## **DISCUSSION PAPERS IN ECONOMICS**

Working Paper No. 10-05

### Choosing Where to Teach: The Effect of Teacher Quality on the Charter Versus Public School Decision

Lauren Calimeris University of Colorado at Boulder

> revised December 2010 October 2010

Department of Economics



University of Colorado at Boulder Boulder, Colorado 80309

© October 2010 Lauren Calimeris

# Choosing Where to Teach: The Effect of Teacher Quality on the Charter Versus Public School Decision

Job Market Paper

Lauren Calimeris\*

December 1, 2010

#### Abstract

This paper combines restricted-use data from the 2007-2008 SASS and a disaggregated measure of teacher quality based on undergraduate institutional quality to determine where high quality teachers choose to teach. Higher quality teachers are more likely to teach at charter schools versus public schools than are lower quality teachers. This effect generally increases with quality. Among the youngest cohort of teachers, those who are of the highest quality are 11 percentage points more likely to choose a charter school than their lower quality counterparts. These findings suggest that traditional public schools may be at a growing disadvantage in attracting teachers who graduate from the best universities.

Keywords: Teacher Quality; Charter Schools; Teacher Sorting; Teacher; Schools and Staffing Survey; School Choice

JEL Codes: I21; J21; J4

<sup>\*</sup>Department of Economics, University of Colorado at Boulder, 256 UCB, Boulder, CO 80309-0256 (email: calimeri@colorado.edu). I am grateful to Jeffrey Zax for his guidance, comments, support, and patience. I would also like to thank Francisca Antman, Brian Cadena, Rey Hernandez, and Terra McKinnish for helpful comments and suggestions. Any remaining errors are my own.

#### 1 Introduction

Since their inception in 1992, charter schools have grown to operate over 5,000 schools in 39 states and the District of Columbia (Center for Education Reform 2010). Charters are a free alternative choice for parents. They are publicly funded and have more autonomy and greater accountability than traditional public schools (henceforth, public or traditional schools). Charters may have different academic focuses or may target different student populations.

Opponents to the charter school movement believe that charters may drain resources from traditional schools (Dillon 2010). Teachers are a key input into the education production function (see for example, Aaronson et al. 2002, Ferguson 1991, Ferguson and Ladd 1996, Goldhaber 2002, Goldhaber et al. 1999, Hanushek et al. 1999, Hanushek and Rivkin 2003, Hanushek 1992, Hanushek 1971, Rivkin et al. 2005, Rockoff 2004), with teacher quality associated with 7% of the variance in student achievement gains (Rivkin et al. 2005). One way to address if charters drain resources is to investigate where quality teachers are more abundant, at charter or public schools? Also, teachers may have faced different choice sets depending upon when they graduated from college, before or after the introduction of charter schools in the early- to mid-1990s. Depending upon when a teacher graduated from college, is there a difference in the probability of teaching at a charter versus a public school for different quality teachers?

This paper's main contribution is the investigation of sorting decisions among different quality teachers and different cohorts of teachers using data from the 2007-2008 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). This paper also makes two secondary methodological contributions. It demonstrates that teacher quality should be measured by the competitiveness of the teacher's undergraduate college at the time of enrollment because college competitiveness is not constant over time. In addition, teacher quality should be measured as precisely as possible because aggregate quality classifications obscure distinctions in the choices made by teachers of different underlying quality.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 gives the background of teacher quality measurement, and section 3 describes college competitiveness. Section 4 discusses teacher quality. Section 5 illustrates perceived and real differences in charter and public schools. Section 6 details the estimation strategy. Section 7 discusses the study findings. Finally, section 8 concludes.

#### 2 Teacher Quality Background

Measuring teacher quality is extremely difficult. Most characteristics of effective teachers such as passion, enthusiasm, work ethic, and people skills, are not easily measurable. Even so, studies have tried to find quantitative and observable ways of measuring quality. Licensure, testing, certification, and advanced degrees are considered observable measures of quality but are not consistently associated with improvements in student outcomes or teacher quality (Angrist and Guryan 2008, Angrist and Guryan 2004, Berliner 2005).

On the other hand, studies have found that a teacher's innate ability and intelligence are associated with positive gains in student outcomes. They have established measures of intelligence, including the teacher's SAT/ACT scores or college competitiveness as good indicators of effectiveness (Angrist and Guryan 2004, Coleman et al. 1966, Ehrenberg and Brewer 1994). The competitiveness of a teacher's college is a common proxy for measuring teacher quality (Bacolod 2007a, Ballou 1996, Ballou and Podgursky 1997, Ballou and Podgursky 1995, Baker and Dickerson 2006, Boyd et al. 2010, Boyd et al. 2003, Carruthers 2009, Clotfelter et al. 2006, Ehrenberg and Brewer 1994, Figlio 1997, Podgursky et al. 2004)<sup>1</sup>. The majority of these studies utilize the rankings from *Barron's Profiles of American Colleges*, which categorizes undergraduate institutions into one of 6 tiers: Most Competitive, Highly Competitive, Very Competitive, Competitive, Less Competitive, and Non Competitive. Other studies use similar rankings, such as the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute's ranking (Bacolod 1997a) or a measure by Lovejoy (Figlio 1997).

Most studies implementing college competitiveness as a proxy for teacher quality create aggregates of the original six Barron's categories, though the aggregations are not consistent. For example, Baker and Dickerson (2006) and Lankford et al. (2002) consider teacher quality to be dichotomous, aggregating the top two tiers together and all other ranks together. Carruthers (2009) also treats quality to be dichotomous, though she aggregates all teachers graduating from the top four tiers together. Meanwhile, Clotfelter et al. (2006) create three aggregations: teachers from the top three tiers form the top group, those from competitive colleges are the middle group, and those from the lowest two tiers comprise the final group. Ehrenberg and Brewer (1994), who provide the evidence that increases in teacher quality, as measured by the Barron's ranking, does significantly improve students' outcomes, do not aggregate quality ranks, nor does Hoxby (2002).

While aggregating quality categories is common, most studies do not explain why they do it. Some studies aggregate because their samples, especially among the higher ranks, are small (Podgursky et al. 2004), as individuals who attend more competitive colleges or who have higher standardized test scores are less likely to be teachers (Ballou 1996, Hanushek and Pace 1995). Studies do not address if aggregations are masking effects of finer quality levels on their outcomes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Some studies use the average SAT/ACT score of where the teacher attended college instead of the college's competitiveness rank. See, for example, Figlio (2002), Hoxby and Leigh (2004), and Podgursky et al. (2004).

#### **3** College Rankings

Most studies proxying for quality with college rankings use a single year, or a reference year, of rankings. Most do not choose the reference year corresponding to when their teachers attended college. Few even mention their reference year. Of those that do, some studies choose a year that is the closest to when their median teachers attended (Hoxby 2002) or entered (Carruthers 2009) college. The reference year chosen could affect results if competitiveness changes over time, as teachers could be assigned an incorrect quality measure, something most studies ignore. If competitiveness changes, measurement error would lead to attenuation bias in study results.

This study uses the college rankings from *Barron's Profiles of American Colleges*, which ranks all four year institutions which offer bachelor's degrees if they are fully accredited or are recognized as candidates for accreditation. Ranks are based on incoming freshmen characteristics, such as high school class rank, SAT/ACT scores, GPA, and acceptance rate, from the academic year prior to the publication year. For example, the 1996 rankings are based on the characteristics of the entering freshmen of the 1995-1996 academic year. The first year of publication was 1964, and the Profiles are revised biennially.

This study complied a dataset of rankings for the publication years 1970, 1984, 1986, 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998, 2000, and 2002. These years correspond to when the teachers of most interest in the SASS entered college. Charter schools first opened in 1992, with the bulk of states passing charter laws between 1993-1998<sup>2</sup>. Teachers graduating after 1992 will have had the charter option in their choice set at the onset of employment. Accordingly, the ranking dataset consists of rankings since the inception of charters along with a subset of previous rankings. Earlier rankings allow competitiveness to be tracked over time to determine if it changes. More earlier years were not included as established teachers will have little incentive to leave their schools, while newer teachers have more perceived flexibility and are of the most interest to this study.

This study identified the Barron's ranked colleges IPEDS codes from the National Center of Education Statistics (NCES) for use in merging the rankings to the SASS data. It dropped specialized colleges (e.g., religious or arts schools), those that closed or merged, colleges with multiple campuses that are not uniquely identifiable in both datasets, and foreign colleges from the analysis.

Simple correlations of the rankings illustrate that they do shift. The correlation in ranks from 1970 and 2002 is 0.64. Among the highest two ranks (as of 2002), the correlation is 0.55. Thus, there is movement in the rankings for all levels of colleges, and it is greater among the best.

Table 1 illustrates how the ranks change from 1970 to 2002. Most changes are increases<sup>3</sup>. Among

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ Two states passed laws in 1991 and 1992. Six passed laws in 1993, three in 1994, eight in 1995, seven in 1996, four in 1997, five in 1998, two in 1999, one in 2001, two in 2002, and one in 2003 (Center for Education Reform 2010).

