular strategies that were developed specifically for working with students who moved.

Teachers had developed some ways to ease the transitions of new students into their classrooms. Teachers in mobile schools placed newcomers in small heterogeneous groups specifically to foster interaction among students. This method served two purposes. First, students already in the group were assigned to help the new student learn class routines and complete tasks. Second, mixed ability groups allowed teachers to continue to move the entire class through a single curriculum together.

Teachers relied heavily on students throughout the transition process. Teachers obtained information about educational needs from the newcomers themselves. Teachers asked newcomers directly about their previous education. Information from parents, previous teachers, and official school records rarely was available and teachers did not seek it out. Further, many teachers delegated to other students in their classes the job of orienting new students to the classroom rules and routines. Newcomers often had to learn about the curricula and teacher expectations on their own.

Though a substantial percentage of teachers said they would tailor their strategies for teaching newcomers if they had information about students' previous curricula, it was rare for teachers to seek such information. In general, teachers felt that what students had learned elsewhere and how they learned it could be accommodated by their own instructional methods. Indeed, even when asked, about half of the teachers would make no changes in their curricular approaches to students with different educational histories.

Teachers were able to identify many factors that affected how successfully newcomers made the transition into their classrooms. However, most of those factors pertained to the students, and did not involve actions or adaptations that teachers could make. Teachers typically evaluated newcomers' transition into the class by their social adjustment, and they

reported that newcomers' personalities and attitudes were the primary factors affecting their transition.

This study of how teachers cope with student mobility in the classroom has several implications. Teacher training programs are not providing teachers with the skills to work successfully with students who move. There are two areas in particular on which to focus. Teachers whose students continually change need outstanding organizational skills. These skills can be simple and practical, such as having folders of previous assignments ready in anticipation of new enrollments and rationing school supplies. More complex organizational skills might involve long term curricular planning in anticipation of high and low enrollment periods or fall-back plans for student assessment. In other organizations, individuals who supervise the work of 30-50 people coming and going in the space of nine months would be expected to have explicit and elaborate preparations to orient the new workers. Lacking these organizational skills, teachers must either invent them individually, or admit defeat in planning.

A second area in which teacher training programs could better prepare teachers to work with students who move is that of diagnosing learning needs. Teachers need to thoroughly understand their own curricula. They must be knowledgeable about the subject matter, use appropriate methods for conveying the information, be prepared to answer typical questions, and able to pace learning adequately for the students in a classroom. In order to properly assess a newcomer's learning and place that student appropriately, teachers must also understand different curricula and alternative teaching methods as thoroughly as their own. Without the scope of such knowledge, teachers risk overlooking learning gaps, misdiagnosis of special learning needs, and loss of additional learning time for a student who has already lost learning time to a move. This is particularly true when student assessment is based almost entirely on a student's completion of current class assignments.

It is unclear who is responsible for a student's complete education. Teachers do not assume responsibility for the education a student has had before enrollment in the class, or after the student leaves. Information about a student's learning elsewhere is not usually available to teachers in time to help with academic assessment and placement. For migrant students, this problem was addressed by a computerized record transfer system established and operated by the Office of Migrant Education. Unfortunately, it too is delayed in providing

teachers with relevant information (Applied Systems Institute, 1988). Traditionally, the school assumed responsibility for the completeness of a student's education across grades in a single school. However, that responsibility ended when the student left one school and went to another, except through the formality of transferring official records.

The only other place where that responsibility could reside is with the students themselves, and their families. Military schools give families the official cumulative file to convey to out-of-state schools and when teachers ask students or their parents directly about their educational histories, they are tacitly assuming that that is where the responsibility lies. However, it is not clear that students or their families are aware that they must oversee the educational flow over time, keep track of what has and has not been learned, be aware of and conversant about learning problems, and able to describe what instructional methods are most effective. Most likely, that responsibility has fallen between the cracks and there is no authority concerned with or responsible for the completeness of a given student's education.

Recommendations.

1. Class size, or the maximum number of students to be enrolled in a classroom at a single point in time, is not a useful figure to indicate a teacher's workload during the year, particularly in schools with high levels of student mobility. A more realistic figure to represent the amount of preparation time a teacher needs, the case load of students who must be served, and any added stress would be the number of students who pass through the classroom in a given year.

2. Teacher training programs should re-examine the skills needed by teachers in classrooms, particularly those with high levels of student mobility. Specific skills particularly effective in such classes should be part of the training program for all teachers, not just to those who will be teaching in migrant programs. Specifically, organizational and diagnostic skills are described by teachers and principals alike as essential.

3. Educators could make a priority of developing a common language about learning that would be used b lents and teachers alike. References to texts could be by the publisher or title, rather than the generic "reading book"

reference. Students should be able to say whether they have experienced a problem-solving approach to mathematics instruction, and how much success they had with it. Such information would be more helpful to teachers than what color the reading book was. It would lead to more accurate assessment of where the student is in a given curriculum, and lessen the likelihood of misdiagnosis and inappropriate placement.

4. Policymakers may need to address the question of where the responsibility for a comprehensive view of a child's education lies. The federal government has assumed that responsibility for migrant students only.

Teacher Perceptions of Student Mobility

Student mobility was an issue in schools that served mobile populations. Teachers reported that they discussed student mobility among themselves, shared ideas for solving common problems they faced, and believed it was an important identifying characteristic of their schools. Nevertheless there were differences in the satisfaction teachers felt working in these schools, in the support that they perceived from parents and the school administration, and the benefits they enjoyed from working with students who move. Those differences related to the type of mobile population they served.

Teachers in urban schools were the least satisfied and reported the fewest benefits of working with students who move. Among schools serving mobile populations, urban school teachers perceived the least support. Teachers in military schools believed they could turn to parents as a resource in educating mobile students, and teachers in agricultural schools could turn to special programs in their schools. Teachers in military and agricultural schools also perceived benefits to working with students who move. It is reasonable to expect that the perceived lack of support for teachers in urban schools contributed to their dissatisfaction. Also teachers in urban schools experienced the most amount of student movement. The obvious implication is that teachers in urban schools suffer most from student mobility.

Recommendation

Like migrant students, all students who move present challenges to teachers. In the absence of school or parental support, those challenges can be overwhelming. Urban educators

might consider the models from migrant education programs in designing supports for urban school teachers.

Principals and Student Mobility

Not only does student mobility affect the lives of teachers and students daily, it affects the principal as well. Though the principal is responsible for setting school level policies and implementing district, state and federal policies, that responsibility is highly constrained by competing authorities, calendars dictated by other concerns, and the resources available. To promote and sustain productive learning outcomes for movers and non-movers alike requires principals to push the boundaries of their authority, bend resources to different purposes, and be aggressively imaginative in finding ways to meet clear but untargeted needs.

Principals are the key source of information about the school for the teachers, for other levels in the school system, and for the communities they serve. Describing student mobility by using an index computed at a single point in time does not convey the educational complexity resulting from student mobility. Easily documented statements such as, "Typically, each teacher in the school is responsible for the education of 40 students per year, even though there are only 30 seats in the class", or "A quarter of the students in this school enroll for less than half the academic year", are far more descriptive and effective in conveying how student mobility can affect classroom processes.

Principals are in a unique position to make those statements and be heard. The literature on student mobility is generally confined to discussions of migrant students. It is not in the mainstream of thinking about classroom processes, the job of teaching, or impacts on learning. District personnel would have no reason to understand the classroom implications of student mobility unless they can be made to imagine what it would be like to work in an environment where such change continually occurred. In addition to district staff, with whom principals plan budgets and calendars, the school board comprised of citizens who set school policy should understand the impacts of student mobility. Finally, teachers also need to know what the picture of mobility is like in the whole school in order to understand how similar or different their own classes are.

Without that information, it will continue to be difficult for principals to lobby for the resources they need to serve the students who enroll in and then leave their schools. Those needs can be straightforward, like changing the date for state testing so it will not coincide with periods of high enrollments or withdrawals. More complicated needs might involve extra staff – counselors or social workers located on site to help students and their families make the transition more smoothly, or a different time line to make decisions about staffing and space allocations. Such actions could expand the choices available to principals as they seek to improve their schools' overall effectiveness in meeting a specific population's needs.

Principals supervise teachers. Nevertheless, principals in mobile schools were not very specific about the skills teachers needed in order to confront the classroom complexity presented by students coming and going continually. Though they did not describe them as needed skills, most of the principals in mobile schools reported that they did evaluate teachers on their teaching methods and how well they could diagnose student learning needs; only one evaluated teachers on their knowledge of the curriculum, and another on organizational and planning skills. That evaluation that rewards skilled teachers and highlights areas for improvement occurs in the absence of a clear idea of what skills are best suited for the environment. Principals are also responsible for selecting new teachers. An explicit understanding of the skills that are best suited for working with mobile student populations would allow principals to hire in a more directed manner, building a faculty focussed on the unique needs of the students in that school. In turn, that value for serving mobile students is likely to be reflected in the school climate.

It is reasonable that, since teachers must struggle to find ways to work successfully with high numbers of mobile students, principals hesitate to be terribly critical. Yet, the pooled knowledge of teachers and principals would be useful within their own schools, and shared with the teacher training programs that typically supply new teachers for the area, lead to improved service for the students in that school.

Finally, this study demonstrates how one practical dilemma, student mobility, affects the decisions principals make in order to achieve particular goals. The decisions typically made in all schools before the school year begins are made by principals in schools with lots of student mobility throughout the school year as well. The information used to make decisions

during the year is likely to be different from the process used before students enroll. A single case we studied is the assignment of students to classes. Though the planning of classes prior to the start of school was accomplished with teachers involved and influenced by the needs of the students themselves, those considerations -- and the time spent on them -- could not support decision-making once school started. In this instance, principals used different processes to make similar decisions at different points in the year. It may also be true for other kinds of decisions. Those who seek to improve principal training might look for other critical issues that confront principals who work with highly mobile student populations to better understand how these factors affect daily decisions.

Recommendations

There are three recommendations that come from this discussion:

1. The skills needed by teachers to work successfully in classrooms of continually changing students should be clarified. Principals can help in that task by virtue of their position as evaluators of teachers in their schools. Educators from local teacher training programs can be enlisted to help, thereby providing feedback to the kind of teacher a given school seeks to hire.

2. Districts that have some schools with highly mobile student populations might consider a different formula for allocating funds made so far in advance of student enrollments. That allocation might be based on the number of students served by the school in a single year, or a time trend showing how enrollments change during the year, rather than the average daily attendance.

3. In regions where students typically move from one school to another within a geographic area, it might be useful for a single authority to coordinate administrative and curricular policies. For instance, a county office of education could facilitate the curricular alignment between districts that share many students.

Summary

A basic assumption of most of the research on classroom instruction and management is that classrooms are stable over the school year. We believe that this assumption of stability is inappropriate for many schools. The magnitude of student movement documented in this study, and its potential impact on students, teachers, classrooms and schools argue that student mobility deserves more attention from educators and policymakers alike. We believe that examining patterns of student mobility will enlighten the issues that all educators must confront. We believe also, that by examining how educators respond to different types of student mobility, we will learn more about meeting the needs of all students, movers and non-movers alike.

In this study, two types of informants, teachers and principals, provided information about student mobility and its impacts on classrooms, teachers, and schools. However, one important informant group has not provided insight to this discussion -- students. Neither students who move nor those who do not move have described how mobility affects their education, whether or not it is a hardship, and what in their views might ameliorate any undesirable impacts. Another group of individuals who have not contributed to this discussion is the parents of students who move and who don't move. These are promising areas for future research.

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APPENDIX

Teacher Interview

Fall

School_____ Teacher_____

Tape_____ Interviewer_____ Date_____

In this first interview I would like to learn about the class and curriculum you are working with this year.

1. What grade level are you teaching?

The Beginning of the School Year

I'm interested in knowing how you get to know your students at the beginning of the school year.

1. How soon before school starts do you know who is in your class?
2. What would you like to know about your class BEFORE school begins?

    Probe: What questions do you have about your students?

3. How do you get the information you want?
4. There are a number of ways to get information about students that may be useful for planning instruction. I'm going to read a list of 4. At the beginning of the year do you

    look at the cumulative files?

    talk to their previous teachers?

    interview students?

    talk with students' families?

