2009 State Teacher Policy Yearbook

Hawaii





Acknowledgments

STATES

State education agencies remain our most important partners in this effort, and their extensive experience has helped to ensure the factual accuracy of the final product. Every state formally received a draft of the *Yearbook* in July 2009 for comment and correction; states also received a final draft of their reports a month prior to release. All states graciously reviewed and responded to our drafts. While states do not always agree with our recommendations, the willingness of most states to acknowledge the imperfections of their teacher policies is an important first step toward reform.

We also thank the many state pension boards that reviewed our drafts and responded to our inquiries.

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Executive Summary

Welcome to the Hawaii edition of the National Council on Teacher Quality's 2009 *State Teacher Policy Yearbook*. This analysis is our third annual look at state policies impacting the teaching profession. We hope that this report will help focus attention on areas where state policymakers can make changes that will have a positive impact on teacher quality and student achievement.

The 2009 Yearbook presents a comprehensive analysis of state teacher policies. Our evaluation is organized in five areas encompassing 33 goals. Broadly, these goals examine the impact of state policy on 1) delivering well-prepared teachers, 2) expanding the teaching pool, 3) identifying effective teachers, 4) retaining those deemed effective and 5) exiting those deemed ineffective.

Hawaii at a Glance Overall 2009 *Yearbook* Grade: D-

AREA GRADES:

Area 1 Delivering Well Prepared Teachers	D-
Area 2 Expanding the Teaching Pool	F
Area 3 Identifying Effective Teachers	D
Area 4 Retaining Effective Teachers	D
Area 5 Exiting Ineffective Teachers	D

GOAL BREAKDOWN:

	Fully meets	2
•	Nearly meets	1
	Partially meets	4
\bullet	Only meets a small part	7
0	Does not meet	19

MAJOR POLICY STRENGTHS:

- · Articulates consequences for teachers with unsatisfactory evaluations
- Requires that all new teachers pass a pedagogy test
- Supports differential pay in high-needs schools and shortage subjects

MAJOR POLICY WEAKNESSES:

- · Does not ensure that elementary teachers are prepared in the science of reading instruction
- Awards tenure virtually automatically
- Fails to make evidence of student learning the preponderant criterion in teacher evaluations
- · Lacks an efficient termination process for ineffective teachers
- Offers a disingenuous alternate route

How is Hawaii Faring?

Area 1: D-

Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Hawaii's policies supporting the delivery of well-prepared teachers are sorely lacking. The state does not require teacher candidates to pass a basic skills test prior to program admission. In addition, Hawaii does not ensure that elementary teachers are provided with a broad liberal arts education. Elementary teacher preparation programs are not required to address the science of reading or provide mathematics content specifically geared to the needs of elementary teachers. The state does not require elementary candidates to pass a test of the science of reading or a rigorous mathematics assessment. Although Hawaii commendably does not allow middle school teachers to teach on a generalist K-8 license, the state's policy in this area does not ensure that middle school teachers are sufficiently prepared to teach appropriate grade-level content. The state also does not ensure that special education teachers are adequately prepared to teach content-area subject matter. Appropriately, Hawaii does require all new teachers to pass a pedagogy test to attain licensure. Unfortunately, the state does not hold preparation programs accountable for the quality of teachers they produce, and it has not retained full authority over its program approval process. Further, Hawaii lacks any policy that ensures efficient preparation of teacher candidates in terms of the professional coursework that may be required.

Area 2: F

Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Hawaii does not provide a genuine alternate route into the teaching profession. Hawaii's alternate route is not sufficiently selective and the state does not ensure that candidates receive streamlined preparation that meets the immediate needs of new teachers. In addition, Hawaii limits the usage and providers of its alternate route and does not collect objective data to hold alternate route programs accountable for the performance of the teachers they prepare. Finally, Hawaii's policies targeting licensure reciprocity create unnecessary obstacles for out-of-state teachers.

Area 3: D

Identifying Effective Teachers

Hawaii's efforts to identify teacher effectiveness often fall short. Although the state has all the elements of a studentand teacher-level longitudinal data system, it does not use this data system to provide value-added evidence of teacher effectiveness. Its teacher evaluation system utilizes classroom observations but fails to require evidence of student learning through objective measures such as standardized test scores. Hawaii fails to require multiple evaluations for new teachers or annual evaluations for nonprobationary teachers. In addition, the probationary period for new teachers in Hawaii is only one year, and the state lacks any meaningful process to evaluate cumulative effectiveness in the classroom. Further, the state's licensure requirements are not based on evidence of teacher effectiveness, and it reports little school-level data that can help support the equitable distribution of teacher talent.

Area 4: D

Retaining Effective Teachers

Hawaii does not require mentoring or any other induction support for new teachers. With the exception of support for differential pay for teachers working in high-needs schools and shortage subject areas, the state's policies regarding teacher compensation are sorely lacking. Hawaii does not give districts full authority for how teachers are paid and does not support retention bonuses, compensation for relevant prior work experience or performance pay. In addition, the state's pension system for teachers is not currently financially sustainable. Hawaii only provides a defined benefit pension plan for teachers. While Hawaii offers teachers leaving the system more flexibility than most states, its pension policies are not fair to all teachers. Further, retirement benefits are determined by a formula that is not neutral, meaning that pension wealth does not accumulate uniformly for each year a teacher works.

Area 5: D

Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Hawaii issues renewable emergency licenses, allowing new teachers who have not passed licensing tests to remain in the classroom for up to four years. However, the state does require that teachers who receive an overall unsatisfactory rating be immediately dismissed. Hawaii does not address the appeal process for teachers who are terminated for poor performance.

About the 2009 Yearbook

The 2009 edition of the *State Teacher Policy Yearbook* is the National Council on Teacher Quality's third annual review of state laws, rules and regulations that govern the teaching profession. This year's report is a comprehensive analysis of the full range of each state's teacher policies, measured against a realistic blueprint for reform.

The release of the 2009 *Yearbook* comes at a particularly opportune time. Race to the Top, the \$4.5 billion federal discretionary grant competition, has put unprecedented focus on education reform in general, and teacher quality in particular. In many respects, the *Yearbook* provides a road map to the Race to the Top, addressing key policy areas such as teacher preparation, evaluation, alternative certification and compensation. Our analysis makes clear that states have a great deal of work to do in order to ensure that every child has an effective teacher.