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$ One could argue that competitiveness changes over time are simply due to increases in the demand for higher education and do not actually reflect increases in university quality; however, the Barron's rankings are based on a stringent set of

all universities, nearly 37% have increased in ranking between 1970 and 2002, while 19% have decreased. Roughly 44% did not change over time.

Among universities ranked in the top three tiers in 2002, 70% have increased in rank since 1970 while roughly four percent decreased. Among the top two ranks, 70% increased compared to three percent that decreased. Increases are not surprising for schools achieving ranks in the top categories in 2002, but the number of tiers jumped indicates that at least 44 universities in the top two tiers in 2002 were not in this group in 1970. These universities, and thus their earlier graduates, may be incorrectly classified both using a reference year and in aggregated groupings due to their large movements.

Columns 7 and 8 in Table 1 illustrate what happened to the top universities in 1970. Among the top three tiers, 33% of universities increased in rank while 24% decreased, and 42% remained the same. For the top two tiers, nearly 39% increased, and roughly 19% decreased. The findings suggest that some top ranked universities may have jumped aggregated groupings.

Table 1 demonstrates that college rankings are dynamic. Using a reference year may lead to erroneous inferences. Furthermore, the number of tiers that colleges may change over time suggests that aggregating the quality measures will not solve the misclassification problem. These findings support the idea of tracing college rank back to when the teacher entered college.

#### 4 Teacher Quality

The SASS is administered every four years and is a stratified probability proportional to size sample of school teachers across the United States designed to be representative of the nation. It is composed of a series of questionnaires, including school and teacher questionnaires. The teacher survey contains information on teacher demographics (e.g., age, race, sex) and education, including the name of his undergraduate institution and its IPEDS code, his majors, degrees obtained, and his graduation years.

The IPEDS code matches the SASS teachers and the college rank dataset. Teacher "matched ranking" is the Barron's ranking of the teacher's college published in the year of or the year subsequent to his enrollment. For example, a teacher who entered college in 1983 or in 1984 received the 1984 rank, while one who entered college in 1985 or in 1986 received the 1986 ranking. The matched rankings represent the college-based teacher quality measure. This paper excluded teachers who entered college in a year whose ranks were not included in the ranking dataset.

In the 2007-2008 SASS, 18,100<sup>4</sup> teachers match with their institution's ranking when the teacher entered

characteristics that remains stable over time. Thus, school quality may be increasing as schools are able to accept a lower percentage of applicants with higher test scores, class ranks, and GPAs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>For confidentiality, all sample sizes are rounded to the nearest 10.

college. Of these, 17,290 were full or part time regular teachers<sup>5</sup>. Only the 14,030 teachers who attended college in a state with charter laws as of 2007 are included in the primary analysis. Teachers prefer to teach close to where they grew up or to where they went to college (Boyd et al. 2003, 2005). As such, this paper assumes teachers who were educated in non-charter states do not perceive themselves to face the same choice as teachers who were not. It assumes that the cost of finding a charter job is different for these teachers than for those educated in charter states<sup>6</sup>.

To highlight the importance of the matched ranking measure, this study also uses a reference year teacher quality measure to illustrate differences in the two measures. The 2002 ranks are the reference year ranking. This year was chosen as it corresponds to the teachers who most recently attended college (e.g., teachers who graduated from college in 2006 entered in 2002, and those who graduated in 2007 entered in 2003), allowing for the largest matched sample of teachers post charter introduction.

Table 2 presents the frequencies of college rankings in different subgroups of teachers, using both the matched ranking and the 2002 ranking. It illustrates how the two methods of assigning ranks result in different distributions of college-based quality. The differences grow as the reference year is further from the true entrance year. Table 2 also shows how the frequencies differ between public and charter teachers.

The 2002 ranks overstate the number of teachers from better colleges for both public and charter teachers. This is expected, given the upward trend in ranks over time. The discrepancies are even more pronounced as the teacher's actual college entrance year is further from the reference year. Among teachers who entered college prior to 1980, the matched ranking measure finds 0.8% of traditional teachers hail from Most Competitive colleges and 2.5% from Highly Competitive colleges. The 2002 measure classifies 2.5% of these same teachers from Most Competitive and 8.3% from Highly Competitive colleges. The matched ranking finds roughly 11% of teachers are from Very Competitive colleges compared to 18% using the 2002 ranking.

For charter teachers entering college between 1980-1989, the matched ranking indicates that none are in the top two tiers, while the 2002 ranking indicates there are a few, though the small number rounds to zero. For traditional teachers, the matched ranking classifies 3.6% in the top two, compared to 7.7% using the 2002 ranking. The discrepancies illustrate that volatility in competitiveness is translated to the teacher population. The reference year rankings are distorting, and results based on this measure are likely to be biased.

Table 2 also illuminates how few teachers are from the top colleges, which is consistent with Hoxby's 2002 findings. The matched ranking indicates 6.1% of all teachers are in the top two tiers. For teachers entering college before 1980, no charter teachers hail from Most Competitive colleges while 10 (0.8%) traditional

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>This paper excluded long- and short-term substitutes and teacher aides from the analysis.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>All analyses have been carried out using all states, including charter and non-charter states, as well as using only teachers teaching in charter states. The general results hold for all analyses.

teachers do. For those entering in the 1980s, none of the 60 charter teachers are in the top two tiers, while 80 of the 2,210 traditional teachers are. The percentage of teachers in these ranks is increasing over time for both groups.

Table 3 expands on Table 2 by illustrating how many categories a teacher's college rank differs between the two assignment methods for different subgroups. While roughly 61% of all teachers are ranked the same, nearly 25% of public teachers are ranked higher using the 2002 ranking than the matched ranking. Roughly 17% are ranked lower in 2002. Among charter teachers, 22% are ranked higher, and 13% are ranked lower.

Table 3 also reiterates how using a reference year is more distorting the further away it is from the actual entrance year. For those who entered college after 1999, 94% of charter and 89% of public teachers are ranked the same between the two methods. For those entering in the 1990s, only 59% and 57% of charter and public teachers are. This percentage drops to 50% and 48% for charter and public teachers entering in the 1980s. For those entering before 1980, 50% of charter teachers have the same ranking while 46% of public teachers do.

The evidence presented illustrates that college ranks change over time, and these changes are reflected in the teacher population. There is a difference in rankings between public and charter school teachers, and this difference appears greater the older the teacher. Older teachers from better colleges are traditional school teachers, while there is a greater percentage of Most and Highly Competitive alumni in charters versus public schools among the younger teachers. Since teacher quality is based on college ranks, teacher quality distributions differ depending upon how the rankings are assigned to the teacher. The greater the difference in the reference year and when the teacher actually entered college, the greater the misrepresentation. Furthermore, the misrepresentation differs for charter and public teachers.

These results suggest that teacher quality should be measured by the rank of their undergraduate college at the time of their enrollment in order to avoid the mismeasurement biases which might arise if ranks are assigned from a single reference year. The analysis below pursues this suggestion and quantifies the extent of these biases.

#### 5 Teacher Perceptions of Charter & Public Schools

Proponents of charter schools claim that teachers choose charters because they can avoid the bureaucracy associated with traditional schools. Charters are also attractive as they focus on student needs and outcomes (Center for Education Reform 2010). Dye and Antle (1984) suggest that if productivity is correlated with preferences for nonpecuniary job aspects, then different types of workers might systematically sort across jobs, even in the absence of a monetary productivity premium. Accordingly, different quality teachers

may be attracted to different school types due to associated nonpecuniary attributes. For charters, these attributes may include a shorter schedule, fewer hours, or more autonomy in the classroom. Teachers sort and workplace characteristics matter, with higher quality teachers less likely to teach at urban (Ehrenberg and Brewer 1994, Figlio 2002, Figlio 1997) or poorer schools (Bacolod 2007b, Lankford et al. 2002). Charter or public school bundles also may enter into preferences.

The SASS contains questions on school characteristics, teacher pay, and teachers' perspectives of their school. The mean values of the responses for charter and public teachers are presented in Tables 4 and 6. The tables also indicate if the differences in the responses are significant.

Table 4 details summary statistics on basic workplace characteristics. On average, charter teachers report having longer contracts than public school teachers. They have more required hours and teaching hours per week. Charter teachers are significantly less likely to be in a union. They also earn significantly less money, on average, than traditional teachers. Since pay can vary with experience, teacher reported average pay by tenure is presented in Table 5.

The top half of Table 5 reports base pay and actual earnings by total experience. Charter teachers' average base pay is significantly lower than public teachers' for all except for those with 1-3, 10-14, 20-24, or over 30 years of experience. Average total earnings are significantly less for charter teachers, though the significance varies for those with over 20 years of experience.

The bottom half of Table 5 reports base pay and annual earnings based on tenure at the teachers' current schools. For their first 9 years of experience, charter teachers' base pay is significantly lower than public school teachers' base pay. For teachers with 10 or more years of tenure at a school, the significance disappears. For the most tenured, charter teachers report slightly higher pay, though the difference is insignificant. The trends are similar for total earnings.