5. Is there any other information you use in order to plan instruction?
6. Do you examine this information to understand the general trend in your class or to get specific information about individual students?

    ____class as a whole ____inidividuals

7. How does that type of information help you?

    Probe: Why do you need information about the general trend or individuals?

8. How long before you understand your students' instructional needs?
9. At the beginning of the school year how do you orient students to the physical layout of the school? (e.g., bathrooms)

Reading Instruction

The next set of questions asks about reading instruction.

1. What are the main features of your reading program?
2. Does your program emphasize development of basic skills or comprehension?

   ____basic skills = decoding, phonics, basal readers

   ____comprehension = whole-language approach, literature-based

   ____both
3. Is this program used throughout the school?

   If no, which other teachers use it?
4. At the beginning of the year, what do you tell students about the reading program and the approach that it takes?
5. Does it matter if a student's previous reading instruction followed a program different from yours?

   If yes, in what way?

   If no, why?
6. Do you use a reading series?

   If yes, which one?

   Do you supplement the series with any other materials?

   If yes, for what purpose? ____remedial ____enrichment ____other emphasis
7. Is your reading instruction primarily ____whole-class ____small-group

   ____individualized instruction

IF WHOLE CLASS:

1. What are your reasons for using whole class instruction for reading?
2. At the start of the year, how do you decide where to begin in your reading program?

   Probe: How do you assess students' reading levels and match them to the curriculum?

IF SMALL GROUP:

1. On what basis do you group students at the beginning of the year?

   ____by reading ability

   ____other ability _____

   ____other:_____

   If by ability, how do you determine ability?

2. What are your reasons for using small group instruction?

IF INDIVIDUALIZED:

1. What are your reasons for using individualized instruction?

2. At the start of the year, how do you decide where a student should begin in the program?

8. Please describe a typical reading lesson for your class. (If small group, what do others do?)

Probe: What is the first activity in your reading period? Then what?

9. To your knowledge, is this type of lesson typical of other teachers' reading instruction?

____Yes ____Probably Yes

____No ____Probably No

____Don't know

If No or Probably No, in what way is it different?

10. Suppose while reading aloud to you a student substitutes a word with another that is appropriate in the context of the story. What do you do?

11. When you ask students to read aloud, do you tell them what you hope to learn?

[What type of errors are teachers seeking?]

Math Instruction

Now I have a similar set of questions about your Math instruction.

1. What are the main features of your Math program?

2. Does your program emphasize development of basic skills or arithmetic concepts?

____basic skills = computation

____concepts = knowing fraction as part of whole/base 10/place values/ set theory

____both

3. Is this program used throughout the school?

If no, what other teachers used it?

4. At the beginning of the year, what do you tell students about the math program and the approach that it takes?

5. Does it matter if a student's previous Math instruction followed a program different from yours?

If yes, in what way?

If no, why?

6. Do you use a Math textbook?

If yes, which one?

Do you supplement the text with any other materials?

If yes, for what purpose? ____remedial ____enrichment

____other emphasis

7. Is your Math instruction primarily

____whole-class ____small-group ____individualized instruction

IF WHOLE CLASS:

1. What are your reasons for using whole-class instruction for Math?
2. At the start of the year, how do you decide where to begin in your Math program?

Probe: How do you assess students' Math levels and match them to the curriculum?

IF SMALL GROUP:

1. On what basis do you group students at the beginning of the year?

____by Math ability

____other ability_____

____other_____

If by ability, how do you determine ability?

2. What are your reasons for using small group instruction?

IF INDIVIDUALIZED:

1. What are your reasons for using individualized instruction?
2. At the start of the year, how do you decide where a student should begin in the program?

8. Please describe a typical Math lesson for your class.

Probe: What is the first activity in your Math period? Then what?

9. To your knowledge, is this type of lesson typical of other teachers' Math instruction?

____Yes ____Probably Yes

____No ____Probably No

____Don't Know

If No, or Probably No, in what way is it different?

10. Suppose when solving a story or word problem a student makes a computation error that leads to an incorrect answer. However, you can tell from the student's work that his reasoning is sound. What do you do?

11. When you give a math assignment do you tell students what you will look for when you correct it?

Talking in Class

Now I'd like to focus on a specific type of student behavior--students talking in the classroom.

1. In your class, when may a student talk with other students?

Probe: When can't they talk with other students?

2. When may a student make a contribution to a lesson?

Probe: Can they make unsolicited contributions?

3. What rules govern HOW they make that contribution?

4. To whom should a student turn first for help in your class?

   If "it depends", on what does it depend? (based on answer, ask #4 for specifics)

5. How do you teach students the rules for talking in your class?

   Probe: How do students learn the rules?

Seat Assignments

I have three questions to ask about how students are organized in your classroom.

1. How do you determine seat assignments in this class?
2. How do you assign seats on the first day of school?
3. Are students arranged in different groups in different parts of the day?

   If yes, how do they know where and when to go?

Classroom Rules & Routines

Next I'm going to ask about your classroom rules and routines.

1. Most classes have rules for student behavior. Please describe 2 or 3 rules from your class.
2. Who determined the rules for behavior in your class? ____Teacher ____Student ____Both
3. There are a number of ways teachers could present rules to students at the start of the school year. I'm going to read a list of 5 methods. Tell me, at the start of the year did you:

   post the rules in the room?

   tell the students the list of rules?

   give each student a handout listing the rules?

   give an assignment about rules?

   have a class discussion about rules?

4. Did you use any other method to present rules?

   If yes, what was that?

5. Did you determine some rules before the start of school?

   If yes, do those rules still hold?

6. Do you review class rules during the year?

   If yes, when?

7. Do you develop new rules during the year?
8. Are the rules in your class typical of the kinds of rules found in other classrooms?

   If no, how do they differ? (Please give an example)

9. For routine administrative tasks, such as turning in assignments, teachers often develop procedures for students to follow. Do you have such procedures? If no, go to #10.

   9A. Of the procedures you have in place now, were the majority determined before the start of school?

   9B. Are your procedures typical of the kinds found in other classes?

   If no, how do they differ (please give an example)

9C. I'm going to read a list of methods teachers could use to establish classroom procedures. Tell me, have you:

explained the procedure to students?

posted instructions for the procedure in the room?

given students a handout that describes the procedures?

practiced the procedures with the class?

reminded students who forget to follow the procedures?

9D. Did you use any other method to establish procedures?

If yes, what was it?

10. How long after the start of the school year is it before your class is functioning the way you want it to be? Please provide a time estimate--in units of hours, days, weeks, or months.

Student Mobility

Now, I would like you to describe the amount of student turnover that you expect will occur in your class.

1. Estimate the number of students this year who will enroll in your class after the end of September.
2. When are they most likely to enroll?
3. About what percentage of the students enrolled before October will remain until June?
4. If they leave before June, when will they leave?

Teaching Experience

The final set of questions is about your teaching experience.

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. How long have you taught in this school?
3. What degrees do you hold?
4. What teaching or administrative credentials do you hold?

Teacher Interview

Spring

School_____ Teacher_____

Tape_____ Interviewer_____ Date_____

The first time you were interviewed for this study you described how you organized your class at the start of the school year. During this interview I would like to talk with you about working with students who change schools during the school year.

Pattern

In your experience at this school, is there a systematic pattern to the times new students enroll and others withdraw? For example, is there more change in the Spring than in the Fall?

If Yes, what is the pattern?

If No, we'll call that a random pattern.

Has this year differed markedly from other years?

If Yes, in what ways?

FOR AGRICULTURAL ONLY:

I understand that at this school there are some students who leave the school in October and then they return in May.

1. Is that the main pattern of enrollment changes that occurred in your class?

   If No, what other pattern did you have?

2. Of the students who enroll in May, were most with you in the Fall?
3. Do they attend school between October and May? Where?

Planning

I'd like to learn how teachers plan instruction when their pattern of enrollment is like the one you have.

1. At the start of the year, when you're designing your curriculum and the way you will organize your class, how do you plan for the fact that students will be enrolling and withdrawing (throughout the year) (as they do)?
2. What methods of teaching and organizing students for instruction work best for you given that some students are not here for all of the year?

3. Are there teaching methods and classroom organizations that do not work well for this pattern?

Probe: Are there methods you recommend others not try?

4. In what ways does the enrollment pattern influence your decisions about what topics to teach or when to teach them?

Probe: How do you take the pattern into account when you decide on the sequence or schedule of topics? (Get an example of how it affects planning. Try for a general rule, e.g., "leave the difficult topics until May".)

5. Some teachers have told me it can be difficult to meet the needs of students who move while maintaining instruction for the other students in the class. How do you handle these competing demands?

Probe: To whom do you direct instruction?

Working with Individual Students

Let's talk about your interactions with individual students who move.

STABLE ONLY: Did any new students enroll in your class after the start of the school year? If no, go to Leavers.

1. Do you receive advance notice that a student is going to join your class?

If Yes, how?

How much notice?

2. What information about the student do you receive BEFORE the student arrives?

Now we'll focus on teaching the new student mathematics and reading.

1. What information do you need in order to place the student in your math and reading programs?

2. How do you get that information? (Get information for MATH and for READING)

2a. How long before you understand the new student's instructional needs?

3. When a new student arrives, your class may be working at a level or place in the curriculum that is not the same as the student's previous class.

a. How frequently does this happen?

b. How do you know when this type of "mismatch" occurs? What are the signs? (Get some for MATH and READING if possible)

4. When there is not a good match between the instructional history of your class and that of the new student do you try to

_____(a) integrate the student into the curriculum of your class, or

_____(b) provide instruction that more closely matches the student's previous curriculum?

5. How do you do that?

6. Suppose two new students enrolled.

One student previously studied in a curriculum that taught basic arithmetic skills through drill-and-practice in those skills. The other student had studied a curriculum that developed an understanding of math concepts through the use of manipulatives and a problem-solving approach.

Would you use different strategies in working with these students?

Probe: Which student would have the easier time adjusting to your curriculum? Why?

Now what about the other student?

If yes, in what way? Why?

If no, why?

7. What do you tell new students about your math program and the approach that it takes?

8. Now suppose two new students enrolled who had different experiences in reading.

One student previously studied in a curriculum that taught basic decoding and word-attack skills primarily through a basal textbook. The other student previously studied in a curriculum that took a whole-language approach to teaching reading through children's literature.

Would you use different strategies in working with these students?

Probe: Which student would have the easier time adjusting to your curriculum? Why?

Now what about the other student?

If yes, in what way? Why

If no, why?

9. What do you tell new students about your reading program and the approach that it takes?

Integration into the Class

Now I'd like to talk about new students becoming integrated into the class--when they finally reach the point that they are no longer "new", but are working in the curriculum and the classroom as if they had been with the class since the start of the school year.

1. During the first week that a new student is in your class, what do you look for to determine if the student is adjusting to your class socially and academically? (Be sure to get responses for both socially and academically)

2. How do you use that information?

   Probe: Do you adjust your methods of working with the student based on his progress the first week? How?

3. Now thinking about all of the new students you've had this year.

   a. Would you say that most became integrated into the class?

   b. On average, how long does it take?

   c. What factors affect the amount of time that it takes?

Leavers

I have a few questions about students who withdraw from your class.

FOR STABLE ONLY: This year, did any students withdraw from your class?

   If no, go to next section.

1. Do you receive advance notice that a student is going to withdraw from you class?

   If yes, how?

   How much?

2. Typically, what information, if any, do you provide the students or their parents to take to their next school?

The Impact of Moving on Participants

Next, I have a few questions about how moving affects your job and the education of children.

1. What is the biggest impact that moving has on the education of students who move?

1a. What is the biggest impact that student mobility has on the education of students in your class who do not move?

2. What is the biggest impact that student mobility has on your job as a teacher?

3. What changes would you recommend to school and district administrators that would help you work with mobile students?

4. Have you had any special training for working with students who move?

   To your knowledge, does any exist?

5. In this school, is it typical to move students from one class (or teacher) to another during the school year? e.g., their class assignment changes.

   If yes, in what ways is working with students who change classes within a school different from working with students who change schools?

Classroom Management

This last set of questions asks about teaching new students classroom routines and rules.