The 2009 *Yearbook* revisits most of the goals from our first two editions, with a few new goals added for good measure. With ongoing feedback from state officials, practitioners, policy groups and other education organizations, as well as NCTQ's own nationally respected advisory group, we have continued to refine and develop our policy goals. Consequently, many of the goals and related indicators have changed from previous reviews. We therefore have not published comparisons with prior ratings, but look forward to tracking state progress in future editions.

Our goals meet NCTQ's five criteria for an effective reform framework:

- 1. They are supported by a strong rationale, grounded in the best research available. (A full list of the citations supporting each goal can be found at www.nctq.org/stpy.)
- 2. They offer practical, rather than pie-in-the-sky, solutions for improving teacher quality.
- 3. They take on the teaching profession's most pressing needs, including making the profession more responsive to the current labor market.
- 4. They are for the most part relatively cost neutral.
- 5. They respect the legitimate constraints that some states face so that the goals can work in all 50 states.

As is now our practice, in addition to a national summary report, we have customized the *Yearbook* so that each state has its own report, with its own analyses and data. Users can download any of our 51 state reports (including the District of Columbia) from our website at www.nctq.org/stpy. Since some national perspective is always helpful, each state report contains charts and graphs showing how the state performed compared to all other states. We also point to states that offer a "Best Practice" for other states to emulate.

In addition to giving an overall grade, we also give "sub-grades" in each of the five areas organizing the goals. These grades break down even further, with an eye toward giving a full perspective on the states' progress. We rate state progress on the individual goals using a familiar and useful graphic: $\bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \circ$.

We hope the *Yearbook* continues to serve as an important resource for state school chiefs, school boards, legislatures and the many advocates who press hard for reform. In turn, we maintain our commitment to listen and learn.

Sincerely,

at Walk

Kate Walsh, President

Goals

AREA 1: DELIVERING WELL PREPARED TEACHERS	page
1-A: Admission into Preparation Programs	7
The state should require undergraduate teacher preparation programs to administer a basic skills test as a criterion for admission.	
1-B: Elementary Teacher Preparation	10
The state should ensure that its teacher preparation programs provide elementary teachers with a broad liberal arts education.	
1-C: Teacher Preparation in Reading Instruction	16
The state should ensure that new elementary teachers know the science of reading instruction.	
1-D: Teacher Preparation in Mathematics	20
The state should ensure that new elementary teachers have sufficient knowledge of mathematics content.	
1-E: Middle School Teacher Preparation	23
The state should ensure that middle school teachers are sufficiently prepared to teach appropriate grade-level content.	
1-F: Special Education Teacher Preparation	27
The state should ensure that special education teachers are prepared to teach content-area subject matter.	
1-G: Assessing Professional Knowledge	32
The state should use a licensing test to verify that all new teachers meet its professional standards.	
1-H: Teacher Preparation Program Accountability	35
The state's approval process for teacher preparation programs should hold programs accountable for the quality of the teachers they produce.	
1-I: State Authority for Program Approval	39
The state should retain full authority over its process for approving teacher preparation programs.	
1-J: Balancing Professional Coursework	42
The state should ensure that teacher preparation programs provide an efficient and balanced program of study.	
AREA 2: EXPANDING THE POOL OF TEACHERS	
2-A: Alternate Route Eligibility	45
The state should require alternate route programs to exceed the admission requirements of traditional preparation programs while also being flexible to the needs of nontraditional candidates.	
2-B: Alternate Route Preparation	49
The state should ensure that its alternate routes provide streamlined preparation that is relevant to the immediate needs of new teachers.	
2-C: Alternate Route Usage and Providers	53
The state should provide an alternate route that is free from regulatory obstacles that inappropriately limit its usage and providers.	55
2-D: Alternate Route Program Accountability	59
The state should ensure that its approval process for alternate route programs holds them accountable for the perfor- mance of their teachers.	
2-E: Licensure Reciprocity	62
The state should help to make teacher licenses fully portable among states, with appropriate safeguards.	52

Goals

AREA 3: IDENTIFYING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS	page
3-A: State Data Systems The state should develop a data system that contributes some of the evidence needed to assess teacher effectiveness.	67
3-B: Evaluation of Effectiveness The state should require instructional effectiveness to be the preponderant criterion of any teacher evaluation.	70
3-C: Frequency of Evaluations The state should require annual evaluations of all teachers and multiple evaluations of all new teachers.	74
<i>3-D: Tenure</i> The state should require that tenure decisions be meaningful.	78
3-E: Licensure Advancement The state should ensure that licensure advancement is based on evidence of effectiveness.	81
3-F: Equitable Distribution The state should contribute to the equitable distribution of teacher talent among schools in its districts by means of good reporting.	85
AREA 4: RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS	
4-A: Induction The state should require effective induction for all new teachers, with special emphasis on teachers in high-needs schools.	89
4-B: Pay Scales The state should give local districts full authority for pay scales, eliminating potential barriers such as state salary schedules and other regulations that control how districts pay teachers.	92
4-C: Retention Pay The state should support retention pay, such as significant boosts in salary after tenure is awarded, for effective teachers.	96
4-D: Compensation for Prior Work Experience The state should encourage districts to provide compensation for related prior subject-area work experience.	98
4-E: Differential Pay The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in shortage and high-needs areas.	101
4-F: Performance Pay The state should support performance pay, but in a manner that recognizes its infancy, appropriate uses and limitations.	104
4-G: Pension Sustainability The state should ensure that excessive resources are not committed to funding teachers' pension systems.	107
4-H: Pension Flexibility The state should ensure that pension systems are portable, flexible and fair to all teachers.	114
4-1: Pension Neutrality The state should ensure that pension systems are neutral, uniformly increasing pension wealth with each additional year of work.	121
AREA 5: EXITING INEFFECTIVE TEACHERS 5-A: Licensure Loopholes	125
The state should close loopholes that allow teachers who have not met licensure requirements to continue teaching.	
5-B: Unsatisfactory Evaluations The state should articulate consequences for teachers with unsatisfactory evaluations, including specifying that teachers with multiple unsatisfactory evaluations are eligible for dismissal.	128
5-C: Dismissal for Poor Performance The state should ensure that the process for terminating ineffective teachers is expedient and fair to all parties.	131
APPENDIX	135

Goal A – Admission into Preparation Programs

The state should require undergraduate teacher preparation programs to administer a basic skills test as a criterion for admission.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