If charter schools are to attract higher quality teachers despite lower salaries and longer school days and years, then other aspects of charter school employment must be more attractive than in traditional schools. The SASS contains questions regarding how much control teachers believe they have on certain aspects of their teaching. Answers range from 1-4, with a value of 1 corresponding to "No control" and 4 corresponding to "A great deal of control". Table 6 presents the mean responses for charter and public school teachers and indicates if any differences are significant.

The top portion of Table 6 suggests that on average, charter teachers rate their control over selecting instructional materials and course content higher than public school teachers. They rate their control over determining the amount of homework lower than their public school counterparts.

The SASS also contains questions regarding teacher perceptions. Answers range from 1-4, with a value of 1 corresponding to "Strongly agree" and 4 corresponding to "Strongly disagree". In the bottom of Table

6, a negative (positive) difference means the charter teachers agree (disagree) more with the statement than public school teachers.

Responses indicate that while charter teachers are less satisfied with their salaries than public teachers, they are not more likely to leave for greater pay. They are less satisfied with teaching at the school and do not believe their peers are happy. They worry more about job security due to student performance. They believe the school is not run well, and they report lower satisfaction with the adequacy of teaching materials and support for disabled students than public teachers.

Compared to public school teachers, charter teachers believe that their peers are more likely to enforce school rules. They report that their principals communicate goals more, and they believe the staff is more cooperative. Charter teachers report that other duties and paperwork do not interfere with their teaching. Finally, they report having maintained enthusiasm at a greater rate.

Thus, while charter teachers are paid less, are less satisfied with their schools and more worried about their jobs than public teachers, they are still maintaining their enthusiasm. The support from staff, communication from the principals, and lack of extraneous duties support the suggestion that teachers may be attracted to charters because of nonpecuniary attributes. This paper next investigates whether these preferences are related to quality.

#### 6 Methods

While the process through which a teacher and school choose one another is two-sided, the SASS allows only the observation of the result of the matching process. Baker and Dickerson (2006) use 1999-2000 SASS data and assume that the school determines the match when investigating teacher quality in public, private, and charter schools. They find charters had a larger share of higher quality teachers than public schools. The estimation equation considers college competitiveness the dependent variable and school type an independent variable.

Carruthers (2009) examines North Carolina teachers who switch schools. She finds teachers moving from public to charter schools are less qualified and less likely to have graduated from a competitive college than other movers. She finds that charters do not skim high quality teachers from public schools, though they draw more effective teachers among those switching schools. Like Baker and Dickerson, Carruthers also considers college competitiveness the dependent variable and school type an independent variable.

In both studies, the estimation equation assumes that a future event, school type, predicts a past event, college competitiveness. They suggest where a teacher currently teaches predicts her quality, when in fact, different quality teachers may self-select into the different school types. These studies reverse the causality

of the relationship.

This paper takes a different viewpoint and investigates how teacher characteristics, in particular, teacher quality influences and predicts the matching result. Assuming a teacher knows his own skill set, a teacher also knows which school would be suitable for his needs and desires in a workplace. Teachers decide where to apply and how to sort. A high quality teacher may like the autonomy at charter schools, while a lower quality teacher may desire more stringent guidelines and the union protection available at public schools. Teachers are the most informed about their own abilities, desires, and beliefs, and ultimately they decide which position to accept, among those offered.

This study assumes that the highest quality teachers can choose their ideal schools<sup>7</sup>. Schools want to hire the best, and there are not enough top quality teachers to fill all positions. Estimates for the highest quality teachers from Most Competitive colleges represent their preferences of school type. The next highest quality teachers, those from Highly Competitive colleges, will also be able to choose their optimal schools, given the position is still available and has not been filled by the highest quality teacher. The interpretation of the coefficient for these teachers represents a mixture of preferences and availability. As quality declines, the interpretation represents availability more than preferences, as lower quality teachers will not be able to choose freely between school types. These teachers will be offered what has not been accepted by the higher quality teachers.

The basic model in this paper is represented by the following equation:

$$Charter_i = \alpha_0 + Q'_i\beta + S'_i\delta + X'_i\gamma + \varepsilon \tag{1}$$

The dependent variable, *Charter*, is an indicator variable equal to one if teacher i teaches at a charter school during the 2007-2008 academic year and is equal to zero if the teacher teaches at a public school. Since the dependent variable is binary, the model is estimated via a probit regression. For each probit, the marginal effects are calculated for a benchmark teacher. The benchmark teacher is a White male of the lowest quality with no graduate degrees, with the average number of years of experience, and who is of the average age for the sample of interest.

The teacher quality measures are contained in the Q vector. To determine if aggregating quality could mask effects of finer distinctions of quality, this paper estimates the equation using two specifications of the Q vector. The first aggregates quality, creating three quality groups. Higher Quality is a dummy variable equal to one if teachers hail from Most or Highly Competitive colleges. Lower Quality is a dummy

 $<sup>^{7}</sup>$ Though charter schools are not uniformly distributed across charter states, it is also assumed that teachers are able to relocate to accept employment at a charter if desired.

variable equal to one if teachers are from Very Competitive, Competitive, or Less Competitive colleges. Non Competitive teachers comprise the final group. In the second specification, each ranking is included as a binary variable. This specification is of the most interest, as it clearly illustrates what the effects are for differing levels of quality and indicates if there is a stronger effect for better quality teachers. This paper estimated both specifications using the matched and the 2002 ranking to investigate how a reference year might distort findings.

For all specifications,  $S_i$  is a vector of educational attainment variables, including if teacher *i* obtained either a Master's degree or a Ph.D.<sup>8</sup>. Finally,  $X_i$  is a vector of demographic controls, including teacher *i* 's years of teaching experience, age, gender, and ethnicity.

#### 7 Regression Results

#### 7.1 2007-2008 SASS Findings

The results of the probit model for the aggregated quality regression are presented in Table 7. Column 1 presents the estimates using the matched ranking. Column 2 presents the results for the matched population using the 2002 ranking, while Column 3 estimates the equation for all teachers using the 2002 ranking, including those who do not have a matched ranking measure<sup>9</sup>.

The estimates affirm the model is plausible as the coefficients all exhibit the expected signs. With respect to controls, the negative and significant coefficient on Master's degree corresponds to the idea that charter teachers have little incentive to obtain an advanced degree compared to public teachers, who are often required by law to get one while the charter teachers are exempt. The table also indicates that more experienced teachers are less likely to work at a charter, holding constant quality. Since charter schools are a relatively recent development, this result is not surprising. A veteran teacher with job security, who has already established her reputation and learned the ins and outs of her school will have little incentive to leave.

The positive and significant coefficients on Hispanic, Black, and Asian are unsurprising as charters disproportionately enroll minority students (Frankenberg et al. 2010, Hoxby and Muraka 2009). Given that students learn better from teachers with the same ethnicity (Dee 2004), a teacher who wishes to be the most effective will choose to teach where she shares the ethnicity of the students.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>All teachers have their undergraduate degrees in the analysis, so the comparison is to teachers without any graduate degree. <sup>9</sup>Teachers without a matched measure are teachers who entered college in a year for which the Barron's rankings are not included in this study.

The quality estimates imply that Higher Quality teachers are significantly more likely to work at a charter than their lowest quality counterparts. There is no effect for Lower Quality teachers.

Comparing the results in Column 1 to those in Column 2 to determine if the difference in assigning ranks matters, the reference year produces a lower point estimate with a lower significance on the quality variables than the matched measure<sup>10</sup>. The discrepancies worsen in Column 3, which incorporates all teachers, including those without a matched ranking. The additional teachers entered college before 1991, further from the reference year. The results represent what other studies using a reference year would have found. The estimate for Higher Quality teachers is less than half of the previous estimates and is insignificant. The studies would have erroneously concluded there was no quality effect, while the matched ranking indicates that there is one.

Table 8 reports the marginal effects of the probit presented in Table 7. For this population, the benchmark teacher is 36.3 years of age with 9.6 years of teaching experience. The probability of teaching at a charter for this population is 4.6%.

The first column indicates that teachers with Master's degrees are roughly one percentage point (22%) less likely to work at a charter. For each decade of teaching experience a teacher has, he is roughly 1.8 percentage points, or 39%, less likely to work at a charter school. Column 1 also finds that females are nearly 22% more likely to work at a charter school than males.

The biggest effect appears to be with respect to a teacher's race. Black teachers are 4.9 percentage points, or 107%, more likely to work at a charter than a White teacher. Hispanic teachers are 2.1 percentage points (46%) more likely, and Asian teachers are 3.1 percentage points (67%) more likely to work at a charter than the White benchmark teacher.

Quantifying the quality effect, the Column 1 finds Higher Quality teachers from Most and Highly Competitive colleges are 2.1 percentage points, or 46%, more likely to work at a charter school than the lowest quality benchmark teacher from a Non Competitive college. Lower Quality teachers are not significantly more likely to work at a charter school than the lowest quality benchmark.

The quality effect does not appear that large compared to other controls. While it is larger in magnitude than the effects of graduate degrees, gender, or years of experience, it is less than half the effect of being Black. The small magnitude of the quality effect may be reflecting the fact that teachers were aggregated into quality groups, something that will be investigated in Table 9.