1. I'm going to read a list of 5 methods for teaching class rules and routines. Tell me which of these methods you use to teach rules and routines to new students:

_____assign another student to inform the new student?

_____ a list posted in the classroom?

_____ the teacher telling the student the rules?

_____ a handout that you give to the student?

_____an assignment given to the new student?

_____a class discussion or review of rules?

_____model rules and routines

Anything else?

2. How do you convey to the new student when it is appropriate for students to talk in class?

3. How does the new student learn who to turn to for help in classwork?

4. If students change seats or rooms during the day, how does the new student learn where to go and when?

FOR STABLE SCHOOLS ONLY: In some schools, students enroll and withdraw individually and unpredictably in large numbers throughout the school year. For example, in one school I've studied, a typical class has 20 students who remain from fall to summer. The other 10 seats in the class are filled by a constantly changing group of students.

a. How would you feel about teaching in a school like that?

b. If you taught in a school like that, what if anything would you change about your teaching?

Probe: Would you organize your class differently? Use different teaching methods? Organize the curriculum differently?

SACRAMENTO AREA STUDY OF STUDENT MOBILITY*

Nationwide, nearly one out of every five school-aged children moves each year, but there are few resources to help educators who work with mobile students. Your school is one of eight participating in a study of student mobility in the greater Sacramento area. The purpose of the study is to learn how teachers work with students who change schools ***during the school year.***

Your personal experiences working with mobile students are extremely valuable to the study and to other teachers. Please take a few minutes to tell us about your experience by completing this questionnaire. Your responses, which are anonymous, will be used to describe what it is like to work with students who change schools and how these changes affect the work of teachers.

First, please tell us about yourself:

What grade do you teach? _____

How long have you taught at this school? _____

How long have you been teaching? _____

As you answer the questions on the following pages, please remember they refer to ***students who change schools during the school year***, as opposed to students who move over the summer months.

*The study is funded by the U.S. Office of Education through a grant to the Sacramento County Office of Education.

For each statement below, decide if you agree with the statement or not. Then circle the number to the right of the item that best describes your opinion about the statement. Use this scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree (SD)
2 = Disagree (D)
3 = Agree (A)
4 = Strongly Agree (SA)
? = Don't Know (DK)

SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS	SD	D	A	SA	DK
1. Working with students who move is a key aspect of my job as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	?
2. As a faculty, we share books and materials in order to meet the needs of children who move.	1	2	3	4	?
3. Our school provides special orientation materials to newcomers and their parents.	1	2	3	4	?
4. Student mobility is not an issue at this school.	1	2	3	4	?
5. At faculty meetings we frequently discuss topics related to student mobility.	1	2	3	4	?
6. Anyone considering a teaching position at this school should be told how many of our students move during the school year.	1	2	3	4	?
7. As a faculty, we share ideas about working with students who move.	1	2	3	4	?
8. Our school has established procedures to help teachers work with newcomers.	1	2	3	4	?
9. It would be unusual for teachers at this school to talk about student mobility.	1	2	3	4	?
10. The principal routinely visits my class to see how newcomers are adjusting.	1	2	3	4	?
11. Our school has enough books and supplies to serve the students who enroll during the year.	1	2	3	4	?
12. The principal recognizes that student mobility is an important factor affecting my job as a teacher.	1	2	3	4	?
13. I am able to influence the assignment of new students to my class.	1	2	3	4	?
14. The way I work with new students is a factor in my performance evaluations.	1	2	3	4	?
15. The principal has hired extra staff to help teachers work with students who move.	1	2	3	4	?
16. The principal has identified student mobility as a topic for in-service training.	1	2	3	4	?
17. Parents accompany new students to my class on their first day.	1	2	3	4	?
18. Newcomers' parents tell me their children's strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	?
19. Newcomers' parents bring information to me from the previous school.	1	2	3	4	?

		SD	D	A	SA	DK
20.	Parents of new students are willing to work with me to catch the student up to the class.	1	2	3	4	?
21.	Before students move to another school, their parents ask me for information to take to the new teacher.	1	2	3	4	?
22.	Most parents of newcomers could do more to help their children adjust to a new school.	1	2	3	4	?

WORKING WITH CHILDREN WHO MOVE

23.	The variety of experiences brought to the classroom by mobile students can be used as a resource for instruction.	1	2	3	4	?
24.	It is difficult to meet the needs of both a newcomer and the rest of the class at the same time.	1	2	3	4	?
25.	New students provide me with ideas about how other teachers do things.	1	2	3	4	?
26.	I am satisfied with my approach to working with children who move.	1	2	3	4	?
27.	Working with new students is no different from working with students who started the year in my class.	1	2	3	4	?
28.	Student mobility complicates the job of teaching.	1	2	3	4	?
29.	Working with mobile students is exciting.	1	2	3	4	?
30.	I would rather not work with students who move.	1	2	3	4	?
31.	It is important for me to know if a new student's previous reading instruction followed a whole language approach or a basic skills approach.	1	2	3	4	?
32.	The cumulative folder supplies sufficient information for me to place newcomers in my curriculum.	1	2	3	4	?
33.	Most students can describe accurately what they've studied in a subject area.	1	2	3	4	?
34.	It is <u>not</u> important for me to know about the curricular approach used in a new student's previous school.	1	2	3	4	?
35.	Placement tests that accompany my textbooks provide the information I need to place a student in the curriculum.	1	2	3	4	?
36.	I try not to read newcomers' cumulative folders.	1	2	3	4	?
37.	It is important for me to know if a new student's previous math instruction followed a basic skills approach or a problem-solving approach.	1	2	3	4	?
38.	When a student from another school enrolls in my class, it is my responsibility to find out what the student knows and is able to do.	1	2	3	4	?
39.	When a student from another school enrolls in my class, it is my responsibility to find out about the curriculum and instruction provided at the student's previous school.	1	2	3	4	?
40.	When a student from my class transfers to another school, I share responsibility for the student's adjustment to the new class.	1	2	3	4	?

		SD	D	A	SA	DK
41.	When a student returns to my class from an absence of a month or more, it is my responsibility to find out what instruction was provided the student, if any.	1	2	3	4	?
42.	When a student is absent from my class for a month or more, I am responsible for the student's adjustment to my class upon reentry.	1	2	3	4	?
43.	When a student transfers to my class from another class in this school, it is my responsibility to find out about the instruction provided in the previous class.	1	2	3	4	?
44.	When a student transfers to my class from another class in the school, it is my responsibility to find out what the student knows and is able to do.	1	2	3	4	?
45.	When a student from my class transfers to another teacher's class in this school, I share responsibility for the student's adjustment to the new class.	1	2	3	4	?

TEACHER STRESS

Working in schools can sometimes be stressful, and some school events and activities are more stressful than others. For each item below, circle the level on the four-point scale that indicates how stressful the activity is for you.

1 = Not At All Stressful (NS)
2 = Slightly Stressful (SS)
3 = Stressful (S)
4 = Extremely Stressful (ES)

		NS	SS	S	ES
1.	Adopting a new textbook.	1	2	3	4
2.	Talking to parents about their child's problems.	1	2	3	4
3.	Teaching in an overcrowded classroom.	1	2	3	4
4.	Learning that a new student will enroll in your class.	1	2	3	4
5.	Suffering verbal abuse from a student.	1	2	3	4
6.	Teaching during the first week of the school year.	1	2	3	4
7.	Learning that a student withdrew from your class.	1	2	3	4
8.	Managing disruptive children.	1	2	3	4
9.	Maintaining student records.	1	2	3	4
10.	Having a new student arrive during a lesson.	1	2	3	4
11.	Developing daily lesson plans.	1	2	3	4
12.	Teaching without enough texts and supplies.	1	2	3	4
13.	Grading students.	1	2	3	4
14.	Scheduling instruction to accommodate school programs.	1	2	3	4
15.	Having a student become ill during a lesson.	1	2	3	4
16.	Working with a new student on his/her first day in class.	1	2	3	4

TIME FOR INTEGRATION

It takes time to integrate a new student into a class of students. For each item below, circle the number of weeks that it takes to achieve the goal described in the item. For goals that require less than one week, circle "0", and for goals that require more than four weeks, circle "+".

On average, how long does it take before:	Weeks					
1. New students participate in classroom activities.	0	1	2	3	4	+
2. New students understand the class rules.	0	1	2	3	4	+
3. Other children treat newcomers as regular members of the class.	0	1	2	3	4	+
4. New students understand how the class functions.	0	1	2	3	4	+
5. You know the learning needs of newcomers.	0	1	2	3	4	+
6. Newcomers are no longer new.	0	1	2	3	4	+
7. Newcomers work in the curriculum as if they had been with the class from the start of the year.	0	1	2	3	4	+
8. You know newcomers as well as you know the students who started the year in your class.	0	1	2	3	4	+

PATTERNS OF ENROLLMENT

Suppose during the school year five students enrolled in your class and five withdrew. The pattern of this enrollment change could differ from one class to another even though the number of students moving remains the same. Use these four patterns to answer the next set of questions:

Pattern A: *The students enrolled and withdrew only between semesters.*

Pattern B: *The students enrolled and withdrew individually throughout the year.*

Pattern C: *The students enrolled and withdrew during a single month in the spring.*

Pattern D: *The students withdrew as a group in the fall and reenrolled together in the spring.*

1. Which pattern comes closest to describing the class you have this year?	A	B	C	D
2. Their training best prepares teachers to work with which pattern?	A	B	C	D
3. Which pattern makes it most difficult to integrate movers into the ongoing classroom activities?	A	B	C	D
4. For which pattern would instructional planning be most difficult?	A	B	C	D
5. Which pattern most disrupts the education of students who move?	A	B	C	D
6. Which pattern most disrupts the education of the other students in the class?	A	B	C	D
7. Which pattern most disrupts classroom management?	A	B	C	D
8. For which patterns is whole-class instruction well suited (circle all that apply)?	A	B	C	D
9. For which patterns is instruction by cooperative groups well suited (circle all that apply)?	A	B	C	D

Thank you for your time!

Principal_____ School_____

Tape_____ Interviewer_____ Date_____

Principal Interview

We would like to know how you and your faculty work with students who change schools during the school year, whether the number of students who move in and out of this school has caused you to establish specific policies and procedures, and how mobility affects what you do as a principal.

First, please tell us a little about yourself.

How long have you been a principal?

How long have you been principal at this school?

How many years did you teach before becoming a principal?

Students Coming and Going

This first group of questions are about the administrative routines your school follows before placing new students in classrooms and when they withdraw.

1. In this school, is there a pattern to when students enroll and withdraw? If yes, please describe it. If no, we will call it a random pattern.
2. What do you believe are the reasons for this pattern?
3. How long has this pattern existed for your school?
4. What is the average amount of time a student is enrolled in this school?

Class Assignment and Orientation

1. Are new students placed in classrooms the same day they enroll?

   Why do you do it that way?
2. Typically, how much notice do teachers have of a new student's placement in their classes?
3. What procedure is used to assign a new student to a classroom and teacher?

   Probe: Who assigns students to classes? On what basis is the assignment made?
4. Is this procedure different from the way in which students are assigned to classes at the beginning of the year?

   Probe: Is this routine in place specifically as a way to ease the transition for the new student or for the teacher?

   If yes, how is it different?
5. Is there an orientation for new students at this school?

   If yes, what does it include?

6. How are school routines conveyed to the new student?

e.g., time school begins, when there are short days, bus schedules

7. Is there a school-wide behavior management program at this school?

If yes, please describe how it functions.

8. How is this school-wide behavior management program conveyed to new students?

9. Is there an orientation for parents of new students at this school?

If yes, what does it include?

Placement and Curriculum

1. In this school, who is responsible for assessing the newcomer's reading level?

Teacher Resource Specialist Other

2. In this school, who is responsible for assessing the newcomer's mathematics level?

Teacher Resource Specialist Other

3. Are there instructional programs at this school that require students to combine differently across classroom boundaries?

If No, go to #6.

If yes, who determines placement for a new student?

On what basis is that placement made?

Can teachers change that placement?

4. What are the reasons for these school-wide instructional programs at this school?

5. Do school-wide programs make it easier or more difficult for teachers to work with mobile students?

(Please explain your answer)

6. How do parents work with you and with teachers to ease the transition of their children to a new school?

Leavers

1. When students withdraw from your school, is there a general trend to where they go? If yes, what is it?

2. How frequently do students re-enroll in your school? Generally, how long have they been away? (Don't ask migrant)

3. Typically, what information, if any, do you provide students or their parents to take to their next school?

Probe: Does the school (principal) have any responsibility for the student's transition to the new school?