 The state should require teacher candidates to pass a basic skills test that assesses reading, writing and mathematics as a criterion for admission to teacher preparation programs. All preparation programs in a state should use a common test to facilitate program comparison. The state, not teacher preparation programs, should set the score needed to pass this test. Programs should have the option of exempting from this test candidates who submit comparable SAT/ACT scores at a level set by the state.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The most appropriate time for assessing basic skills is at program entry.
- Screening candidates at program entry protects the public's investment.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 1 How States are Faring in Admission Requirements **Best Practice States** 7 States Meet Goal Connecticut, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee West Virginia 7 States Nearly Meet Goal Arkansas, Illinois, Missouri, Nebraska, Texas Washington, Wisconsin (1 State Partly Meets Goal lowa 5 States Meet a Small Part of Goal California, Florida, Kentucky, Oklahoma, Virginia 31 States Do Not Meet Goal Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Colorado Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia HAWAII, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota,

Utah, Vermont, Wyoming

Area 1: Goal A Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not require aspiring teachers to pass a basic skills test as a criterion for admission to teacher education programs, instead delaying the requirement until teacher candidates are ready to apply for licensure.

Supporting Research

Teaching in Hawaii http://doe.k12.hi.us/personnel/ TeachingInHawaii/

Hawaii Teacher Standards Board Praxis Test Information Sheet http://htsb.org/html/details/licensing/ typesstandardreqdocs.html

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii pointed out that although not mandated, Hawaii's teacher education programs require passing scores on the Praxis PPST reading, writing and mathematics tests prior to entrance into their program. The Hawaii Teachers Standards Board (HTSB) has set the passing scores at 172 for PPST reading, 171 for PPST writing and 173 for PPST mathematics.

Hawaii added that HTSB allows programs to accept SAT scores of 530 or more for reading and 560 or more for mathematics in lieu of the Praxis PPST reading and mathematics scores for licensure.

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should consider requiring that its approved teacher preparation programs only accept applicants who have first passed a basic skills test or demonstrated equivalent performance on a college entrance exam. Furthermore, the test, the minimum passing score and the equivalent college entrance exam score should be determined by the state.

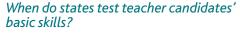
LAST WORD

Although all programs may in fact be requiring basic skills testing, in the absence of a state requirement, Hawaii has no assurance that they will continue to do so. Basic skills tests measure minimum competency, essentially those skills that a person should have acquired in middle school. Teacher preparation programs that do not sufficiently and appropriately screen candidates according to criteria established by the state end up investing considerable resources in individuals who may not be able to successfully complete the program and pass licensing tests. Public teacher preparation programs rely on considerable public funding to support their programs. Responsible spending of public funds begins with admitting only those aspiring teachers who can meet a set of minimum standards.

Examples of Best Practice

A number of states--Connecticut, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee and West Virginia--require candidates to pass a basic skills test as a condition of admission to a teacher preparation program. These states set a minimum passing score for the test and also eliminate unnecessary testing by allowing candidates to opt out of the basic skills test by demonstrating a sufficiently high score on the SAT or ACT.

Figure 2



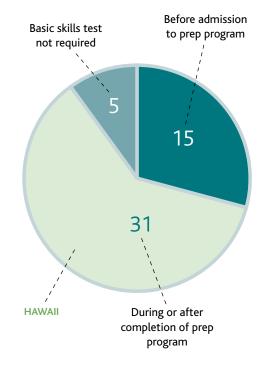


Figure 3

- 1 California requires teacher candidates to take, but not pass, a basic skills test prior to admission.
- 2 Programs in Florida may accept up to 10 percent of an entering class who have not passed a basic skills test.
- 3 Programs in Virginia may accept candidates who have not met the required passing score.

Basic skills test not required During or after Completion Figure 3 Before admission to prep program to When do states test teacher candidates' basic skills? Alabama Alaska Arizona Arkansas \square California¹ \square Colorado \square Connecticut \Box Delaware District of Columbia \Box Florida² Georgia HAWAII Idaho Illinois Indiana lowa Kansas \square Kentucky Louisiana Maine \square Maryland Massachusetts Michigan Minnesota \square \square Mississippi Missouri Montana Nebraska Nevada \square New Hampshire New Jersey \Box New Mexico New York \square North Carolina North Dakota Ohio Oklahoma Oregon Pennsylvania Rhode Island South Carolina South Dakota Tennessee \square Texas \square Utah Vermont Virginia³ Washington \square West Virginia \square Wisconsin Wyoming 15 31 5



Goal B – Elementary Teacher Preparation

The state should ensure that its teacher preparation programs provide elementary teachers with a broad liberal arts education.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should require that its approved teacher preparation programs deliver a comprehensive program of study in broad liberal arts coursework. An adequate curriculum is likely to require approximately 36 credit hours to ensure appropriate depth in the core subject areas of English, science, social studies and fine arts. (Mathematics preparation for elementary teachers is discussed in Goal 1-D.) An appropriate elementary teacher preparation program should be something like:
 - three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of American literature;
 - three credit hours (or standards to justify) of the technical aspects of good writing and grammar;
 - three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of children's literature;
 - six credit hours (or standards to justify) of general science, covering basic topics in earth science, biology, physics, and chemistry;
 - six credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of U.S. history and/or U.S. government;
 - six credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of world history, including ancient history;
 - three credit hours (or standards to justify) of world cultures and religion, including geography;
 - three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of music appreciation; and
 - three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of art history.



Goal Components cont.

- 2. The state should require elementary teacher candidates to complete a content specialization in an academic subject area. In addition to enhancing content knowledge, this requirement also ensures that prospective teachers have taken higher level academic coursework.
- 3. Arts and sciences faculty, rather than education faculty, should teach liberal arts coursework to teacher candidates.
- 4. The state should allow elementary teacher candidates to test out of specific coursework requirements, provided the test that is limited to a single particular subject area.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Elementary teachers need liberal arts coursework that is relevant to the PK through 6 classroom.
- An academic concentration enhances content knowledge and ensures that prospective elementary teachers take higher level academic coursework.
- Standards-based programs can work when verified by testing.
- Mere alignment with student learning standards is not sufficient.
- Subject-area coursework should be taught by arts and sciences faculty.
- Teacher candidates need to be able to "test out" of coursework requirements.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 1: Goal B Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii relies on its standards for teacher preparation programs as the basis for articulating the subject-matter knowledge that elementary teacher candidates must have across all areas.