For the reference year marginal effects, Column 2 indicates that Higher Quality teachers are 1.8 percentage points (39%) more likely to teach at a charter school than the benchmark teacher. There is still no effect

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>$  The analyses were also carried out using the 2000 ranks as the reference year for columns 2 and 3, and the results and conclusions hold.

for Lower Quality teachers. Again, incorporating all teachers in Column 3, the estimate is less than half of that in Column 2 and is insignificant.

While the previous tables illustrate that there is a quality effect, the question remains if finer distinctions of quality matter. Table 9 presents the marginal effects for the disaggregated quality estimation. The columns can be interpreted in the same manner as those of Tables 7 and 8.

Table 9 indicates that the aggregated quality analysis fails to pick up differences among the finer quality distinctions. Column 1 suggests that teachers from the Most Competitive colleges are 4.4 percentage points, or 96%, more likely to teach at a charter than those from Non Competitive colleges. This estimate reflects the fact that schools desire better teachers, and these teachers are able to choose their ideal school. Thus, the 4.4 percentage point increase reflects these teachers' preferences for charters over traditional schools.

Highly and Very Competitive college graduates are 1.7 and 1.9 percentage points, or 37% and 41%, more likely to work at a charter than the benchmark teacher. These estimates are a combination of the teachers preferences for charter positions given their availability. As quality declines, the point estimates decline as well, and teachers from Competitive and Less Competitive colleges are not significantly more likely to work at a charter. The insignificant result may reflect the fact that these teachers were not able to choose a charter school, as the positions may have been filled. As such, for these teachers, the estimate reflects availability more than preferences.

Table 9 also indicates that using the 2002 ranking continues to produce distorted estimates. The difference is greatest between the two measurements for teachers from Most and Very Competitive colleges. In Column 2, the reference year ranking indicates the Most Competitive graduates are 4.0 percentage points more likely to work at a charter, while Highly Competitive graduates no longer have a quality effect. Teachers from Very Competitive colleges are 1.6 percentage points more likely, while there is no quality effect for teachers from lower ranked schools.

The results suggest the probability of teaching at a charter over a public school generally increases as quality increases. Aggregating quality leads to inaccurate conclusions. Using a reference year is more misleading at the highest quality level, and it may change the significance of the findings.

Thus far, more experienced teachers appear less likely to choose a charter over a public school. Charters may have been perceived as risky ventures or as negative signals when they were first introduced. As such, the attraction to charter schools and the quality effect may be different among different cohorts of teachers depending upon when they started teaching. Table 10 presents the marginal effects of the probit regressions for different cohorts to determine if the quality effect varies between them. A cohort is defined as the group of teachers matched to a Barron's publication year. For example, teachers who entered college in 1991 and 1992 are classified in the 1992 cohort. There are nine cohorts corresponding to the nine years of Barron's rankings in this study.

The matched ranking is the sole quality measure in the cohort analysis. Due to the small number of charter teachers in each cohort, this study combines some independent variables because of lack of variation. For example, it combines having a Master's or a Ph.D. into a dummy variable for graduate degrees which is equal to one if the teacher has either an M.A. or a Ph.D. For the 1969-1970 and 1993-1994 cohorts, it combines teachers from Most and Highly Competitive colleges due to a lack of variation in these categories for charter and traditional teachers. For other cohorts, such as 1983-1984 and 1985-1986, it combines teachers from Most, Highly, and Very Competitive colleges. When necessary, this study combines minority groups as "Other Ethnicity" due to the small number of minorities in certain cohorts.

The marginal effects for each cohort presented in Table 10 are in reference to a benchmark teacher for that cohort<sup>11</sup>. All coefficients on the controls exhibit the expected sign. The quality effect is absent for older teachers, as expected, since these teachers would have already found their ideal school by the time charters were established. The quality effect first appears in 1997, though there is a slight negative effect for teachers from Very Competitive colleges who entered in 1995-1996.

The quality effect is largest for the highest quality and most recent college graduates. Among those who entered college in 2001-2002 and who graduated in 2005-2006, the probability of teaching at a charter is 6.4%. For these teachers, those from Most Competitive colleges are 11.5 percentage points, or 177% (11.5/6.4), more likely to teach at a charter than their benchmark teacher.

For those who entered college in 1999-2000, the probability of teaching at a charter is 7.0%. Those from Most Competitive colleges are 11.1 percentage points, or 159% more likely to teach at a charter, compared to their benchmark. Highly Competitive and Very Competitive college graduates are 6.1 (87%) and 3.8 (54%) percentage points more likely to teach at a charter.

For those entering in 1997-1998, the probability of teaching at a charter is 5.3%. Teachers from Highly Competitive colleges are 8.9 percentage points more likely to teach at a charter than their benchmark. Those from Very Competitive and Competitive colleges are 6.7 and 2.3 percentage points more likely.

The results from these three cohorts imply that the quality effect on charter school preferences is stronger in more recent cohorts. In particular, for the two most recent cohorts, teachers from the best colleges have the largest increase in the probability of teaching a charter school. These results are important because if the highest quality teachers in the youngest cohorts are significantly more likely to prefer a charter school, this must be affecting the quality level of public school teachers. Furthermore, as older teachers retire, the quality effect on public schools can become even larger.

 $<sup>^{11}</sup>$ Recall the benchmark teacher is a White male of the lowest quality and of average age with the average number of years of experience for that parcticular cohort.

#### 7.2 Persistence: 2003-2004 SASS Findings

While the SASS does not follow the same teachers across waves, it is designed to be representative. As such, data from the 2003-2004 SASS along with data from the 2007-2008 SASS allow this study to observe many of the same cohorts at two different points in time. The most recent cohort in the later data is not in the 2003-2004 data, as these teachers were just entering college at that time. A cohort analysis<sup>12</sup> applied to the earlier data explores if the patterns observed in the most recent data persist. This analysis implements the same methodology to identify the matched rankings. The sample of regular teachers educated in charter states who have a matched ranking is 13,340.

The results for the cohort analysis using the earlier data are presented in Table 11. The marginal effects are calculated in comparison to a benchmark teacher for each cohort. This study combined quality measures and ethnicities for certain cohorts due to lack of variation in independent variables.

The estimates suggest that the quality effect is nonexistent for teachers who entered college prior to 1991, as was true for the cohort analysis using the 2007-2008 SASS data. For the 1991-1992 cohort, the magnitudes of the quality effect appears the same for both the 2003-2004 and the 2007-2008 analysis. Thus, for older cohorts, decisions appear to be persistent.

Interestingly, for teachers in the 1993-1994 and 1995-1996 cohorts who graduated between 1997-2000, the 2003-2004 data suggest there was a slight quality effect for Highly Competitive, Very Competitive, and Competitive college graduates. By 2007-2008, the effect seems to have disappeared (Table 10). The 1997-1998 cohort's decisions do appear similar in the two analyses, with the magnitudes of the quality effects similar in both datasets. The few observations in the latest cohort of the 2003-2004 data make comparisons across the analyses difficult, though it is apparent the magnitudes of the estimates are increasing with quality.

The estimates in Table 11 imply that for the majority of cohorts, the patterns appear to hold over time. The probability of teaching at a charter generally increases with college-based quality. The probabilities for higher quality teachers increase in magnitude the younger the cohort. These findings imply that as cohorts retire, the distribution of teacher quality in public schools may be increasingly skewed towards lower quality teachers as higher quality teachers choose charter schools.

#### 8 Conclusions

This paper uses a disaggregated measure of teacher quality based on the competitiveness of a teacher's college as measured by *Barron's Profiles of American Colleges* to determine how different quality teachers

 $<sup>^{12}</sup>$  The study replicated all previous analyses using the 2007-2008 data with the 2003-2004 data. The general results hold and are available upon request.

sort between public and charter schools. The findings reveal that teachers from better colleges are more likely to teach at a charter than at a public school. This probability increases with college competitiveness. The greatest impact is on the youngest and newest teachers, with the highest quality ones being roughly 11 percentage points more likely to teach at a charter over their lowest quality counterparts. Quality effects are nonexistent for older teachers. School choice patterns appear persistent over time given a subsequent analysis using the 2003-2004 SASS data, as the magnitudes of the quality effects for cohorts appear similar between the two datasets.

This paper further investigates how to most appropriately proxy for teacher quality using undergraduate college ranking. It finds that aggregating quality levels can mask effects of finer quality distinctions and lead to erroneous conclusions. Furthermore, since competitiveness and rankings are dynamic, this paper finds that using a single reference year to measure competitiveness can be misleading and distort results. The distortion consistently underestimates the differences in choosing a charter for each quality distinction. The distortion becomes more pronounced the further the reference year is from when teachers actually entered college.

Few teachers hail from the best institutions. Since teacher quality affects student outcomes, knowing where newer and better quality teachers' preferences lay may illuminate how to attract such teachers. Since these teachers are disproportionately choosing charter schools, public schools must address their shortcomings and ask why these teachers are choosing the charter bundle.