School Level Functions

This next group of questions focus on how mobility might affect how your school operates.

1. When you plan and project your needs for the entire school year, how does mobility affect the decisions you make in such areas as

Staffing: (number and/or particular qualification)

- Faculty
- Aides
- Classified personnel (e.g., clerks, janitorial)
- Resource personnel (e.g . specialists, counselors)

Materials:

- Texts and workbooks
- Paper, pencils, scissors etc.
- Equipment for science, P.E. or social studies

Space:

- Number of classes
- Class size
- Other?

2. Often, budget decisions call for trade-offs: e.g., In order to do this, we will not be able to do that. What trade-offs must you make to meet the demands of student mobility at this school?

Planning

1. When you plan the calendar for the entire school year, how does mobility affect the decisions you make in such areas as:

- Daily Schedule (begin, end of day)
- Grading periods
- Achievement tests
- Teacher inservice days
- SIP days
- Other

2. Suppose you and your faculty were planning to adopt a new curriculum. How might the mobility at this school be a factor in your decision?

Teaching

From your perspective as principal, you are able to evaluate teaching across the school. This next group of questions focus on what you think about student mobility and how it affects teaching.

1. Are there particular skills that enable teachers to work more effectively with a mobile student population?

    If yes, what are they?

    If no, go to #3.

2. When you evaluate a teacher's performance, do you look for these skills?

3. Is it necessary to provide teachers at this school with extra planning time in order that they may better work with students who move?

    If yes, how much and how often?

4. Is there any inservice training you have found that particularly helps teachers better work with students who move? Please describe.

5. If a teacher needs help working with a student who moves, to whom should he or she turn for help?

Personal Opinion

The final series of questions are intended to discover your thoughts about mobility in this school, and how that affects your job as principal.

1. How does mobility affect the education of the students in your school who move?

2. How does mobility affect the education of the students in your school who do not move? (who are stable)

3. How does mobility affect your job as principal?

4. What advice would you offer a new principal in a school with a lot of mobility?

5. Is there anything else you think we should know about mobility that we have not asked?

That is the end of this interview. Thank you for your time.

Miscellaneous Questions

1. In this school, is it typical for students to be moved from one class to another during the school year?

    If Yes: In your view, are the issues of moving students from classroom to classroom different from those of students who move from school to school? Please describe the difference.

2. What is the largest number of new students in a year that you are able to handle?

    Probe: How many students are too many?