Although the state does not specify any coursework requirements for general education or elementary teacher candidates, Hawaii does articulate vague teacher performance standards, which include "demonstrates knowledge of content." The state does not mention any specific subject-matter requirements, making this standard far too ambiguous to be meaningful for holding either programs or teachers accountable.

Hawaii also requires NCATE accreditation, suggesting that the state uses the Association for Childhood Education International (ACEI) standards for approving its elementary programs. However, ACEI standards fall far short of the mark by offering no mention of world and American history; world, British and American literature; American government; or grammar and composition. ACEI standards do mention important topics in science, but even in those areas, its standards consist mainly of extremely general competencies that programs should help teacher candidates to achieve. There also appears to be no guarantee that arts and sciences faculty will teach liberal arts classes to teacher candidates or that a test-out option is available for candidates who may already have a strong background in one or more content areas.

Finally, it is not enough for a state to direct teacher preparation programs to teach to its standards, the state must also test candidates on the standards. In Hawaii, all new elementary teachers must pass a general subject-matter test, the Praxis II. While this test puts the state in technical compliance with NCLB's requirements that all elementary teachers take a test of broad subject matter, this commercial test is aligned with only the more ambiguous state standards. More importantly, it does not report teacher performance in each subject area, meaning that it is possible to pass the test and still fail some subject areas, especially given low state cut scores.

Supporting Research

Teacher Performance Standards http://www.htsb.org/html/ details/teacherstandards/teacherstandards5.html www.ets.org/praxis

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should ensure that prospective elementary teachers have appropriate and sufficient subject-matter preparation in one of two ways. First, Hawaii could establish comprehensive coursework requirements that are specifically geared to the areas of knowledge needed by elementary teachers. Allowing teacher candidates to pick and choose coursework under ambiguous requirements (e.g., "English" or "history") may lead to far too many gaps in essential knowledge. Arts and sciences faculty should teach this coursework, and teacher candidates should be allowed to test out of core coursework requirements so that qualified candidates may pursue other course selections and are not forced to retake survey courses they may have already had in high school. Alternatively, Hawaii could articulate a more specific set of standards and then administer a licensing test based on it.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that most of its elementary education programs are alternate route programs, either post-baccalaureate or master's level. "Since these teacher candidates would have already received their broad preparation in essential knowledge at the undergraduate level, the explanation offered by NCTQ does not apply in these instances."

LAST WORD

Even if most of Hawaii's programs are alternate route, a portion is still traditional route; therefore, the state should adopt policy for these programs that would ensure that elementary teacher candidates are provided a broad liberal arts education.

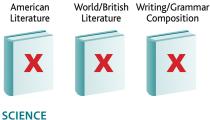


Although no state meets this goal, two have articulated noteworthy policies. Massachusetts's testing requirements, which are based on the state's curriculum, ensure that elementary teachers are provided with a broad liberal arts education. Texas articulates detailed standards in which preparation programs must frame instruction for elementary teachers. Both states also require that arts and sciences faculty teach liberal arts courses to teacher candidates. Neither state requires separate passing scores for each subject area on general curriculum tests, but both utilize licensing assessments based on their own standards.

Figure 5

What subjects does Hawaii expect elementary teachers to know?

ENGLISH



Chemistry

Х





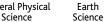
Children's

General Physical

Physics

American

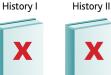
Music







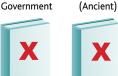
American



FINE ARTS Art History



American



World History



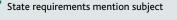
World History



World History







- State requirements cover subject in depth
- X State does not require subject

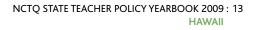


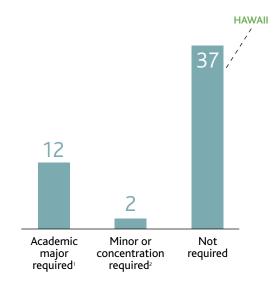




Figure 6 Do states expect elementary teachers to know core content? ENGLISH American Literature World/British Literature Writing/Grammar/ Composition	 State requirements mention subject State requirements cover subject in depth 2 2 2 21 7 	
SCIENCE		
Chemistry	2	
Physics	0	
General Physical Science		36
Earth Science		34
Biology/Life Science		36
SOCIAL STUDIES		
American History I	17	
American History II	15	
American Government	21	
World History (Ancient)	13	
World History (Modern)	10	
World History (Non Western)	3	
Geography		36
FINE ARTS		
Art History	1	
Music		32

Figure 7

Do states expect elementary teachers to complete an academic concentration?



- California, Colorado, Connecticut, Iowa³, Massachusetts, Michigan⁴, New Jersey, New Mexico, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia.
- 2 Mississippi, New Hampshire. Mississippi requires two content concentrations.
- 3 Although lowa requires a subject-area major, it consists mostly of education courses.
- 4 Michigan also allows a group major with a minor, or three minors.



Goal C – Teacher Preparation in Reading Instruction

The state should ensure that new elementary teachers know the science of reading instruction.

Figure 8 How States are Faring in Preparing Teachers to Teach Reading 3 **Best Practice States** Connecticut, Massachusetts, Virginia 2 States Meet Goal Oklahoma, Tennessee 6 States Nearly Meet Goal California, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Oregon, Texas **14** States Partly Meet Goal Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia 2States Meet a Small Part of Goal Arizona, New York () 24 States Do Not Meet Goal Alaska, Delaware, District of Columbia, HAWAII, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Wisconsin, Wyoming

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- To ensure that teacher preparation programs adequately prepare candidates in the science of reading, the state should require that these programs train teachers in the five instructional components shown by scientifically based reading research to be essential to teaching children to read.
- 2. The most flexible and effective way of achieving this crucial goal is by requiring that new teachers pass a rigorous test of reading instruction in order to attain licensure. Most current tests of pedagogy and reading instruction allow teachers to pass without knowing the science of reading instruction. If a state elects to test knowledge of reading instruction on a general test of pedagogy or elementary content, it should require that the testing company report a subscore clearly revealing the candidates' knowledge in the science of reading. Elementary teachers who do not possess the minimum knowledge needed should not be eligible for a teaching license.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Reading science has identified five components of effective instruction.
- Most current reading tests do not offer assurance that teachers know the science of reading.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

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Area 1: Goal C Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not require that teacher preparation programs for elementary teacher candidates address the science of reading. The state has neither coursework requirements nor standards related to this critical area. Hawaii does require NCATE accreditation, suggesting that it uses ACEI standards for approving its elementary programs. However, ACEI standards do not explicitly require that teachers receive training in the five essential components of reading instruction.