#### References

- Aaronson, D., L. Barrow, and W. Sander. 2002. "Teachers and Student Achievement in the Chicago Public High Schools." Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago, Working Paper Series WP-02-28.
- [2] Angrist, Joshua D., and Jonathan Guryan. 2008. "Does Teacher Testing Raise Teacher Quality? Evidence from State Certification Requirements." *Economics of Education Review* 27(5): 483-503.
- [3] Angrist, Joshua D., and Jonathan Guryan. 2004. "Teacher Testing, Teacher Education, and Teacher Characteristics." American Economic Review 94(2):241-246.
- [4] Bacolod, Marigee. 2007a. "Do Alternative Opportunities Matter? The Role of Female Labor Markets in the Decline of Teacher Quality." *Review of Economics and Statistics* 89(4):737-778.
- [5] Bacolod, Marigee. 2007b. "Who Teaches and Where They Choose to Teach: College Graduates of the 1990s." Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 29(3):155-168.
- [6] Baker, Bruce D., and Jill L. Dickerson. 2006. "Charter Schools, Teacher Labor Market Deregulation, and Teacher Quality." *Educational Policy* 20(5): 752-778.
- [7] Ballou, Dale. 1996. "Do Public Schools Hire the Best Applicants?" Quarterly Journal of Economics 11(1): 97-133.
- [8] Ballou, Dale, and Michael Podgursky. 1997. Teacher Pay and Teacher Quality. Kalamazoo, MI: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.
- [9] Ballou, Dale, and Michael Podgursky. 1995. "Recruiting Smarter Teachers." Journal of Human Resources 30(2):326-338.
- [10] Berliner, David. 2005. "The Near Impossibility of Testing for Teacher Quality." Journal of Teacher Education 56(3): 205-213.
- [11] Bonesrønning, Hans, Torberg Falch, and Bjarne Strøm. 2005. "Teacher Sorting, Teacher Quality, and Student Composition." European Economic Review 49 :457-483.
- [12] Boyd, Donald, Hamilton Lankford, Susanna Loeb, Matthew Ronfeldt, and James Wyckoff. 2010. "The Role of Teacher Quality in Retention and Hiring: Using Applications-to-Transfer to Uncover Preferences of Teachers and Schools." NBER Working Paper 15966.
- [13] Boyd, Donald, Hamilton Lankford, Susanna Loeb, and James Wyckoff. 2005. "The Draw of Home: How Teachers' Preferences for Proximity Disadvantage Urban Schools." Journal of Policy Analysis and Management 24(1):113-132.
- [14] Boyd, Donald, Hamilton Lankford, Susanna Loeb, and James Wyckoff. 2003. "Analysing the Determinants of the Matching of Public School Teachers to Jobs: Estimating Compensating Differentials in Imperfect Labor Markets." NBER Working Paper 9878.
- [15] Center for Education Reform. 2010. "Just the FAQs Charter Schools." Available online: <a href="http://www.edreform.com/published\_pdf/Just\_the\_FAQs\_Charter\_Schools.pdf">http://www.edreform.com/published\_pdf/Just\_the\_FAQs\_Charter\_Schools.pdf</a>>. Accessed June 2010.
- [16] Coleman, James S., Ernest Q. Campbell, Carol J. Hobson, James McPartland, et al. 1966. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- [17] Clotfelter, Charles T., Helen F. Ladd, and Jacob L. Vidgor. 2006. "Teacher-Student Matching and the Assessment of Teacher Effectiveness." The Journal of Human Resources 41(4):778-820.
- [18] Dee, Thomas S. 2004. "The Race Connection: Are Teachers More Effective with Students who Share Their Ethnicity?" Education Next 2:52-59.

- [19] Dye, Ronald A., and Rick Antle. 1984. "Self-Selection via Fringe Benefits." Journal of Labor Economics 2(3):388-410.
- [20] Ehrenberg, Ronald, and Dominic Brewer. 1994. "Do School and Teacher Characteristics Matter? Evidence from High School and Beyond." Economics of Education 13(1) 1-17.
- [21] Ferguson, Ronald F. 2003. "Teachers' Perceptions and Expectation and the Black-White Test Score Gap." Urban Education 38(4):460-507.
- [22] Ferguson, Ronald F. 1991. "Paying for Public Education: New Evidence on How and Why Money Matters." Harvard Journal on Legislation 28(465):465-498.
- [23] Ferguson, Ronald F. and Helen F. Ladd. 1996. Holding Schools Accountable: Performance-Based Reform in Education. Ch. How and Why Money Matters: An Analysis of Alabama Schools. Washington, D.C.:The Brookings Institution.
- [24] Figlio, David N. 2002. "Can Public Schools Buy Better-Qualified Teachers." Industrial and Labor Relations Review 55(4):686-699.
- [25] Figlio, David N. 1997. "Teacher Salaries and Teacher Quality." *Economic Letters* 55:267-271.
- [26] Frankenberg, Erica, Genevieve Siegel-Hawley, and Jia Wang. 2010. "Choice without Equity: Charter School Segregation and the need for Civil Rights Standards." Los Angeles, CA: The Civil Rights Project/Poyecto Derechos Civiles at UCLA. Available online: <www.civilrightsproject.ucla.edu>. Accessed: July 2010.
- [27] Goldhaber, Dan. 2002. "The Mystery of Good Teaching: Surveying the Evidence on Student Achievement and Teachers' Characteristics." *Education Next* 2(1):50-55.
- [28] Goldhaber, Dan and Emily Anthony. 2007. "Can Teacher Quality be Effectively Assessed? National Board Certification as a Signal of Effective Teaching." *Review of Economics and Statistics* 89(1):134-150.
- [29] Goldhaber, Dan, and Dominic J. Brewer. 1996. "Evaluating the Effect of Teacher Degree Level on Educational Performance." Development in School Finance: 197-210.
- [30] Grosskopf, Shawna, Kathy J. Hayes, and Lori L. Taylor. 2009. "The Relative Efficiency of Charter Schools." Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics 80(1):67-87.
- [31] Hanushek, Eric A. 1971. "Teacher Characteristics and Gains in Student Achievement: Estimation Using Micro Data." American Economic Review: 61(2):280-288.
- [32] Hanushek, Eric A., John F. Kain, and Steve G. Rivkin. 1999. "Do Higher Salaries Buy Better Teachers?" NBER Working Paper No. 7082.
- [33] Hanushek, Eric A. and Richard R. Pace. 1995. "Who Chooses to Teach (and Why)?" Economics of Education Review 14(2):1010-117.
- [34] Hanushek, Eric A. and Steve G. Rivkin. 2003. The Economics of School Choice. Ch. Does Public School Competition Affect Teacher Quality? Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press. Hoxby, Ed.
- [35] Hoxby, Caroline M. 2002. "Would School Choice Change the Teaching Profession?" The Journal of Human Resources 37(4):846-891.
- [36] Hoxby, Caroline M. and Andrew Leigh. 2004. "Pulled Away or Pushed Out? Explaining the Decline of Teacher Quality in the U.S." *American Economic Review* 94(2):236-240.
- [37] Lankford, Hamilton, Susanna Loeb, and James Wyckoff. 2002. "Teacher Sorting and the Plight of Urban Schools: A Descriptive Analysis." *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 24(1):37-62.

- [38] Podgursky, Michael, Ryan Monroe, and Donald Watson. 2004. "The Academic Quality of Public School Teachers: An Analysis of Entry and Exit Behavior." *Economics of Education Review* 23(5):507-518.
- [39] Reback, Randall. 2004. "The Impact of College Course Offerings on the Supply of Academically Talented Public School Teachers." *The Journal of Econometrics* 121:377-404.
- [40] Rivkin, Steven G., Eric A. Hanushek, John F. Kain. 2005. "Teachers, Schools, and Academic Achievement." *Econometrica* 73(2):417-458.
- [41] Rockoff, Jonah E. 2004. "The Impact of Individual Teachers on Student Achievement: Evidence from Panel Data." *American Economic Review* 94(2):247-252.
- [42] Sanders, W.L, and J.B. Rivkin. 1996. Cumulative and Residual Effects of Teachers of Future Student Academic Achievement. University of Tennessee.