3. FOR STABLE: How would your job be different if half your students moved each year?

4. FOR MILITARY: How many of your students are from military families?

School Secretary

1. Is the magnitude of student movement at this school the same this year as it was last year?

2. Please describe the registration and enrollment routines for a student who enrolls during the school year.

3. Would you please describe the withdrawal procedure or routine at this school?

FIGURES

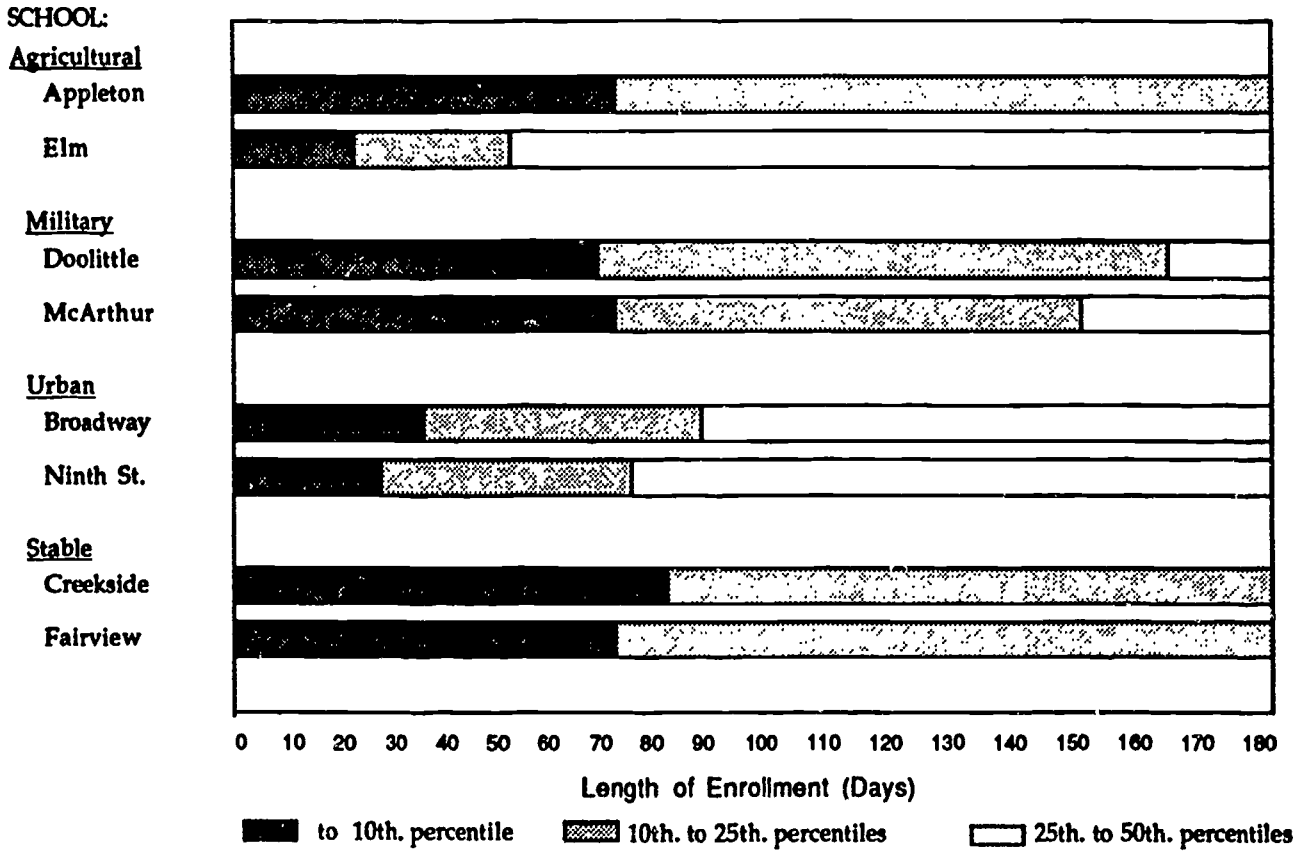

Figure 3.1 Distributions of Length of Enrollment for Eight School Populations

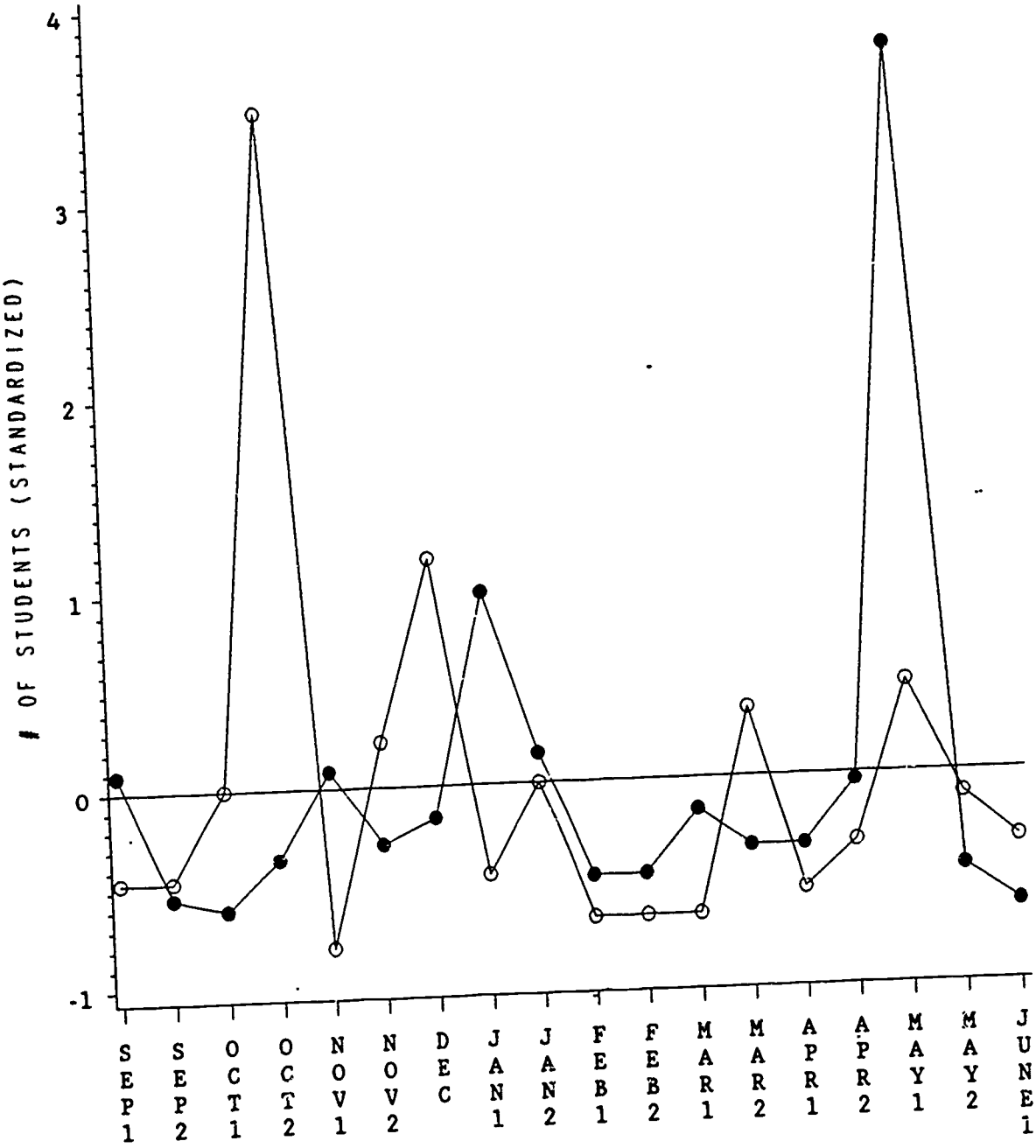

Figure 3.2
Enrollment Patterns for Agricultural Schools

Filled Circles = New Enrollments
Open Circles = Withdrawals

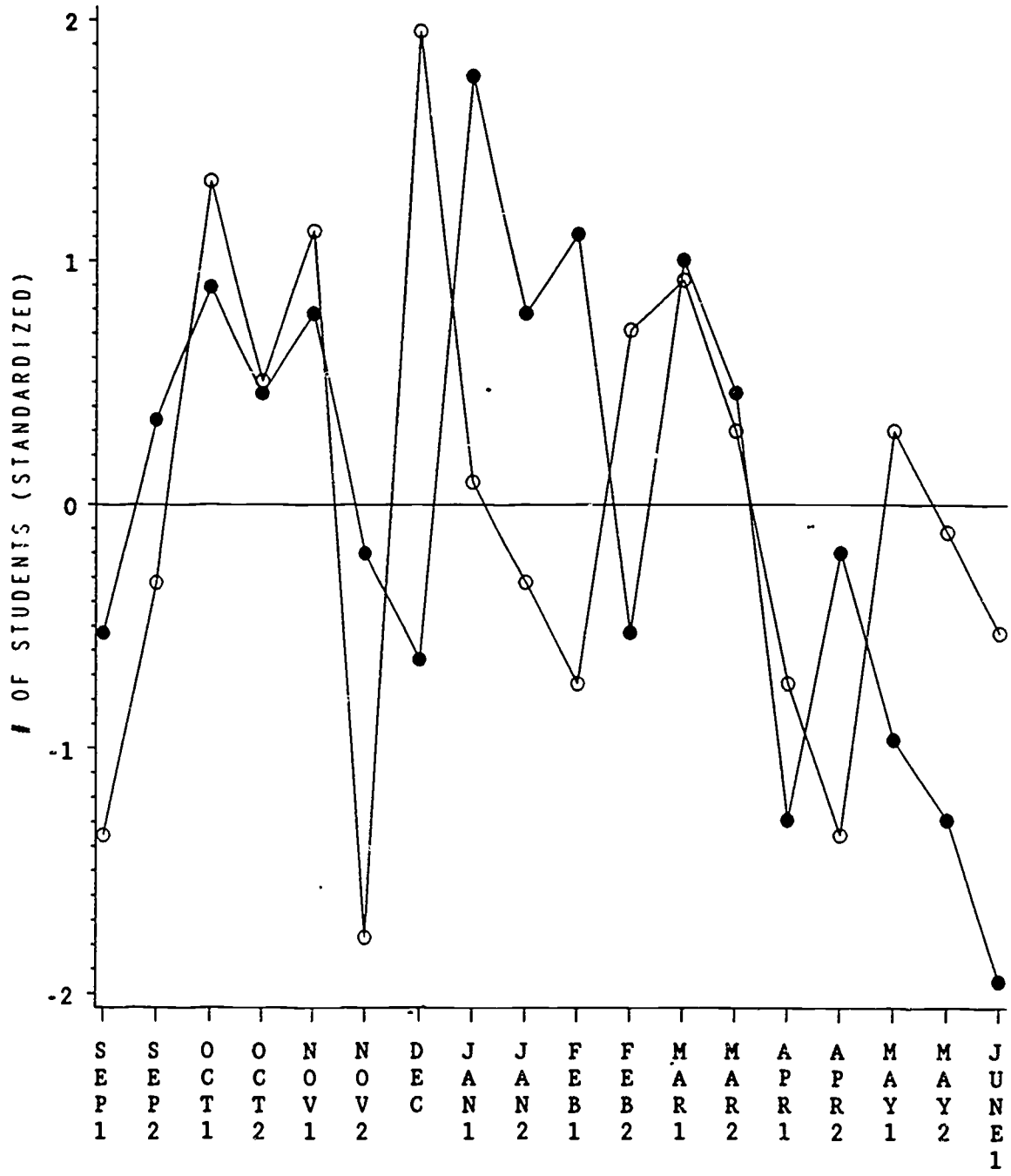

Figure 3.4
Enrollment Patterns for Urban Schools

Filled Circles = New Enrollments
Open Circles = Withdrawals

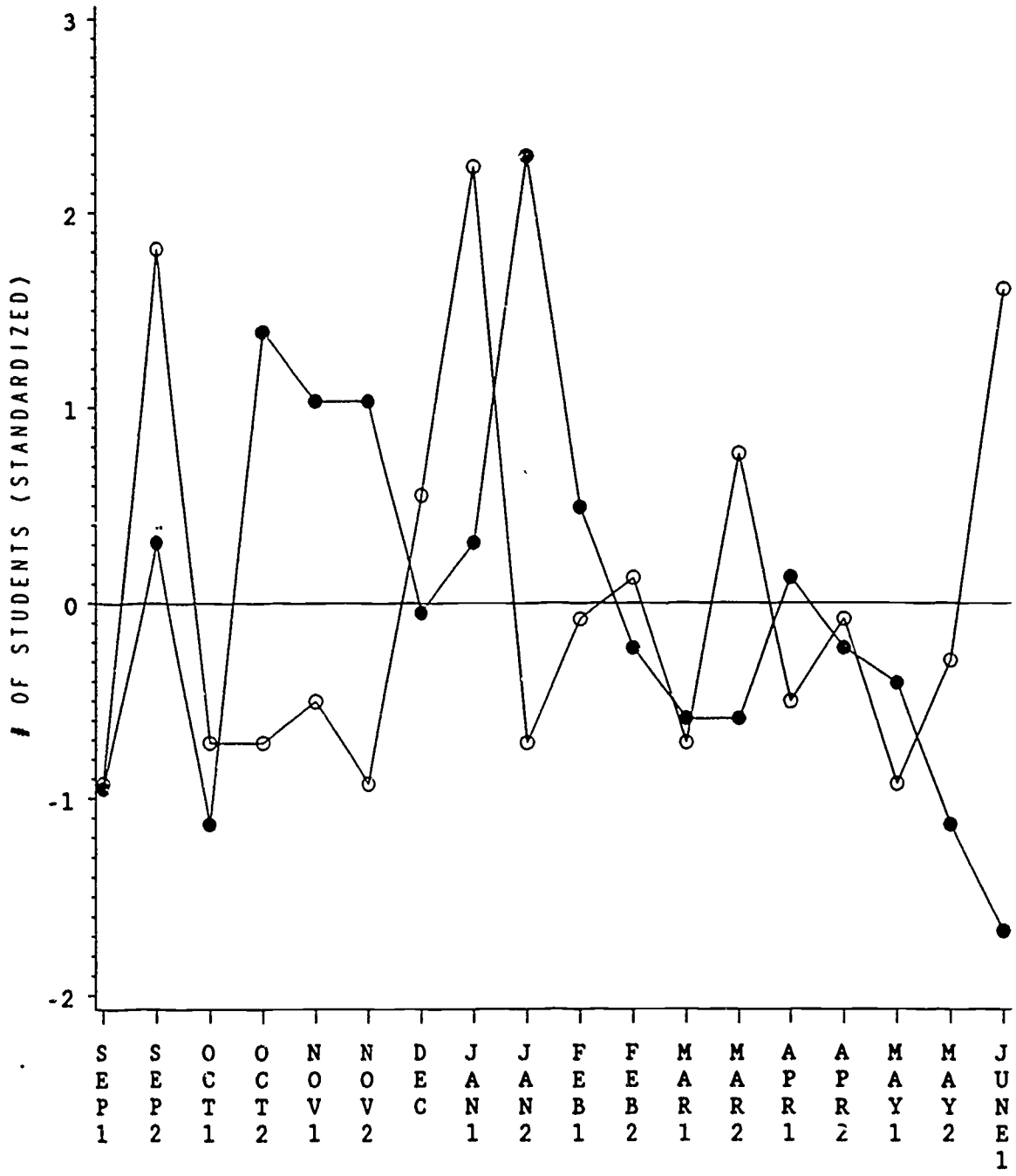

Figure 3.5
Enrollment Patterns for Stable Schools

Filled Circles = New Enrollments
Open Circles = Withdrawals

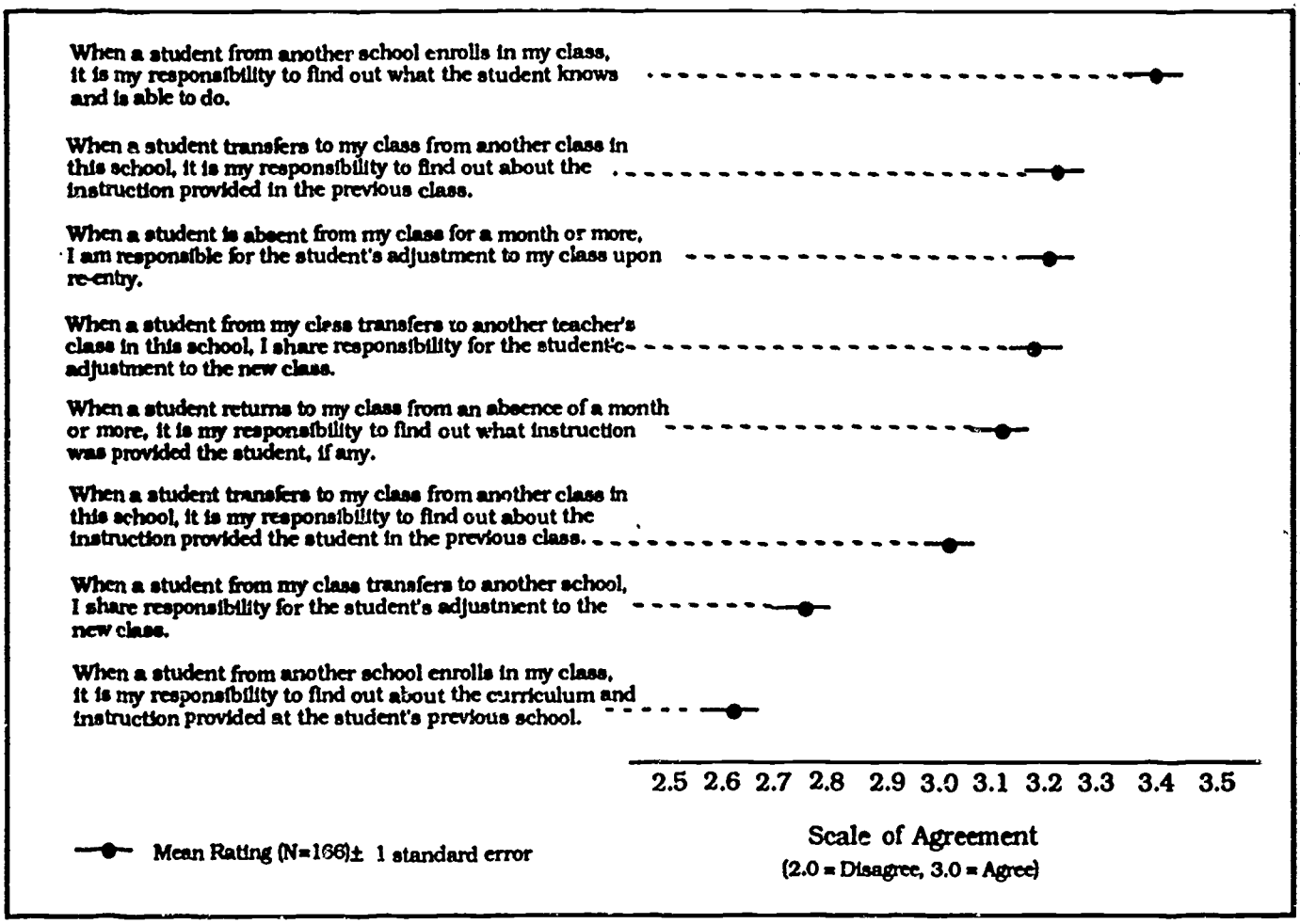

Figure 5.1. Teacher Perceptions of Responsibility for Students in Transition

TABLES

Table 2.1

Demographic Descriptions of Four Types of Schools

Mobility Type:	Agricultural[a]		Military[b]		Urban		Stable	
School Name:	Appleton	Elm	Doolittle	McArthur	Broadway	Ninth St.	Creekside	Fairview
Mobility Index	31	22	33	32	42	35	14	13
Grades Served	3-5	K-8	1-6	K-6	K-6	K-6	K-6	K-6
# Students	647	557	712	506	448	442	499	514
% AFDC	7.7	15	1.7	0.4	76	59	10	1
% LEP	16.1	18	0	0	6	11	5.8	1.9
			Ethnic Disiribution					
% Asian	1	0	5	7	2	10	16	4
% Filipino	0	0	4	1	0	0	1	4
% Hispanic	30	43	7	7	14	18	11	9
% Black	10	1	16	17	24	12	5	7
% White	66	54	66	68	58	59	66	75

Note. Information about school size and grades served was obtained from the California School Directory. Ethnic distributions were obtained from the 1987 CBEDS data summary for Sacramento County Schools, and by report from the school secretary for the two migrant schools outside Sacramento County. All other data were collected in Spring, 1987, by the California Assessment Program.

% AFDC = Percent of students receiving Aid for Dependent Children.

% LEP = Percent of students having limited English Proficiency.

Mobility Index = Percent of third graders present for 1987 Spring achievement tests who were new to the school that year.

[a]In Elm, 1/3 of the students were classified as migrant education students.

[b]Doolittle school is located adjacent to off-base, military housing. The principal estimates 70% of the students are from military families. McArthur school is located on an air force base and 100% of the students are from military families.

Table 2.2

Description of School Contexts

	Agricultural Schools	
	Appleton	Elm
Geographic Description	In small Solano Co. town (pop. 10,000), 25 mi. W of Sacramento.	In tiny Yolo Co. town (pop. 2,000), 25 mi. NW of Sacramento.
Economic Base	County is nearly 70% agricultural. Seasonal work harvesting corn, pears, safflowers, sheep. Also tomato processing and slaughterhouse.	County is nearly 90% agricultural. Seasonal work harvesting grains, nuts, tree fruit, field fruit & vegetables. Also tomato processing. Inexpensive housing attributed to increasing number of students receiving AFDC.
Pertinent School Description	Grades K - 2 served in another town. Bus transportation for schooling is regional.	Large attendance area. School schedule staggered to accommodate typically long bus rides.
Reading Curriculum	Literature based reading, including bilingual. No school wide text.	No school wide text.
Mathematics Curriculum	Silver Burdett.	Addison Wesley: new during study year.
Special Programs	8:30 - 11:30 AM: "Core" program for migrant students who lived at labor camp. Only offered when migrants enrolled, about 14 weeks. English speaking ability basis of placement. Staffed by certified teacher and one ESL aide. Supervised by district's Director of Instruction. Individual study program for group of students who leave for 8 weeks around Christmas for Mexico.	