Hawaii also does not require teacher candidates to pass an assessment that measures knowledge of scientifically based reading instruction prior to certification or at any point thereafter.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that all teacher preparation programs are required to ensure that candidates are prepared and competent in the state's areas of special emphasis, including beginning reading.

Supporting Research

Hawaii State Approval of Teacher Education Reference and Reporting Guide

LAST WORD

The state should strengthen its policy and require that candidates are prepared specifically in the science of reading.

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should ensure that teacher preparation programs adequately prepare elementary teacher candidates in the science of reading by requiring that these programs train candidates in the five instructional components of scientifically based reading instruction: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. Hawaii should also utilize a rigorous assessment tool to ensure that its teacher candidates are adequately prepared before entering the classroom. The state's assessment should clearly test knowledge and skills related to the science of reading, similar to the assessment adopted by Massachusetts, and if it is combined with an assessment that also tests general pedagogy or elementary content, it should report a subscore for the science of reading specifically. Elementary teachers who do not possess the minimum knowledge in this area should not be eligible for licensure.



Figure 9		PREPAR	ATION	/	TEST	ING
Do states ensure		REQUIRE		/	REQUIRE	
elementary teachers		IL QUILL	INILIAI S			
know the science of	S	Ince Ince	nce fress	test	tect	test a
reading?	ddre	scie Scie	scie	riate	uate.	ding
reading:	ding	artia ading	o no ading	prop	adeq.	rea
	Fully address	Partially address	Do not address reading sciences]] Applopriate test	Inadequate tec.	No reading test
Alabama						
Alaska						_
Arizona Arkansas						
California						
Colorado						
Connecticut						
Delaware						
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Virginia						
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Figure 10

Do states require preparation for elementary teachers in the science of reading?

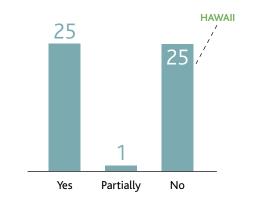
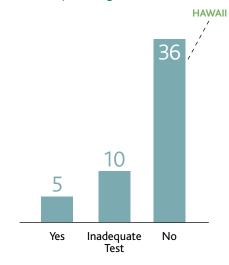


Figure 11

Do states measure new teachers' knowledge of the science of reading?



Examples of Best Practice

Connecticut, **Massachusetts** and **Virginia** presently require preparation programs for elementary teacher candidates to address the science of reading. All three states also require candidates to pass comprehensive assessments that specifically test the five elements of instruction: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vo-cabulary and comprehension.



Goal D – Teacher Preparation in Mathematics

The state should ensure that new elementary teachers have sufficient knowledge of mathematics content.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should require teacher preparation programs to deliver mathematics content of appropriate breadth and depth to elementary teacher candidates. This content should be specific to the needs of the elementary teacher (i.e., foundations, algebra and geometry, with some statistics).
- 2. The state should require elementary teacher candidates to pass a rigorous test of mathematics content in order to attain licensure. Such test can also be used to test out of content requirements. Elementary teachers who do not possess the minimum knowledge needed should not be eligible for a teaching license.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Required math coursework should be tailored in both design and delivery to the unique needs of the elementary teacher.
- Most state tests offer no assurance that teachers are prepared to teach mathematics.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 1: Goal D Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii relies on national accreditation standards for teacher preparation programs as the basis for articulating its requirements for the mathematics content knowledge of elementary teacher candidates.

The state does not specify any coursework requirements regarding mathematics content. However, Hawaii requires NCATE accreditation, suggesting that the state uses Association for Childhood Education International (ACEI) standards for approving its elementary programs. ACEI standards address content in mathematics foundations, but these standards lack the specificity needed to ensure that teacher preparation programs deliver other mathematics content of appropriate breadth and depth to elementary teacher candidates. For example, ACEI algebra standards state that candidates should "know, understand and apply algebraic principles," but these standards make little mention of the actual knowledge that might contribute to such understanding.

Finally, Hawaii requires that all new elementary teachers pass a general subject-matter test, the Praxis II. This commercial test lacks a specific mathematics subscore, so one can fail the mathematics portion and still pass the test. Further, while this test does cover important elementary school-level content, it barely evaluates candidates' knowledge beyond an elementary school level, does not challenge their understanding of underlying concepts and does not require candidates to apply knowledge in nonroutine, multistep procedures.

Supporting Research

http://www.acei.org/standhp.htm

www.ets.org/praxis

"No Common Denominator: The Preparation of Elementary Teachers in Mathematics by America's Education Schools," NCTQ, June 2008 http:// www.nctq.org/p/publications/docs/ nctq_ttmath_fullreport.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. Although ACEI standards require some knowledge of algebra, geometry and data analysis, Hawaii should require teacher preparation programs to provide mathematics content that is specifically geared to the needs of elementary teachers. This includes coursework in foundations, algebra and geometry, with some statistics. Hawaii should also test requisite mathematics content with a rigorous assessment tool, such as the test Massachusetts recently adopted; such test could also be used to allow candidates to test out of coursework requirements. Teacher candidates who lack minimum mathematics knowledge should not be eligible for licensure.

Hawaii should also be more explicit regarding its use of ACEI standards so that teacher preparation programs and teacher candidates know what is expected of them.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

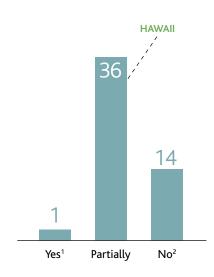
Hawaii asserted that all elementary education candidates must pass the Praxis II test, which includes a section on number operations, pre-algebra and algebra, geometry and measurement, probability, statistics and data analysis. "It also includes testing of the candidates' knowledge of mathematics teaching methods, problem solving, modification and adjustment of methods and strategies, diverse student needs, and analysis of student work to guide mathematical instruction."

LAST WORD

Not only is the Praxis II elementary content test an inadequate measure of requisite mathematics knowledge, it also allows teachers to pass even if they score poorly on the mathematics section.

Figure 13

Do states require appropriate mathematics preparation for elementary teachers?