			Highly, Ve	ry High,			Highly, Ve	ry High,		
			or Mo	or Most		Very High or Most		or Most		or Most
	All Univ	ersities	Competitive in 2002		Competitive in 2002		Competitive in 1970		Competitive in 1970	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
3 Categories Lower in 2002	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	0.9	2	2.2
2 Categories Lower in 2002	25	2.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	3.9	1	1.1
1 Category Lower in 2002	198	17.0	14	3.7	5	3.3	46	19.7	14	15.4
No Difference	512	44.0	99	26.4	39	25.3	99	42.3	39	42.9
1 Category Higher	337	29.0	188	50.1	66	42.9	66	28.2	35	38.5
2 Categories Higher in 2002	86	7.4	71	18.9	41	26.6	12	5.1	0	0.0
3 Categories Higher in 2002	3	0.3	3	0.8	3	2.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	1,163	100	375	100	154	100	234	100	91	100

Table 1. Frequencies of Differences in University Ranks from 1970 to 2002

Table 2 Frequencies of College Competitiveness among reachers in Matched Sample												
_			Teachers	s Enterin	g College bef	ore 1980						
		Matche	d Ranking			2002 Ranking						
	Char	ter	Traditi	onal	Char	ter	Tradit	ional				
	Ν	%	N	%	N	%	N	%				
Non Competitive	0	0.0	40	3.3	0	0.0	30	2.5				
Less Competitive	10	50.0	370	30.6	10	50.0	250	20.7				
Competitive	10	50.0	640	52.9	10	50.0	590	48.8				
Very Competitive	0	0.0	130	10.7	0	0.0	220	18.2				
Highly Competitive	0	0.0	30	2.5	0	0.0	100	8.3				
Most Competitive	0	0.0	10	0.8	0	0.0	30	2.5				
Total	20	100	1,210	100	20	100	1,210	100				

Table 2 Frequencies of College Competitiveness among 1	Teachers in Matched Sample
--	----------------------------

			Teachers En	tering C	ollege betv	weer	ו <b>1980</b> -:	1989			
			2002 Ranking								
	Char	ter	Tradit	Traditional			Charter			onal	_
	Ν	%	N	%	N		%		N	%	_
Non Competitive	10	16.7	250	11.3		0	0.0		110	5.0	
Less Competitive	10	16.7	550	24.9		10	16.7		450	20.4	
Competitive	30	50.0	1050	47.5		30	50.0		1070	48.4	
Very Competitive	10	16.7	280	12.7		20	33.3		410	18.6	
Highly Competitive	0	0.0	60	2.7		0	0.0		120	5.4	
Most Competitive	0	0.0	20	0.9		0	0.0		50	2.3	
Total	60	100	2,210	100		60	100	:	2,210	100	

_		n 1990-19	999					
		Matcheo	d Ranking			2002 F	Ranking	
	Char	ter	Traditi	onal	Char	ter	Traditi	onal
	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	N	%
Non Competitive	30	7.69	640	8.7	20	5.1	400	5.4
Less Competitive	70	17.9	1320	17.9	70	17.9	1390	18.8
Competitive	160	41.0	3730	50.5	170	43.6	3690	49.9
Very Competitive	90	23.1	1220	16.5	90	23.1	1360	18.4
Highly Competitive	30	7.7	410	5.5	30	7.7	410	5.5
Most Competitive	10	2.6	80	1.1	20	5.1	140	1.9
Total	390	100	7,390	100	390	100	7,390	100

_	Teachers Entering College between 2000-2002											
		ed Ranking		2002 Ranking								
_	Char	ter	Traditi	onal	Char	ter	Traditi	onal	_			
_	Ν	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	_			
Non Competitive	10	5.9	170	6.6	10	5.9	140	5.4				
Less Competitive	20	11.8	480	18.7	20	11.8	460	17.9				
Competitive	80	47.1	1260	49.0	80	47.1	1320	51.4				
Very Competitive	40	23.5	470	18.3	40	23.5	450	17.5				
Highly Competitive	10	5.9	150	5.8	10	5.9	150	5.8				
Most Competitive	10	5.9	40	1.6	10	5.9	40	1.6				
Total	170	100	2,570	100	170	100	2,570	100				

Note: Teachers are regular full- or part-time teachers educated in charter states only. Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes. Samples may not add up due to rounding.

_	20	00s Coll	ege Entrant	ts	1990	1990-1999 College Entrants				
_	Charter		Tradit	Traditional		Charter		ional		
_	Ν	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
3 Categories Lower in 2002	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0		
2 Categories Lower in 2002	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	100	1.4		
1 Category Lower in 2002	0	0.0	120	4.7	70	17.9	1240	16.8		
No Difference	160	94.1	2280	88.7	230	59.0	4240	57.4		
1 Category Higher in 2002	10	5.9	150	5.8	80	20.5	1500	20.3		
2 Categories Higher in 2002	0	0.0	20 <sup>a</sup>	0.8	10	2.6	280	3.8		
3 Categories Higher in 2002	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	30	0.4		
Total	170	100	2,570	100	390	100	7,390	100		
-	1980	-1989 Co	ollege Entra	ants	pre	-1980 Co	llege Entra	nts		

Table 3 Frequencies of Differences in Rankings between the Matched Rankings & 2002 Rankings

	1980	-1989 (	College Ent	rants	р	pre-1980 College Entrants				
_	Charter		Trad	Traditional		arter	Tradit	ional		
	Ν	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
3 Categories Lower in 2002	0	0.0	0	0.0		0.0	0	0.0		
2 Categories Lower in 2002	0	0.0	20	0.9		0.0	20	1.7		
1 Category Lower in 2002	10	16.7	300	13.6		0.0	170	14.0		
No Difference	30	50.0	1050	47.5	1	50.0	550	45.5		
1 Category Higher in 2002	20	33.3	670	30.3	1	50.0	350	28.9		
2 Categories Higher in 2002	10	16.7	170	7.7		0.0	130	10.7		
3 Categories Higher in 2002	0	0.0	10	0.5		0.0	10	0.8		
Total	60	100	2,210	100	2	0 100	1,210	100		
			<u>.</u>		-					

Note: Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes. Columns may not add up due to rounding.

<sup>a</sup> Estimate refers to 2 or 3 categories higher in 2002

	Charter Mean	n	Public Mean	n	Difference	t-stat	Ν
School Characteristics							
Contract Days	199	640	189	13390	10	8.92	14030
Hours per Week Required	39.1	640	37.9	13390	1.2	6.39	14030
Hours of Teaching per Week Required	30.6	640	29.6	13390	1.0	4.25	14030
Union Status (=1)	0.26	640	0.71	13390	-0.45	-1.83	14030
Pay Base	\$38,379	640	\$42,913	13390	-\$4,534	-9.43	14030
Annual Earnings	\$39,989	640	\$45,235	13390	-\$5,246	-10.32	14030

Note: Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes.

Table 5. Differences bet	tween Charter and			e Pav	у						
	Charter Mean	n	Public Mean	n	Difference	t-stat	N				
Years of Experience											
1-3 years	\$36,009	270	\$36,228	3520	-\$220	-0.45	3790				
4-5 years	\$37,105	140	\$39,178	2020	-\$2,073	-2.80	2150				
6-9 years	\$40,284	150	\$42,662	3360	-\$2,379	-2.85	3510				
10-14 years	\$43,814	50	\$46,263	2063	-\$2,449	-1.37	2110				
15-19 years	\$42,449	20	\$51,542	1190	-\$9,093	-3.18	1220				
20-24 years	\$44,976	10	\$52,652	450	-\$7,677	-1.55	460				
25-30 years	\$38,768	10	\$53,835	180	-\$15,067	-2.17	190				
30 plus years	\$55,784	10	\$56,668	610	-\$884	-0.17	620				
All	\$38,379	640	\$42,913	13390	-\$4,534	-9.43	14030				
	Total Earnings										
1-3 years	\$37,412	270	\$38,276	2050	-\$864	-1.65	3790				
4-5 years	\$38,829	140	\$41,570	1890	-\$2,741	-3.30	2150				
6-9 years	\$41,984	150	\$45,036	3330	-\$3,052	-3.36	3510				
10-14 years	\$45,413	50	\$48,853	2240	-\$3,441	-1.84	2110				
15-19 years	\$44,969	20	\$53,926	1220	-\$8,956	-2.98	1220				
20-24 years	\$47,084	10	\$54,888	240	-\$7,804	-1.52	460				
25-30 years	\$41,208	10	\$56,307	80	-\$15,099	-2.05	190				
30 plus years	\$57,192	10	\$59,057	900	-\$1,864	-0.34	620				
All	\$39,989	640	\$45,235	13390	-\$5,246	-10.32	14030				
Years at Current School			Bas	e Pay							
1-3 years	\$37,304	450	\$39,072	6340	-\$1,768	-3.75	6790				
4-5 years	\$37,965	100	\$41,842	2110	-\$3,876	-3.85	2220				
6-9 years	\$42,062	70	\$45,437	2590	-\$3,376	-2.40	2660				
10-14 years	\$48,472	10	\$48,898	1190	-\$427	-0.11	1210				
15-19 years	\$59,030	0	\$52,573	600	\$6,457	0.79	610				
			Total I	Earnings							
1-3 years	\$38,734	450	\$41,214	6340	-\$2,480	-4.95	6790				
4-5 years	\$40,065	100	\$44,278	2110	-\$4,214	-3.86	2220				
6-9 years	\$43,913	70	\$47,938	2590	-\$4,025	-2.68	2660				
10-14 years	\$50,288	10	\$51,475	1190	-\$1,187	-0.30	1210				
15-19 years	\$64,662	0	\$54,864	600	\$9,798	1.15	610				

Note: Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes. Columns and rows may not add up due to rounding.