Table 2.2 (con't.)

	Military Schools	
	Doolittle	McArthur
Geographic Description	Adjacent to an off-base, military residential complex, E of Sacramento, in county.	On a Strategic Air Command (SAC) Air Force Base, N of Sacramento, adjacent to another incorporated city.
Economic Base	Aircraft repair: Principal estimates that 70% of students have one or both parents employed by military.	Base provides navigation and pilot training to US, SAC and NATO forces.
Pertinent School Description	School shares fenced boundary with base on two sides.	On base: those from off-base need clearance at guardpost.
Reading Curriculum	Harcourt Brace Jovanovich with core literature program.	Ginn.
Mathematics Curriculum	Heath: new during study year.	Holt-Rinehart: new during study year.
	Urban Schools	
	Broadway	Ninth St.
Geographic Description	In Sacramento, just N of city center.	In Sacramento, just N of city center.
Economic Base	Neighborhood of older homes mixed with open space and shops.	Neighborhood of homes and apartment units, small shops.
Reading Curriculum	K, 1, 2 use DISTAR. Grades 2 - 6 use Houghton Mifflin.	Houghton Mifflin.
Mathematics Curriculum	K, 1, 2 use Math Their Way. Grades 3 - 6 use Open Court.	Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Table 2.2 (con't.)

	Stable Schools	
	Creekside	Fairview
Geographic Description	In Sacramento, older neighborhood of nice homes, local shops. Nearby city park along river with a zoo and community college.	In unincorporated area outside of Sacramento. Older small town now surrounded by tracts of new housing, less than 10 years old.
Pertinent School Description	Bussing for desegregation.	School is less than 10 years old. Attendance boundaries changed at beginning of study year to include students from several new housing developments.
Reading Curriculum	MacMillan.	Scott Forseman. Great Books literature program.
Mathematics Curriculum	New text during study year.	Open Court.
Special Programs		Receiving school for district, enrolling students whose own neighborhood schools were full.

Table 2.3

Grade Level and Teaching Experience of Teachers Interviewed

School	Teacher	Grade	Years Teaching	Years at Study School	Training for Mobility
Agricultural					
Appleton	1	3	9	3	Yes
	2	3	19	10	Yes
	3	4	13	5	Yes
	4	5	12	12	Yes
Elm	1	1	3	3	No
	2	3	7	4	No
	3	4	14	3	No
	4	5	3	3	Yes
Military					
Doolittle	1	1	25	18	No
	2	3	19	12	No
	3	4	12	5	No
	4	5	13	13	No
McArthur	1	1	8	8	No
	2	3	7	4	No
	3	3 & 4	26	26	No
	4	5 & 6	41	28	No
Urban					
Broadway	1	1	13	3	No
	2	3	3	3	No
	3	4	3	3	No
	4	6	5	5	No
Ninth St.	1	1	10	4	No
	2	5	3	3	No
	3	5	3	3	No
	4	6	23	8	No
Stable					
Creekside	1	2	21	4	Yes
	2	3	18	2	No
	3	4	15	5	No
	4	5	12	4	No
Fairview	1	1 & 2	8	2	No
	2	2	10	8	No
	3	4 & 5	6	6	No
	4	6	36	8	No

Table 2.4

Experience of Teachers in the Questionnaire Sample

School	N	Years Teaching				Years at Study School			
		Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Agricultural	43	1	28	11.0	7.4	1	26	7.8	6.5
Appleton	22	1	20	10.2	5.8	1	19	7.8	5.9
Elm	21	2	28	11.8	8.9	1	26	7.8	7.2
Military	40	1	42	14.4	9.9	1	26	8.8	7.9
Doolittle	26	1	29	13.3	8.6	1	25	7.0	6.6
McArthur	14	2	42	16.4	11.9	2	26	12.3	9.0
Urban	41	0	34	10.2	8.2	0	31	4.9	5.4
Broadway	18	1	26	8.7	7.3	0	10	3.8	3.0
Ninth St.	23	0	34	11.4	8.8	0	31	5.8	6.7
Stable	42	1	36	10.1	9.0	1	20	4.0	4.1
Creekside	17	3	25	15.0	7.5	1	20	6.0	5.4
Fairview	25	1	36	6.8	8.6	1	8	2.6	2.1

Table 2.5

Number of Years Experience as Principal and Teacher for Study Principals

School	Years Principal at Study School	Years Principal	Years Teacher
Agricultural			
Appleton	5	5	13
Elm	2	2	16
Military			
Doolittle	2	2	7
McArthur	2	2	16
Urban			
Broadway	4	4	3
North St.	3	3	7
Stable			
Creekside	4	12	13
Fairview	8	13	15

Table 3.1

Size and Stability of Student Populations in Eight Schools

School	No. of Students	% Who Move	Percent of movers who: Enroll Late & Stay	Enroll Late & Leave Early	Enroll on Time & Leave Early	% Leavers Who Return
Agricultural	1274	33	40	9	51	45
Appleton	752	22	29	8	63	40
Elm	522	50	47	10	43	50
Military	1227	32	37	10	53	5
Doolittle	738	31	42	8	50	8
McArthur	489	33	31	12	57	0
Urban	1241	44	42	23	35	7
Broadway	614	38	43	18	39	9
Ninth St.	627	50	42	26	32	6
Stable	1197	22	55	17	29	3
Creekside	541	17	43	18	39	6
Fairview	656	25	62	16	22	0

Table 3.2

Descriptive Statistics for the Number of Enrollment Changes in Half-Month Periods for Four Types of Schools

Enrollment Change	Min	Median	Max	Mean	SD
New Enrollments					
Agricultural	1	6	70	11.6	15.8
Military	2	6	29	10.8	7.3
Urban	2	21	36	19.8	9.2
Stable	1	9	23	10.3	5.5
Withdrawals					
Agricultural	1	4	38	8.0	8.7
Military	1	12	32	13.0	7.3
Urban	8	16	26	16.6	4.8
Stable	2	4	17	6.4	4.7

Table 3.3

Teacher Descriptions of Mobility Patterns at Their Schools

School	No Pattern	Around Holidays	In Fall	In Spring	Monthly	Crop Season	Extended Vacation
Agricultural	0	2	0	0	0	7	2
Appleton	0	2	0	0	0	3	2
Elm	0	0	0	0	0	4	0
Military	2	4	1	2	0	0	0
Doolittle	1	2	0	1	0	0	0
McArthur	1	2	1	1	0	0	0
Urban	1	6	2	0	2	0	0
Broadway	0	3	2	0	1	0	0
Ninth St.	1	3	0	0	1	0	0
Stable	3	2	2	1	0	0	0
Creekside	2	1	0	1	0	0	0
Fairview	1	1	2	0	0	0	0

Note. Four teachers were interviewed at each school. Table entries are frequencies of response. Some teachers provided more than one response.

Table 3.4

Principal Knowledge of Mobility in the School

School	1. Enrollment Pattern	2. Reasons for Moves	3. History of Pattern	4. Average Enrollment Length
Agricultural (Ag)				
Appleton	Yes	Ag work	Always	6 wks + 8 wks = 14 wks
Elm	Yes	Ag work Cheap housing Christmas in Mexico	Always ag Housing = 8 years	8 wks + 5 wks = 13 wks (Ag) 1 - 2 years (Others)
Military				
Doolittle	Yes	Base housing	30 years	3 years
McArthur	No	Military decision	Since school built	4 - 5 months to 3 - 5 yrs
Urban				
Broadway	No	Unstable homes	Forever	Does not know
Ninth St.	No	Unstable homes Condemned housing	At least 3 years	2 - 3 yrs
Stable				
Creekside	No	Stable community	Since school built	7 years for over 50%
Fairview	No	Overload from other schools	Not asked	1 year

Note. Interview questions:

1. Is there a pattern to when students enroll and withdraw?
2. What do you believe are the reasons for this pattern?
3. How long has this pattern existed for your school?
4. What is the average amount of time a student is enrolled at this school?

Table 3.5

Principal Knowledge of Students Leaving School

School	1. Where Students Go	2. Re-enroll
Agricultural		
Appleton	Mexico	Not asked
Elm	Some to Brownsville, TX; some to Arbuckle, Fresno, and San Jose, CA	Not asked
Military		
Doolittle	No pattern	Not at all
McArthur	All over the world	Not often
Urban		
Broadway	Within the district	Varies
Ninth St.	Within the district or to neighboring district	Often
Stable		
Creekside	Magnet programs	Very small number
Fairview	Own neighborhood school	Very small number

Note. Interview questions:
1. When students withdraw from your school, is there a general trend to where they go?
2. How frequently do students re-enroll in your school?

Table 3.6

Teacher Reports on Mobility Patterns

	Percent of Teachers Selecting:			
	A	B	C	D
Which pattern comes closest to describing the class you have this year?				
Overall schools	4	81	2	13
Agricultural	11	83	3	3
Military	0	55	0	45
Urban	5	95	0	0
Stable	3	92	5	0
Their training prepares teachers to work with which pattern?				
Overall schools	43	43	2	11
Agricultural	47	44	0	8
Military	50	26	3	21
Urban	36	54	0	11
Stable	38	53	6	3
Which pattern makes it most difficult to integrate movers into the ongoing classroom activities?				
Overall schools	6	53	15	27
Agricultural	2	54	17	27
Military	2	44	7	46
Urban	8	54	19	19
Stable	11	60	16	14
For which pattern would instructional planning be most difficult?				
Overall schools	2	52	17	28
Agricultural	2	49	24	24
Military	2	48	14	36
Urban	0	50	21	29
Stable	5	65	8	22

Table 3.6 (con't.)

Which pattern most disrupts the education of students who move?				
Overall schools	3	52	13	32
Agricultural	10	44	22	24
Military	2	37	7	54
Urban	0	57	14	30
Stable	0	74	9	17
Which pattern most disrupts the education of the other students in the class?				
Overall schools	1	48	17	34
Agricultural	0	52	22	25
Military	2	29	10	60
Urban	0	63	14	23
Stable	3	50	22	25
Which pattern most disrupts classroom management?				
Overall schools	1	54	18	28
Agricultural	2	52	32	15
Military	2	34	7	56
Urban	0	69	20	11
Stable	0	63	11	26

Note. Cell entries are percentages; rows may not add to 100 due to rounding. The following instructions were given to teachers: Suppose during the school year five students enrolled in your class and five withdrew. The pattern of this enrollment change could differ from one class to another even though the number of students moving remains the same. Use these four patterns to answer the next set of questions:

Pattern A = The students enrolled and withdrew only between semesters.
Pattern B = The students enrolled and withdrew individually throughout the year.
Pattern C = The students enrolled and withdrew during a single month in the spring.
Pattern D = The students withdrew as a group in the fall and reenrolled together in the spring.

Table 4.1

Effects of Mobility on Instructional Plans

School	Year-Long Planning[a]			Curriculum[b]		Methods[c]		
	No Effect	Materials	Other	No Effect	Timing/ Content	Groups	Other	None
Agricultural	1	0	7	2	6	6	2	0
Appleton	0	0	4	1	3	4	0	0
Elm	1	0	3	1	3	2	2	0
Military	4	1	3	6	1	4	1	3
Doolittle	3	0	1	3	0	1	0	3
McArthur	1	1	2	3	1	3	1	0
Urban	6	2	0	7	1	4	2	1
Broadway	3	1	0	4	0	1	1	1
Ninth St.	3	1	0	3	1	3	1	0
Stable	4	2	2	6	1	2	2	4
Creekside	3	1	0	4	0	1	0	3
Fairview	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1

Note. Four teachers were interviewed at each school. Entries are the number of teachers giving the response. When the total responses for a school is three, the question was not asked of one teacher in the school.

[a]At the start of the year, when you are designing your curriculum and the way you will organize your class, how do you plan for the fact that students will be enrolling and withdrawing as they do?