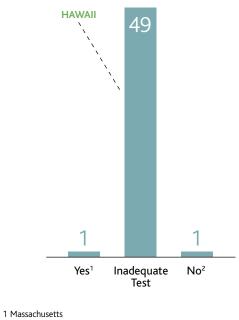
Massachusetts ensures that its elementary teachers have sufficient knowledge of mathematics content. As part of its general curriculum test, the state utilizes a separately scored mathematics subtest that covers topics specifically geared to the needs of elementary teachers.

1 Massachusetts

2 Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, West Virginia, Wisconsin

Figure 14

Do states measure new elementary teachers' knowledge of math?



2 Montana

Goal E – Middle School Teacher Preparation

The state should ensure that middle school teachers are sufficiently prepared to teach appropriate grade-level content.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should encourage middle school candidates who intend to teach multiple subjects to earn two minors in two core academic areas rather than a single major. Middle school candidates intending to teach a single subject area should earn a major in that area.
- The state should not permit middle school teachers to teach on a generalist license, which does not differentiate between the preparation of middle school teachers and that of elementary teachers.
- 3. The state should require that new middle school teachers pass a test in every core academic area they intend to teach.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States must differentiate middle school teacher preparation from that of elementary teachers.
- Approved programs should prepare middle school teacher candidates to be qualified to teach two subject areas.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

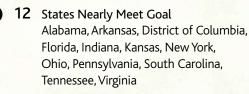
Figure 15

How States are Faring in Preparing Middle School Teachers



Best Practice State Georgia

5 States Meet Goal Connecticut, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Jersey



14 States Partly Meet Goal Delaware, HAWAII, Iowa, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Texas, Vermont, West Virginia, Wyoming

9 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Arizona, Michigan, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Utah

10 States Do Not Meet Goal Alaska, California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Maine, Minnesota, Oregon, Washington, Wisconsin

Area 1: Goal E Hawaii Analysis

State Partly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii requires middle school certification (grades 5-9) for all middle school teachers. The state does not explicitly require a major or minor in the subject areas that the candidates plan to teach.

All new middle school teachers in Hawaii are also required to pass a single-subject Praxis II content test to attain licensure; a general content knowledge test is not an option.

Supporting Research

http://www.htsb.org/licensing/license.html www.ets.org/praxis

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets this goal in part. Although the state is commended for not allowing middle school teachers to teach on a K-8 generalist license, it should strengthen middle school teachers' subject-matter preparation. Hawaii should encourage middle school teachers who plan to teach multiple subjects to earn two minors in two core academic areas, rather than a single major. Middle school candidates who intend to teach a single subject should earn a major in that area.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii reiterated that it does not allow a middle level teacher to be licensed as a generalist in middle level education, and that teachers in all core middle level subjects must pass the appropriate middle level examination for their core subject field.

Figure 16

Do states allow middle school teachers to teach on a K-8 generalist license?

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certain stances

🔶 Examples of Best Practice

Georgia ensures that all middle school teachers are sufficiently prepared to teach middle school-level content. It requires teachers to earn two minors and pass the state's own single-subject content test. Other notables include Louisiana, Mississippi and New Jersey. These states require either two minors or a major for those teaching one content area, as well as a passing score on a single-subject content test.

Figure 16

1 May teach grades 7 and 8 on generalist license if in self-contained classroom

2 Generalist license is K-9

3 With the exception of mathematics

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Figure 17 1 State does not explicitly require two minors, but has equivalent requirements.

2 West Virginia elementary candidates need only one minor to teach middle grades.



Goal F – Special Education Teacher Preparation

The state should ensure that special education teachers are prepared to teach content-area subject matter.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should require that teacher preparation programs provide a broad liberal arts program of study to elementary special education candidates. All elementary special education candidates should have preparation in the content areas of math, science, English, social studies and fine arts and should be required to pass a subject-matter test for licensure.
- 2. The state should require that teacher preparation programs graduate secondary special education teacher candidates who are "highly qualified" in at least two subjects. The most efficient route for these candidates to become adequately prepared to teach multiple subjects may be to earn the equivalent of two subject-area minors and pass tests in those areas.
- The state should customize a "HOUSSE" route for new secondary special education teachers to help them achieve highly qualified status in all the subjects they teach.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- All teachers, including special education teachers, teach content and therefore need relevant coursework.
- HQT requirements place unique challenges on secondary special education teachers.
- Secondary special education teachers need to graduate highly qualified in two subject areas.
- A customized HOUSSE route is needed to meet the needs of new special education teachers to earn highly qualified status.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 18

How States are Faring in Preparing Special Education Teachers

- 0 Best Practice States
- 0 States Meet Goal
- 0 Sta
 - States Nearly Meet Goal
- 12 States Partly Meet Goal Arkansas, California, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Oregon
- 10 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Alabama, Georgia, Nebraska, New Jersey, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin
- 29 States Do Not Meet Goal Alaska, Arizona, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, HAWAII, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Washington, Wyoming

Area 1: Goal F Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii's requirements do not ensure that special education teachers are prepared to teach contentarea subject matter.

Teacher preparation programs in Hawaii are not required to provide a broad liberal arts program to teacher candidates for elementary special education. The state does not require these candidates to receive any preparation in elementary subject areas. In addition, Hawaii requires that elementary special education teachers pass only the Praxis II specialty tests that pertain to special education and not the general subject-area test taken by other elementary candidates.

Hawaii also does not ensure that teacher candidates for secondary special education are "highly qualified" in at least two subject areas. In fact, these candidates are not even required to complete a subject-matter major or pass a subject-matter test. The state additionally does not require dual certification (in which special education teachers must attain licensure in both special education and a specific subject area), so there is no assurance that secondary special education teachers have sufficient preparation in any of the content they may need to teach.

Finally, Hawaii does not have a unique HOUSSE route for new secondary special education teachers. The state has not yet phased out the use of its HOUSSE route for veteran teachers and allows only veteran secondary special education teachers to use this HOUSSE route to gain highly qualified status in multiple subjects.

Supporting Research

www.ets.org

http://hqt.k12.hi.us/STATE/OHR/TeacherQuality.nsf/10d1 a575953d0e908a256c340001adab/a8f1c302a5a21b660 a2575ac006814aa?OpenDocument

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should require that all teacher candidates for elementary special education be well trained in relevant academic subject matter to ensure that special education students, who deserve the opportunity to learn grade-level content, are not shortchanged. These candidates should also be required to pass the same subject-area tests as other elementary teachers.