	Charter		Public				
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Difference t-stat		Ν
Has Control Over <sup>a</sup> :							
Selecting Instructional Materials	2.90	640	2.75	13390	0.04	3.40	14030
Selecting Course Content	3.00	640	2.80	13390	0.04	4.87	14030
Selecting Teaching Techniques	3.69	640	3.70	13390	0.02	-0.33	14030
Evaluating and Grading Students	3.63	640	3.62	13390	0.03	0.32	14030
Disciplining Students	3.46	640	3.46	13390	0.03	0.29	14030
Determining Amount of Homework	3.60	640	3.73	13390	0.02	-5.43	14030
Agreement <sup>b</sup> :							
Satisfied Salary	2.72	640	2.63	13390	0.09	2.24	14030
Would Leave for More Pay if Possible	3.03	640	3.05	13390	-0.02	-0.58	14030
Satisfied with Teaching at School	1.62	640	1.54	13390	0.09	3.14	14030
Teachers at School are Happy	2.05	640	1.96	13390	0.09	2.73	14030
School is Run Well	2.12	640	2.00	13390	0.12	3.60	14030
Not Worth Teaching at Current School	3.22	640	3.25	13390	-0.03	-0.86	14030
Wants to Transfer to Another School	2.83	640	3.04	13390	-0.21	-5.13	14030
Worried about Job Security due to Student Test Performance	2.91	640	2.99	13390	-0.08	-2.12	14030
Administration Supportive	1.62	640	1.62	13390	0.01	0.16	14030
Parents Supportive	2.36	640	2.39	13390	-0.02	-0.68	14030
Principal Enforces School Rules & Supports Teachers	1.63	640	1.63	13390	0.01	0.24	14030
Teachers Enforce School Rules	2.15	640	2.25	13390	-0.10	-2.77	14030
Teachers Share Beliefs about School Mission	1.82	640	1.86	13390	-0.03	-1.16	14030
Principal Communicates School Goals to Teachers	1.57	640	1.63	13390	-0.06	-1.85	14030
Adequate Support forTeaching Special Needs Students	2.32	640	2.22	13390	0.09	2.67	14030
Materials (texts, supplies) Adequate	1.90	640	1.81	13390	0.09	2.71	14030
Duties/Paperwork Interfering	2.46	640	2.17	13390	0.29	7.80	14030
Staff is Cooperative	1.76	640	1.86	13390	-0.10	-3.10	14030
Staff Recognized for Good Work	1.97	640	2.00	13390	-0.03	-0.82	14030
Less Enthusiastic than when Started	2.97	640	2.90	13390	0.07	1.72	14030

Table 6. Differences between Charter and Public School Teachers' Beliefs about Workplace Characteristics

<sup>a</sup> Teacher reported degree of control (1=No control, 2=Minor control, 3=Moderate control, 4=A great deal of control)

<sup>b</sup> Teacher reported degree of agreement (1=Strongly Agree, 2=Somewhat Agree, 3=Somewhat disagree, 4=Strongly disagree)

Note: Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes.

		2002 Ranks			
	Matched	Matched	All FT/PT		
	Quality	Sample	Teachers		
Higher Quality (=1)	0.2679***	0.2312**	0.1012		
	(0.0962)	(0.0948)	(0.0709)		
Lower Quality (=1)	0.0831	0.0344	-0.0477		
	(0.0726)	(0.0891)	(0.0662)		
Master's Degree (=1)	-0.1529***	-0.1576***	-0.1540***		
	(0.0407)	(0.0408)	(0.0314)		
PhD (=1)	-0.1688	-0.1788	0.2001		
	(0.3389)	(0.3356)	(0.1420)		
Years of Teaching Experience (decades)	-0.2963***	-0.3024***	-0.2833***		
	(0.0483)	(0.0487)	(0.0257)		
Female (=1)	0.1311***	0.1336***	0.0701**		
	(0.0428)	(0.0429)	(0.0332)		
Age (100s yrs)	-0.0461	-0.0259	0.2252		
	(0.2607)	(0.2612)	(0.1777)		
Hispanic (=1)	0.2610***	0.2662***	0.3023***		
	(0.0725)	(0.0726)	(0.0597)		
Black (=1)	0.4982***	0.5112***	0.4376***		
	(0.0601)	(0.0603)	(0.0482)		
Asian (=1)	0.3526***	0.3429***	0.3818***		
	(0.1279)	(0.1275)	(0.1028)		
Pacific Islander (=1)	0.3498*	0.3530*	0.1645		
	(0.2116)	(0.2133)	(0.1963)		
American Indian (=1)	-0.1011	-0.0988	-0.1520		
	(0.1273)	(0.1275)	(0.1050)		
Constant	-1.6538***	-1.6457***	-1.6035***		
	(0.1121)	(0.1250)	(0.0905)		
Observations	14030	14030	26510		

 Table 7. Probit Results of Charter School Participation & Teacher Quality,

 2007-2008 Regular Teachers, Aggregated Quality

Sample sizes rounded to nearest ten for confidentiality purposes.

Reporting probit estimates

High quality refers to teachers from Most and Highly Competitive colleges

Robust standard errors in parentheses

		2002 Ranks			
	Matched	Matched	All FT/PT		
	Quality	Sample	Teachers		
Higher Quality (=1)	0.0214***	0.0182***	0.0083		
	(0.0081)	(0.0067)	(0.0055)		
Lower Quality (=1)	0.0056	0.0022	-0.0034		
	(0.0046)	(0.0056)	(0.0049)		
Master's Degree (=1)	-0.0082***	-0.0085***	-0.0100***		
	(0.0024)	(0.0026)	(0.0023)		
PhD (=1)	-0.0089	-0.0095	0.0179		
	(0.0150)	(0.0149)	(0.0152)		
Years of Teaching Experience (decades)	-0.0183***	-0.0191***	-0.0212***		
	(0.0038)	(0.0042)	(0.0032)		
Female (=1)	0.0092***	0.0096***	0.0056**		
	(0.0031)	(0.0033)	(0.0027)		
Age (100s yrs)	-0.0029	-0.0016	0.0168		
	(0.0162)	(0.0165)	(0.0135)		
Hispanic (=1)	0.0207***	0.0216***	0.0297***		
	(0.0075)	(0.0079)	(0.0078)		
Black (=1)	0.0492***	0.0520***	0.0483***		
	(0.0102)	(0.0113)	(0.0085)		
Asian (=1)	0.0305**	0.0299*	0.0402***		
	(0.0152)	(0.0154)	(0.0150)		
Pacific Islander (=1)	0.0302	0.0311	0.0143		
	(0.0244)	(0.0253)	(0.0196)		
American Indian (=1)	-0.0057	-0.0057	-0.0099		
	(0.0066)	(0.0068)	(0.0061)		
Observations	14030	14030	26510		

Table 8. Marginal Effects of Charter School Participation & Teacher Quality,2007-2008 Regular Teachers, Aggregated Quality

Sample sizes rounded to nearest ten for confidentiality purposes.

Reporting probit estimates

High quality refers to teachers from Most and Highly Competitive colleges

Robust standard errors in parentheses

		2002 Ranks		
	Matched	Matched	All FT/PT	
	Quality	Sample	Teachers	
Most Competitive College (=1)	0.0442**	0.0401***	0.0200**	
	(0.0189)	(0.0151)	(0.0095)	
Highly Competitive College (=1)	0.0173**	0.0125	0.0045	
	(0.0084)	(0.0085)	(0.0061)	
Very Competitive College (=1)	0.0185***	0.0162**	0.0060	
	(0.0061)	(0.0067)	(0.0050)	
Competitive College (=1)	0.0038	0.0023	-0.0031	
	(0.0047)	(0.0058)	(0.0044)	
Less Competitive College (=1)	0.0007	-0.0003	-0.0050	
	(0.0051)	(0.0061)	(0.0047)	
Master's Degree (=1)	-0.0087***	-0.0091***	-0.0092***	
	(0.0024)	(0.0026)	(0.0021)	
PhD (=1)	-0.0093	-0.0109	0.0140	
	(0.0147)	(0.0142)	(0.0133)	
Years of Teaching Experience (decades)	-0.0180***	-0.0189***	-0.0186***	
	(0.0038)	(0.0042)	(0.0028)	
Female (=1)	0.0096***	0.0098***	0.0052**	
	(0.0031)	(0.0033)	(0.0024)	
Age (100s yrs)	0.0039	0.0004	0.0149	
	(0.0160)	(0.0165)	(0.0119)	
Hispanic (=1)	0.0207***	0.0218***	0.0270***	
	(0.0075)	(0.0079)	(0.0072)	
Black (=1)	0.0514***	0.0531***	0.0445***	
	(0.0106)	(0.0115)	(0.0080)	
Asian (=1)	0.0282*	0.0272*	0.0340**	
	(0.0147)	(0.0148)	(0.0133)	
Pacific Islander (=1)	0.0311	0.0311	0.0126	
	(0.0250)	(0.0254)	(0.0176)	
American Indian (=1)	-0.0053	-0.0054	-0.0084	
	(0.0066)	(0.0068)	(0.0055)	
Observations	14030	14030	26510	

 Table 9. Marginal Effects of Teacher Quality & Charter School

 Participation, 2007-2008 Regular Teachers, Disaggregated Quality

Samples rounded to nearest ten for confidentiality purposes.