[b]In what ways does the enrollment pattern influence your decisions about what topics to teach or when to teach them?

[c]What methods of teaching and organizing students for instruction work best for you given that some students are not here for all of the year?

Table 4.2

The Advance Notice Teachers Receive about New Enrollments in Four Types of Schools

School	Receives Notice: Yes	No	Sometimes	Method	Length of Notice	Information Received Before Student Arrives: None	Some (specify)
Agricultural							
Appleton	3	1	0	• Relative • Memo in mailbox from office • Know date migrants arrive	• Depends, 0 - 14 days • At least one day • Arrival date of migrants the same year to year	3	1 (In case of relative: learned emotional problems)
Elm	0	4	0	(Although date known when migrant camp opens, students may arrive earlier or later)		4	0
Military							
Doolittle	0	3	1	Reading specialist	Less than one day	3	1 (Reading level, info provided by parent)
McArthur	1	3	0	School office staff	One day	4	0
Urban							
Broadway	0	1	3	Notice in mailbox from school office	One day	0	4 (From notice: name, parent, address, birth date, # of siblings, social worker)
Ninth St.	0	4	0			4	0
Stable							
Creekside	1	1	1	• Parent • School office staff	• Parent - 2 weeks • Office - 1 to 2 days	1	2 (From the office: info provided by the parent)
Fairview	2	1	1	• School office staff	• One day • A couple of days	2	1 (Name, grade level) 1 (If interdistrict may receive cume folder)

Note. Numerical entries indicate the number of teachers who responded as indicated to the interview question. With one exception, N = 4 for each school. At Creekside, N = 3 because one teacher had not had a student enroll in her class during the study year.

Table 4.3

Teachers' Choice of Methods for Assessing New Students in Math and Reading

Method of Assessment	Grade:	1-3				4-6			
	Type[a]:	A	M	U	S	A	M	U	S
Math									
Current assignment		1	2	3	2	3	2	1	1
One-to-one with teacher		1	1	0	0	0	2	0	0
Quiz or test		1	2	0	1	0	0	3	3
Ask student		1	1	2	0	1	2	1	2
School places student		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other		0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1
Reading									
Current assignment		0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
One-to-one with teacher		3	2	1	0	1	2	0	1
Quiz or test		1	0	1	1	0	0	2	0
Ask student		2	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
School places student		0	1	3	2	0	1	2	1
Other		0	1	0	1	2	1	2	2

Note. Cell entries are the number of teachers who reported the method. Four teachers for each grade-by-mobility classification were interviewed except for the stable-primary grades where N = 3.

[a] A = Agricultural, M = Military, U = Urban, S = Stable.

Table 4.4

Teachers' Reasons for Adapting or Not Adapting Instructional Methods to Accommodate Newcomers' Previous Experiences

Teacher Response	School Initial A	E	D	M	B	N	C	F
MATH INSTRUCTION								
Would NOT use different methods	2	1	4	1	3	2	2	1
1. Curriculum has both approaches already	2	1	3	1	1	2	1	0
2. I follow my own program	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	1
Would use different methods	2	2	0	2	1	2	1	3
1. Teach use of manipulatives and p.s strategies	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
2. Teach whichever approach the student is missing	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
3. Wait and see where the student has difficulty	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
4. Other	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
No response given	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
READING INSTRUCTION								
Would NOT use different methods	3	2	1	1	2	2	3	0
1. Curriculum has both approaches already	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
2. I follow my own program	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	0
3. Differences between approaches are not a problem	0	2	0	0	2	0	2	0
Would use different methods	1	0	2	0	1	2	0	4
1. Ask other to teach basic skills	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	1
2. Make links between current and past curriculum	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
3. No reason given	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
No response given	0	0	1	3	1	0	0	0

Note. Teachers were asked to consider two hypothetical situations, one concerning mathematics instruction and the other reading instruction. In both situations, two new students arrived, one having had previous instruction that focused on basic skills while the other student's instruction took a different approach. Teachers were asked if their methods for working with these two new students would differ, and if so, in what ways. Thirty teachers were queried about the mathematics situation. One teacher at Creekside was not asked because she had had no new students during the study year and one at Elm because time did not permit it. In addition to these teachers, one teacher at Elm was not asked about the reading situation because time did not permit it.

Table 4.5

Number of School Days Needed to Understand Instructional Needs of Students in Four Types of Schools

	School Type																	
	Agricultural				Military				Urban				Stable					
Instructional Needs	N	Min	Mid	Max	N	Min	Mid	Max	N	Min	Mid	Max	N	Min	Mid	Max	K-W[a]	p
Of class in fall	7	5	20	120	7	5	10	47	8	7	15	12	8	3	10	30	2.42	.49
Of newcomers during year	7	1	5	12	7	2	10	10	8	2	6	12	7	2	5	7	1.94	.58
Difference in time for class and newcomer	6	0	25	108	7	2	5	37	8	-3	13	18	7	1	5	27	2.71	.44

[a] K-W = Kruskal-Wallis Test of the hypothesis that differences exist among the four types of schools.

Table 4.6

Teacher Methods for Conveying Classroom Rules to an Entire Class at the Start of the Year and to New Students During the Year

Method	Percent of Teachers Using for: Class	Newcomer	Chi-Square (prob.)
Post a list of rules	100	94	--
Discuss rules with the class	94	45	1.8 (.18)
Tell students the rules	88	55	0.04 (.83)
Prepare a handout listing rules	81	48	2.99 (.08)
Give an assignment about the rules	42	3	0.7 (.39)
Assign a student to teach rules	0	77	--

Note. Time did not permit one teacher at Ninth Street to complete the spring interview questions about rules, and thus the percentages are based on N = 31. The Chi-Square tests the research hypothesis that there is a relationship between teachers use of the method in the fall and spring against the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between fall and spring use. Each test is based on N = 31, df = 1. When there was no variability in response, the test could not be computed.

Table 4.7

Frequencies of Teachers Reporting Fall and Newcomer Orientations in Reading and Math Curricula

	Newcomer Orientation	
Fall Orientation	Yes	No
Reading Curriculum		
Orients class	17	6
No orientation	1	5
Math Curriculum		
Orients Class	12	10
No orientation	0	8

Table 4.8

Indicators of Student Integration Into a Class Used by Teachers from Four Types of Schools

Indicator	Agricultural		Military		Urban		Stable	
	A	E	D	M	B	N	C	F
Social Adjustment	10	6	6	10	6	8	8	5
Relations with peers	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	2
Student feelings	4	2	0	4	1	2	1	2
Relationship with teacher	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1
Class behavior	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	0
Class reaction to newcomer	1	0	2	0	0	1	1	0
Academic Adjustment	5	3	8	8	2	4	2	4
Successful school work	2	2	4	2	1	2	1	2
Follows instructions	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
Timelines	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1
Follows rules, routines	1	0	2	2	0	2	0	0
Volunteers in class	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	1

Note. Entries are frequencies of response. Column headings are school initials. Four teachers were interviewed at each school, except at Elm, where one teacher was not asked, and Creekside, where one teacher had no new students.

Table 4.9

Factors Affecting Newcomers' Integration into Classes in Eight Schools

Factor:	School Initial							
	A	E	D	M	B	N	C	F
Teacher	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	1
Newcomer's Academic Skill	1	2	1	1	0	0	3	0
Newcomer's Personality	4	2	3	1	3	3	0	1
Newcomer's Social Skill	1	1	2	2	1	0	1	3
Newcomer's Home Life	1	0	3	1	1	1	0	1
Other	2	1	0	1	0	1	0	1

Note. Entries are frequencies of response. N = 4 at all schools except Appleton, Ninth Street, and Creekside, where N = 3.

Table 4.10

Frequencies of Teacher Recommendations to Administrators About Working with Students Who Move

School	Recommendation						
	1. Info.	2. Support	3. Notice	4. Student	5. Texts	6. Class	7. Other
Agricultural							
Appleton	1	2	0	1	0	0	1
Elm	1	2	0	0	0	0	0
Military							
Doolittle	2	1	2	0	0	1	1
McArthur	1	0	2	0	0	0	2
Urban							
Broadway	1	0	1	1	1	0	3
Ninth St.	1	2	0	1	0	1	1
Stable							
Creekside	1	2	1	1	1	2	0
Fairview	2	0	2	0	1	0	0

Note. Entries are frequencies of response. Four teachers were interviewed at each school except Elm, Ninth Street, and Creekside, where one teacher each was not asked the question.

1. Provide more academic information on newcomers.
2. Provide program or staff supports for teachers.
3. Provide more advanced notice of new students.
4. Establish procedure where students bring information with them.
5. Align curricula of nearby schools.
6. Limit class enrollment.
7. Other responses including don't know and teachers should adjust.

Table 5.1

Teacher Opinions about Working with Mobile Students: Four-Factor Solution

Questionnaire Item	Factor Loading I	II	III	IV
Responsibility				
1. When a student is absent from my class for a month or more, I am responsible for the student's adjustment upon reentry.	.76	-.05	.03	.02
2. When a student transfers to my class from another class in this school, it is my responsibility to find out about the instruction provided in the previous class.	.73	.14	.22	-.01
3. When a student transfers to my class from another class in the school, it is my responsibility to find out what the student knows and is able to do.	.71	.07	.01	-.32
4. When a student returns to my class from an absence of a month or more, it is my responsibility to find out what instruction was provided the student, if any.	.70	.05	.02	.23
5. When a student from my class transfers to another teacher's class in this school, I share responsibility for the student's adjustment to the new class.	.63	-.09	.16	-.02
6. When a student from another school enrolls in my class, it is my responsibility to find out what the student knows and is able to do.	.58	.07	.00	.19
Mobility Complicates Teaching				
7. Working with new students is no different from working with students who started the year in my class.	-.07	.62	-.11	.15
8. Most students can describe accurately what they have studied in a subject area.	.24	.57	-.00	-.20
9. The cumulative folder supplies sufficient information for me to place newcomers in my curriculum.	-.07	.49	.45	-.16
10. I am satisfied with my approach to working with children who move.	-.08	.53	.00	.01
11. I would rather not work with students who move.	-.27	-.48	.09	-.20
12. Student mobility complicates the job of teaching.	-.00	-.69	.10	-.09
13. It is difficult to meet the needs of both a newcomer and the rest of the class at the same time.	-.04	-.72	.02	-.08
Educational History of Newcomers is Important				
14. It is important for me to know if a new student's previous math instruction followed a basic skills approach or a problem-solving approach.	-.10	.05	.75	-.07
15. It is important for me to know if a new student's previous reading instruction followed a whole language approach or a basic skills approach.	.08	-.14	.70	-.02
16. When a student from another school enrolls in my class, it is my responsibility to find out about the curriculum and instruction provided at the student's previous school.	.28	.04	.56	.16
17. When a student from my class transfers to another school, I share responsibility for the student's adjustment to the new class.	.17	.11	.46	.16
18. I try not to read newcomer's cumulative folders.	-.08	.15	-.35	.18
19. It is not important for me to know about the curricular approach used in a new student's previous school.	-.02	.33	-.63	-.23
Benefits to Working With Mobile Students				
20. The variety of experiences brought to the classroom by mobile students can be used as a resource for instruction.	.20	.12	.04	.58
21. New students provide me with ideas about how other teachers do things.	-.20	.14	.20	.55
22. Working with mobile students is exciting.	.21	.42	.10	.46
23. Placement tests that accompany my textbooks provide the information I need to place a student in the curriculum.	-.05	.32	.26	-.51