Hawaii should also ensure that secondary special education teachers are adequately prepared to teach multiple subjects. The most efficient way to accomplish this is to require that teacher candidates earn the equivalent of two subject-area minors and pass tests in those areas.

Finally, the state should create a HOUSSE route specifically for new secondary special education teachers. Although ideally these teachers will have graduated with highly qualified status in two core areas, the state should provide a practical and meaningful way for these teachers to achieve highly qualified status in all remaining core subjects once they are in the classroom. Hawaii should also phase out its use of HOUSSE for veteran teachers.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that if a teacher is prepared in special education and another subject area, he/she must pass both the required special education content examination and the specific subject-area content exam. A dualprepared elementary education teacher must pass the elementary education exam plus the special education content exam, and a dual-prepared secondary teacher must pass the subject-area content exam plus the special education content exam."

LAST WORD

Rather than leave preparation routes as options for special education teachers, Hawaii should strengthen its policy and require that elementary special education teachers pass the elementary content exam. Secondary special education teachers should be prepared to teach multiple subjects.

Figure 19

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Unfortunately, NCTQ cannot highlight any state's policy in this area. Preparation of special education teachers is a topic in critical need of states' attention.

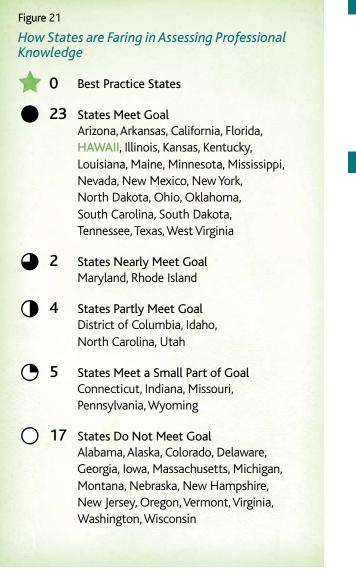
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Goal G – Assessing Professional Knowledge

The state should use a licensing test to verify that all new teachers meet its professional standards.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

 The state should assess new teachers' knowledge of teaching and learning by means of a pedagogy test aligned to the state's professional standards.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- A good pedagogy test puts teeth in states' professional standards.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 1: Goal G Hawaii Analysis

State Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii requires all new teachers to pass a popular pedagogy test from the Praxis series in order to attain licensure.

Supporting Research www.ets.org/praxis

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets this goal. The state should verify that the commercially available tests of pedagogy actually align with state standards, or it may want to consider developing its own test to ensure that new teachers enter classrooms with the requisite knowledge and skills.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii contended that all Praxis exams align with state standards and have been validated through an extensive process, which involves consideration of every question to ensure validity and appropriateness for Hawaii's teachers.

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★ Examples of Best Practice

Twenty-three states meet this goal, and although NCTQ has not singled out one state's policies for "best practice" honors, it additionally commends the eight states (Arizona, California, Florida, Illinois, New Mexico, New York, Oklahoma, Texas) that utilize their own assessments to measure pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal H – Teacher Preparation Program Accountability

The state's approval process for teacher preparation programs should hold programs accountable for the quality of the teachers they produce.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should collect meaningful data about candidate pass rates on state licensing tests. This means collecting data beyond the pass rate of program completers. The state should require programs to report the percentage of teacher candidates who entered student teaching and who were able to pass state licensing tests.
- In addition to better pass rate information, the state should create a more comprehensive index of program performance by collecting some or all of the following data:
 - Average raw scores of graduates on licensing tests, including basic skills, subject matter and professional knowledge tests;
 - Satisfaction ratings by school principals and teacher supervisors of programs' student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison;
 - Evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching;
 - Academic achievement gains of graduates' students averaged over the first three years of teaching; and
 - Five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession.
- 3. The state should also establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs must be held accountable for meeting these standards, and the state, after due process, should shut down programs that do not do so.
- 4. The state should produce and publish on its website an annual report card that shows all the data that the state collects on individual teacher preparation programs.

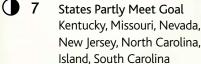
Figure 23

How States are Faring in Holding Preparation Programs Accountable

👷 0 Best Practice States



- 0 States Meet Goal
- 6
 - **States Nearly Meet Goal** Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Michigan, Tennessee, Texas



- New Jersey, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina
 14 States Meet a Small Part of Goal
 - Arizona, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia
- 24 States Do Not Meet Goal Alaska, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, HAWAII, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States need to hold programs accountable for the quality of their graduates.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.



Area 1: Goal H Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not collect objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of teacher preparation programs, nor does it apply any transparent, measurable criteria for conferring program approval. Hawaii collects programs' annual summary licensure test pass rates (80 percent of program completers must pass their licensure exams). However, the 80 percent pass-rate standard, while common among many states, sets the bar quite low and is not a meaningful measure of program performance.

Furthermore, there is no evidence that the state's standards for program approval are resulting in greater accountability. In the past three years, no program in the state has been identified as low-performing.

In addition, Hawaii's website does not include a report card that allows the public to review and compare program performance.

Supporting Research

Title II Report https://title2.ed.gov/title2dr/ LowPerforming.asp

http://www.ncate.org/documents/stateRelations/ NCATEStatePartFeatures2008.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. To generate the hard, objective data needed to hold programs accountable, the state should make objective outcomes the focus of its teacher preparation program approval process and establish precise standards for program performance that are more useful for accountability purposes. At a minimum, the state should ensure that programs are reporting pass rates for individuals entering student teaching, not program completers, for the former is now the requirement under the 2008 reauthorization of the Higher Education Act. It is also a method that will not mask the number of individuals the program was unable to properly prepare.

Hawaii should also collect meaningful, objective data to create a more comprehensive index of program performance. NCTQ recommends the utilization of average raw scores of graduates on licensing tests (including basic skills, subject matter and professional knowledge tests); satisfaction ratings (by school principals and teacher supervisors) of programs' student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison; evaluation results from first and/or second year of teaching; academic achievement gains of students taught by the programs' graduates, averaged over the first three years of teaching; and five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession. To hold these programs accountable, the state should then establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data, including raising the minimum pass rate on its licensing test. Programs that do not meet the standard, after due process, should be shut down.

Finally, Hawaii should post an annual report card on its website that details the data it collects and the criteria used for program approval. This report card should also identify the programs that fail to meet these criteria and cite the reasons why they failed.