Reporting marginal effects for bench mark case

Robust standard errors in parentheses

	Cohort Group								
	1969-1970 <sup>ª</sup>	1983-1984	1985-1986	1991-1992	1993-1994	1995-1996	1997-1998	1999-2000	2001-2002
Most Competitive College (=1)				0.0385 (0.0555)		0.0527 (0.0634)	0.0954 (0.0673)	0.1107* (0.0630)	0.1153* (0.0658)
Highly Competitive College (=1)	0.0022 <sup>b</sup> (0.0081)			0.0246 (0.0239)	0.0016 <sup>b</sup> (0.0255)	-0.0284* (0.0150)	0.0888*** (0.0326)	0.0612**	0.0014 (0.0254)
Very Competitive College (=1)	-0.0006 (0.0044)	-0.0084 <sup>d</sup> (0.0174)	-0.0014 <sup>d</sup> (0.0030)	0.0230 (0.0149)	0.0043 (0.0218)	-0.0034 (0.0149)	0.0665*** (0.0217)	0.0381** (0.0189)	0.0228
Competitive (=1)	-0.0013 (0.0029)	-0.0038 (0.0158)	-0.0003 <sup>e</sup> (0.0028)	0.0102 (0.0085)	-0.0115 (0.0172)	-0.0126 (0.0132)	0.0258* (0.0143)	0.0143 (0.0147)	0.0142 (0.0189)
Less Competitive (=1)		-0.0054 (0.0165)	-0.0029 (0.0033)	0.0093 (0.0093)	0.0130 (0.0215)	-0.0113 (0.0139)	0.0060 (0.0152)	0.0018 (0.0157)	-0.0034 (0.0198)
Graduate Degree (MA/PhD) (=1)	0.0038 (0.0049)	0.0031 (0.0103)	0.0002 (0.0020)	-0.0062 (0.0048)	-0.0172* (0.0104)	-0.0178** (0.0089)	-0.0045 (0.0051)	-0.0181** (0.0086)	0.0041 (0.0140)
Years of Teaching Experience (decades)	-0.0021 (0.0022)	-0.0250* (0.0150)	-0.0035 (0.0031)	-0.0239 (0.0165)	-0.0470** (0.0213)	-0.0338 (0.0220)	-0.0343* (0.0200)	-0.0004 (0.0239)	-0.0076 (0.0355)
Female (=1)	0.0077* (0.0044)	0.0087 (0.0125)	0.0279* (0.0147)	0.0104 (0.0071)	0.0019 (0.0107)	0.0416** (0.0166)	-0.0071 (0.0059)	0.0149 (0.0095)	0.0053 (0.0093)
Age (100s yrs)	0.0551 (0.0672)	-0.0053 (0.0972)	-0.0030 (0.0156)	0.0550 (0.0441)	-0.1156 (0.0874)	0.0435 (0.0630)	-0.0356 (0.0556)	-0.0569 (0.0616)	0.0100 (0.0636)
Hispanic (=1)	0.0095 (0.0172)	0.0194 (0.0315)	-0.0029 (0.0032)	0.0090 (0.0121)	0.0043 (0.0218)	0.0329 (0.0285)	0.0400 (0.0262)	0.0179 (0.0184)	0.0428 (0.0271)
Black (=1)	-0.0017 (0.0051)	0.0128 (0.0245)	0.0239 (0.0219)	0.0162 (0.0147)	0.0833** (0.0384)	0.0807** (0.0353)	0.0336 (0.0210)	0.0872** (0.0347)	0.0550 (0.0341)
Asian (=1)	0.1834 (0.2253)		0.0207 (0.0335)	-0.0005 (0.0128)	0.0898 (0.0692)	0.0885 (0.0616)		-0.0029 (0.0191)	0.0230 (0.0413)
Pacific Islander (=1)						0.0926 (0.0944)		0.0109 (0.0519)	0.0651 (0.1153)
American Indian (=1)						0.0034 (0.0221)		-0.0184 (0.0154)	-0.0154 (0.0213)
Other Ethnicity (=1)	0.0076 <sup>c</sup> (0.0170)	0.0079 <sup>e</sup> (0.0341)	0.0129 <sup>c</sup> (0.0168)	-0.0073 <sup>c</sup> (0.0065)	0.0369 <sup>c</sup> (0.0390)		-0.0157 <sup>e</sup> (0.0102)		
Observations	1230	980	1300	1470	1630	1780	1920	1980	1750

<sup>a</sup> Reference group is teachers from Less and Non Competitive colleges due to few observations.

<sup>b</sup> Estimate is for teachers from Most and Highly Competitive colleges due to few observations for Most Competitive colleges.

<sup>c</sup> Other ethnicity includes American Indians and Pacific Islanders.

<sup>d</sup> Estimate is for teachers from Most, Highly and Very Competitive colleges due to lack of observations

<sup>e</sup> Other ethnicity includes Asians as well as American Indians and Pacific Islanders.

Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes

Reporting probit estimates.

Robust standard errors in parentheses.

	Cohort Group							
	1969-1970	1983-1984	1985-1986	1991-1992	1993-1994	1995-1996	1997-1998	1999-2000 <sup>e</sup>
Most Competitive College (=1)	-0.0104	0.1511		0.0537	0.0898	0.0790	0.1059*	
	(0.0306)	(0.1098)		(0.0423)	(0.0791)	(0.0685)	(0.0582)	
Highly Competitive College (=1)	-0.0022	0.0217	0.0012 <sup>c</sup>	0.0244**	0.0515**	0.0572***	0.0398***	0.0544 <sup>c</sup>
6 / ··· / ··· · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(0.0278)	(0.0152)	(0.0032)	(0.0115)	(0.0215)	(0.0180)	(0.0149)	(0.0400)
Very Competitive College (=1)		0.0095		0.0292	0.0694**	0.0627**	0.0240	0.0327
		(0.0230)		(0.0228)	(0.0309)	(0.0285)	(0.0182)	(0.0512)
Competitive (=1)	-0.0148 <sup>a</sup>	0.0073	0.0049 <sup>a</sup>	0.0265***	0.0357**	0.0312***	0.0126	0.0423
	(0.0266)	(0.0102)	(0.0040)	(0.0091)	(0.0149)	(0.0109)	(0.0092)	(0.0295)
Less Competitive (=1)	-0.0136	-0.0041	-0.0006	0.0131*	0.0215	0.0243**	0.0169	-0.0157
	(0.0270)	(0.0101)	(0.0022)	(0.0079)	(0.0167)	(0.0124)	(0.0118)	(0.0224)
Graduate Degree (MA/PhD) (=1)	-0.0074	-0.0048	-0.0008	-0.0035	-0.0063	-0.0061	-0.0062	
	(0.0126)	(0.0051)	(0.0010)	(0.0026)	(0.0055)	(0.0041)	(0.0062)	
Years of Teaching Experience (decades)	-0.0323	-0.0123	-0.0070	-0.0250	-0.0429*	-0.0303	-0.0256	0.0876
	(0.0323)	(0.0107)	(0.0056)	(0.0166)	(0.0245)	(0.0197)	(0.0180)	(0.0618)
Female (=1)	-0.0136	0.0055	0.0123	0.0024	-0.0077	0.0002	0.0089	-0.0051
	(0.0168)	(0.0070)	(0.0075)	(0.0030)	(0.0059)	(0.0036)	(0.0059)	(0.0139)
Age (100s yrs)	-0.0867	0.0623	0.0044	-0.0064	0.0376	0.0129	0.0401	0.0546
	(0.2915)	(0.0656)	(0.0084)	(0.0177)	(0.0400)	(0.0270)	(0.0337)	(0.0931)
Hispanic (=1)	0.1132	0.0375	-0.0006	0.0150	0.0219	0.0313	0.0376*	0.0295
	(0.1061)	(0.0441)	(0.0019)	(0.0123)	(0.0192)	(0.0202)	(0.0225)	(0.0429)
Black (=1)		0.0141	0.0022	0.0398*	0.0257	0.0535**	0.0691**	0.0176
		(0.0254)	(0.0040)	(0.0220)	(0.0181)	(0.0254)	(0.0303)	(0.0328)
Asian (=1)			-0.0013	0.0030	0.0006	-0.0025	0.0038	-0.0065
			(0.0020)	(0.0068)	(0.0129)	(0.0078)	(0.0125)	(0.0300)
Pacific Islander (=1)			0.0792	0.0180		-0.0038	-0.0039	
			(0.0815)	(0.0209)		(0.0140)	(0.0165)	
American Indian (=1)			0.0004	0.0026		0.0072	-0.0036	
			(0.0032)	(0.0060)		(0.0131)	(0.0101)	
Other Ethnicity (=1)		-0.0001 <sup>b</sup>			-0.0062 <sup>d</sup>			0.0144 <sup>d</sup>
		(0.0082)			(0.0106)			(0.0383)
Observations	1820	1270	1560	2090	2050	2190	1860	510

Table 11. Marginal Effects Estimates of Teacher Quality & Charter Participation, 2003-2004 Teachers, by Cohort

<sup>a</sup> Refers to estimate for teachers from Very Competitive and Competitive colleges grouped together due to few observations for Very Competitive.

<sup>b</sup>Other ethnicity includes Asians, Pacific Islanders, and American Indians.

<sup>c</sup> Refers to the estimate for teachers from Most and Highly Competitive colleges grouped together due to few observations.

<sup>d</sup> Other Ethnicity includes Pacific Islanders and American Indians.

<sup>e</sup>Graduate degree was not included due to collinearity.

Sample sizes rounded to nearest 10 for confidentiality purposes

Reporting probit estimates.

Robust standard errors in parentheses.