Table 5.2

Teacher Opinions about School Characteristics: Four-Factor Solution

Questionnaire Item	Factor Loading I	II	III	IV
Parent Support for Teachers				
1. Newcomers' parents tell me their children's strengths and weaknesses.	.81	-.05	.12	-.05
2. Newcomer's parents bring information to me from the previous school.	.73	-.13	.10	.00
3. Before students move to another school, their parents ask me for information to take to the new teacher.	.72	-.09	-.06	.10
4. Parents of new students are willing to work with me to catch the student up to the class.	.70	-.10	.06	.29
5. Parents accompany new students to my class on their first day.	.57	.05	.13	-.25
6. Most parents of newcomers could do more to help their children adjust to a new school.	-.43	.00	.05	-.32
Mobility as an Issue for the School				
7. Anyone considering a teaching position at this school should be told how many of our students move during the school year.	-.14	.71	.02	-.04
8. Working with students who move is a key aspect of my job as a teacher.	-.06	.70	-.09	.17
9. As a faculty, we share ideas about working with students who move.	.14	.52	.38	.14
10. As a faculty, we share books and materials in order to meet the needs of children who move.	.01	.34	.02	.06
11. The way I work with new students is a factor in my performance evaluations.	.09	.26	.23	.25
12. It would be unusual for teachers at this school to talk about student mobility.	.14	-.59	.04	-.11
13. Student mobility is not an issue at this school.	.22	-.66	-.07	.30
School Support for Teaching				
14. The principal has identified student mobility as a topic for in-service training.	.11	.09	.72	.11
15. The principal has hired extra staff to help teachers work with students who move.	.11	-.04	.67	-.07
16. The principal routinely visits my class to see how newcomers are adjusting.	.14	.04	.60	.35
17. At faculty meetings we frequently discuss topics related to student mobility.	.20	.38	.57	-.00
18. I am able to influence the assignment of new students to my class.	-.15	-.22	.44	.21
19. Our school has enough books and supplies to serve the students who enroll during the year.	.32	-.00	-.44	.19
Specialized School Programs				
20. Our school provides special orientation materials to newcomers and their parents.	.12	.07	.01	.76
21. The principal recognizes that student mobility is an important factor affecting my job as a teacher.	-.23	.13	.32	.50
22. Our school has established procedures to help teachers work with newcomers	.35	.38	.23	.47

Table 5.3

Mean Scores on Opinion Scales for Teachers in Four Mobility Groups

Factor	Mobility Pattern				p-value[a]	
	Migrant	Military	Urban	Stable	Mobility	School
Satisfaction	-.11	.21	-.43	.34	.002	.36
Benefits	.24	.21	-.46	.00	.004	.11
History	.09	-.64	.30	.23	.0001	.39
Responsibility	.14	.03	-.23	.05	.35	.03
Issue	-.16	.14	.40	-.36	.002	.02
Parent Support	-.05	.41	-.62	.26	.001	.002
Teaching Support	.49	-.64	.05	.06	.0001	.0002

[a]p-values derived from ANOVAs

Table 6.1

Principal Perceptions of the Impact of Student Mobility on the Principal's Job

	Agricultural		Military		Urban		Stable	
	Appleton	Elm	Doolittle	McArthur	Broadway	Ninth St.	Creekside	Fairview
How does mobility affect your job as principal?								
Extra clerical/admin. work		X		X	X		X	X
Extra time to know students	X		X		X		X	
Extra time to know families	X		X		X		X	X
Extra time to work with agencies					X	X		
Extra cost		X						
Changes to curriculum	X							
What advice would you offer a new principal in a school with a lot of mobility?								
Patience & flexibility	X		X	X	X	X		
Adjust curriculum	X	X					X	
Adjust staff		X				X	X	
Adjust admin.		X			X			
Parent contract								X
Call on experience					X			
High expectations			X					
Ignore mobile			X					

Table 6.2

Principal Perceptions of the Impact of Student Mobility on Students

School	1. Impact on Students Who Move	2. Impact on Students Who Do Not Move
Agricultural		
Appleton	An extra burden in life; competing with students enrolled for 10 months; missing dramatic amounts of school; do not learn English as quickly	Teacher time goes to newcomers; away from stable students
Elm	Not asked	Not asked
Military		
Doolittle	Negative; too many different curricula; frequent transitions hard on students; social & emotional problems; never belonging, feeling insecure	No impact
McArthur	Disruptive; lack of continuity in curricula	The longer they stay the better
Urban		
Broadway	Feels badly	Disruptive
Ninth St.	Difficult; low retention or not in school; attitude that school not important	Disrupts class for 1-2 days; other kids put on hold
Stable		
Creekside	Self-worth affected; using energy to learn new people/school	Positive; new experience
Fairview	Enhances their education	Social life only, not education

Note. Interview questions:
1. How does mobility affect the education of the students in your school who move?
2. How does mobility affect the education of the students in your school who do not move?

Table 6.3

Effects of Student Mobility on Principal Planning Decisions

School	1. Effects on Planning	2. Budget Trade-offs	3. Effects on School Calendar
Agricultural			
Appleton	1) Funding 2) Redirect staff time 3) Coordinate space	Space	Not affected
Elm	1) Redirect staff time 2) Convert space 3) Manipulate class size 4) Inservice training 5) Move desks & chairs	Curriculum	Community/families
Military			
Doolittle	1) Assume maximum enrollment, students interchangeable	Not affected; multi ethnic students = positive	1) State testing 2) Promotion date
McArthur	1) Budget based on previous year's enrollment	Shortages of supplies & materials	Not affected
Urban			
Broadway	1) Manipulate class size 2) School program excellence 3) Maximum use of facilities	Not affected; seek free services	State testing
Ninth St.	1) Delegate $ for materials to teachers 2) Fight for status quo faculty 3) Add resource staff	Resource staff	Not affected
Stable			
Creekside	Not affected	Not affected	Not affected
Fairview	1) Aides hired for class overloads	Not affected	Not affected

Note. Interview questions:

1. When you plan and project your needs for the entire school year, how does mobility affect the decisions you make?
2. Often, budget decisions call for trade-offs. What trade-offs must you make to meet the demands of student mobility at this school?
3. When you plan the calendar for the entire school year, how does mobility affect the decisions you make?

Table 6.4

Student Mobility & School-wide Programs

School	1. Reading Placement	2. Math Placement	3. School-wide Programs	4. Reasons	5. Effect of School Programs	6. Effect on New Curriculum
Agricultural						
Appleton	Teacher	Teacher	Yes	Teacher initiated to integrate non-English speakers	Easier	Mobility = No Language = Yes
Elm	Teacher	Teacher	No	Not applicable	Not applicable	No
Military						
Doolittle	Reading Specialist	Teacher	No	Not applicable	Not applicable	No
McArthur	Teacher	Teacher	Yes	1) Teacher expertise 2) Meet individual needs	Easier	No
Urban						
Broadway	Teacher	Teacher	Yes	Self-esteem of students	Don't know	District selects texts
Ninth St.	Reading Specialist	Teacher	Yes	In place before principal took job	Don't know	Self-esteem of low-achievers = more important
Stable						
Creekside	Teacher	Teacher	Yes	Meet individual student needs	Easier	Uncodeable response
Fairview	Principal	Teacher	Yes	Skills-based reading	Doesn't matter	District selects texts

Note. Interview questions:

1. Who is responsible for assessing the newcomer's reading level?
2. Who is responsible for assessing the newcomer's math level?
3. Are there instructional programs that require students to combine differently across classroom boundaries?
4. What are the reasons for these school-wide instructional programs?
5. Do school-wide programs make it easier or more difficult for teachers to work with mobile students?
6. Suppose you and your faculty were planning to adopt a new curriculum, how might mobility be a factor in your decision?

Table 6.5

Student Mobility & School Administration

School	1. Same Day Placement	2. Notice Given	3. Who Assigns	4. Based On	5. Different from Fall
Agricultural					
Appleton	Yes	< 1 hr	1) Principal	1) Empty seat 2) Need for bilingual services	Yes
Elm	Yes	> 1 mo for migrants	1) Principal 2) Teacher	1) Balance heterogenous class ability 2) Balance sex	Yes
Military					
Doolittle	Depends	< 1 hr	1) Reading Specialist	1) Primary by reading ability 2) Upper by empty seat	Yes
McArthur	Depends	< 1 hr	1) Front office	1) Empty seat 2) Balance sex 3) Special needs	No
Urban					
Broadway	No	24 hours	1) Principal	1) Empty seat 2) Balance sex 3) Match student's needs & teacher 4) Student ability/special needs	Yes
Ninth St.	Depends	< 1 hr	1) Secretary 2) Principal 3) Bus schedule	1) Empty seat	Yes
Stable					
Creekside	Yes	< 1 hr	1) Secretary 2) Principal	1) Empty sea. 2) Balance special needs	Yes
Fairview	Yes	< 1 hr	1) Principal	1) Balance heterogenous reading level 2) Balance sex	No

Note. Interview questions:

1. Are new students placed in classrooms the same day they enroll?
2. Typically, how much notice do teachers have of a new student's placement in their classes?
3. Who assigns students to classes?
4. On what basis is the assignment made?
5. Is this procedure different from the way in which students are assigned to classes at the beginning of the year?

Table 6.6

Student Mobility & School-wide Management

School	1. Student Orientation	2. Who Conveys Rules & Routines	3. School-wide Management	4. Who Conveys School-wide
Agricultural				
Appleton	No	1) Teacher 2) Parent handbook 3) Bus schedule	Yes	1) Handbook 2) Fall assembly 3) Teacher
Elm	No	1) Parent 2) Secretary 3) Newsletters/notices 4) Binder in office	Yes	1) Folder to student and parents
Military				
Doolittle	Yes, student council mini-presentation	1) Parent handbook 2) Newsletters/notices	Yes	1) Regular review through year 2) Individual review 3) Teacher 4) Handbook 5) Classmates
McArthur	No	1) Office staff 2) Parent/student handbook	Yes	1) Handbook 2) Teacher 3) Fall orientation
Urban				
Broadway	No	1) Principal to parents 2) Bus schedule 3) Parent 4) Newsletter/notices 5) Teacher	Yes	1) Teacher 2) Classmates 3) Rules posted
Ninth St.	Yes, Fall assembly	1) Office staff 2) Teacher 3) Parent handbook	Yes	1) Teacher 2) Rules posted
Stable				
Creekside	No, handbook to student	1) Secretary 2) Newsletters/notices 3) Maps for buses	Yes	1) Office staff 2) Class buddy
Fairview	No	1) Teacher 2) Class buddy	Yes	1) Teacher 2) Class buddy

Note. Interview questions:

1. Is there an orientation for new students at this school?
2. How are school routines conveyed to the new student?
3. Is there a school-wide behavior management program at this school?
4. How is the school-wide behavior management program conveyed to new students?

Table 6.7

Principal Perceptions of Teacher Skills Needed & Evaluated in Work with Mobile Students

	Agricultural		Military		Urban		Stable	
	Appleton	Elm	Doolittle	McArthur	Broadway	Ninth St.	Creekside	Fairview
Personal Characteristics	N		N	N E	N	N	N	N E
Knowledge of Curriculum	N E				N		N	
Diagnosing Student Needs	E	E	N E		N	E	N	E
Organization & Planning		N E				N		
Teaching Techniques		E	E	E	N E			

Note. Interview questions:

1. Are there particular skills that enable teachers to work more effectively with a mobile student population? (N = skill needed)
2. When you evaluate a teacher's performance, do you look for these skills? (E = skill evaluated)

Table 6.8

Resources Available to Teachers Who Work with Mobile Students

School	1. Time	2. Training	3. Help
Agricultural			
Appleton	No	Yes	1) Principal 2) Bilingual Title VII project director
Elm	Question not asked	Question not asked	Question not asked
Military			
Doolittle	Yes	Yes	1) Resource specialist 2) STC teacher 3) ESL teacher 4,5) Two reading specialists 6) Psychologist 7) Speech 8) Language 9) Principal 10) Vice Principal
McArthur	No	No	1) Principal
Urban			
Broadway	Yes	Yes	1) Reading specialist 2) Grade team 3) Principal 4) Special education
Ninth St.	No	No	1) Peer 2) Principal
Stable			
Creekside	No	Yes	1) Resource specialist 2) Principal
Fairview	No	Yes	1) Principal 2) Resource specialist

Note. Interview Questions:

1. Is it necessary to provide teachers at this school with extra planning time in order that they may better work with students who move?
2. Is there any inservice training you have found that particularly helps teachers better work with students who move?
3. If a teacher needs help working with a student who moves, to whom should he or she turn for help?

Table 6.9

Principal's Focus in Providing Services

School	Rating*
Agricultural	
Appleton	4
Elm	4
Military	
Doolittle	2
McArthur	4
Urban	
Broadway	4
Ninth St.	5
Stable	
Creekside	1
Fairview	3

* Ratings were made on a five-point scale with 1 = student/class focussed; 3 = both student and school focussed; and 5 = school focussed.