Hawaii asserted that all of the indicated measures are required in its SATE review of teacher education programs, and that institutions are required to publish the indicated information. The state also contended that scores for program completers are available for public inspection in the Title II report published by the U. S. Department of Education.

LAST WORD

The SATE report referenced by Hawaii states: "The unit has an assessment system that collects and analyzes data about applicant qualifications, candidate and program completer performance, and unit operations to evaluate and improve the unit and its programs. The unit has a professional responsibility to ensure that its programs and program completers are of the highest quality. Meeting this responsibility requires using information technologies in the systematic gathering and evaluation of data and making use of that data to strengthen the unit and its programs."

This language is too vague to ensure that objective, meaningful data will be collected regarding graduate follow-up studies. Also, rather than rely on the Title II report, Hawaii should publish a report card on its website detailing the data it collects and the criteria used for program approval.

Supporting Research

http://www.htsb.org/html/details/teacherstandards/ sateperformancestandards.html

Figure 24		State sets minimum standards for perform	
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Rhode Island			
South Carolina			
South Dakota			
Tennessee			
Texas			
Utah			
Vermont			
Virginia			
Washington			
West Virginia			
Wisconsin			
Wyoming			
	21	5	17

Examples of Best Practice

Although no state meets this goal, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana and Michigan rely on some objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of teacher preparation programs, and they also all apply transparent measurable criteria for conferring program approval. Additionally, these four states post program report cards on their websites.

Figure 25

Which states collect meaningful data?

AVERAGE RAW SCORES ON LICENSING TESTS Alabama, Louisiana, Michigan, New Jersey, Tennessee

SATISFACTION RATING FROM SCHOOLS Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, Texas, Virginia

EVALUATION RESULTS FOR PROGRAM GRADUATES Florida, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont

STUDENT LEARNING GAINS¹ New Jersey, Tennessee, Texas

TEACHER RETENTION RATES Missouri, New Jersey, Oregon, Texas

1 Louisiana is piloting the use of value-added data that connects student achievement to teacher preparation programs, but not yet using the results for accountability purposes.

Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal I – State Authority for Program Approval

The state should retain full authority over its process for approving teacher preparation programs.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should not allow its teacher preparation programs to substitute national accreditation for state program approval.
- 2. The state should not require its teacher preparation programs to attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States should not cede oversight authority over their teacher preparation programs to accreditors.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 26

How States are Faring in Maintaining Authority for Program Approval



Best Practice States



31 States Meet Goal

Alabama, California, Colorado, District of Columbia, Florida, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin

- 0 States Nearly Meet Goal
- 7 States Partly Meet Goal Connecticut, Georgia, HAWAII, Illinois, Louisiana, Nevada, South Carolina
- 3 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Maryland, West Virginia, Wyoming
- 10 States Do Not Meet Goal Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Utah

Area 1: Goal I Hawaii Analysis

State Partly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not require its teacher preparation programs to attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval. However, the state has adopted NCATE's conceptual framework and standards. When NCATE conducts unit and program reviews, Hawaii may accept or reject any of NCATE's recommendations. Reviews of other programs are conducted under state supervision, and review teams are comprised of IHE faculty, administrators and content experts.

Supporting Research

NCATE State Partnership Features 2009 http://www. ncate.org/documents/stateRelations/ NCATEStatePartFeatures2008.pdf www.ncate.org/documents/stateRelations/ NCATEStatePartFeatures2008.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets this goal in part. Although the state is commended for not requiring its preparation programs to attain national accreditation, it should articulate its own benchmarks for program approval.

It should also be noted that NCATE reports that Hawaii has delegated its program review to NCATE; therefore, the state is urged to ensure that NCATE is providing programs with accurate information about program approval.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.



Examples of Best Practice

Thirty-one states meet this goal, and although NCTQ has not singled out one state's policies for "best practice" honors, it commends all states that retain full authority over their program approval process.

Figure 27

What is the relationship between state program approval and national accreditation?

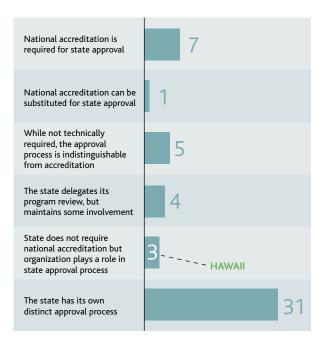


Figure 28 1 Maryland requires programs that enroll 2,000 or more students to
attain national accreditation.

2 West Virginia public preparation programs are required to attain national accreditation.

Figure 28

What is the relationship between state program approval and national accreditation?

^{Il accreditation is require}

approval.

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North Dakota						
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Utah						
Vermont						
Virginia						
Washington						
West Virginia ²						
Wisconsin						
Wyoming						
Wyoming	 7	1	5	4	3	31



Area 1: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal J – Balancing Professional Coursework

The state should ensure that teacher preparation programs provide an efficient and balanced program of study.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

 The state should adopt policies designed to encourage efficient delivery of the professional sequence, for both its own requirements and those of individual programs.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Most states have programs that demand excessive requirements.
- States need to monitor programs' total professional coursework requirements.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 1: Goal J Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not monitor the number of credit hours that preparation programs require to ensure efficient delivery of content to teacher candidates. The state relies on a standards-based approach to coursework specifications, which requires that programs commit only to teaching state standards in return for approval.

Regrettably, some of Hawaii's teacher preparation programs are indeed requiring excessive amounts of coursework. For example, elementary teacher candidates at Chaminade University must complete 60 credit hours in education and related professional coursework.

Supporting Research

http://www.htsb.org/html/details/teacherstandards/ teachers.html

http://acad.chaminade.edu/dept/education/ Undergraduate/UG%20Licensure/ Elementary%20UG%20Licensure.html

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should adopt a policy that targets the tendency of preparation programs to require increasing amounts of professional coursework. The state should encourage efficient delivery of content to teacher candidates and ensure that programs focus on preparation that will make teachers ultimately more effective in the classroom. Excessive coursework requirements do not leave room for electives or, in some cases, adequate subject-matter preparation. They may also discourage talented individuals from pursuing teaching careers.

Hawaii should also review these coursework requirements on a regular basis to weigh their benefits and eliminate any requirements that are not relevant to teacher effectiveness. If the state chooses not to limit the amount of professional coursework required by its teacher preparation programs, it should mandate that programs with excessive requirements show measurably superior results over programs with fewer.

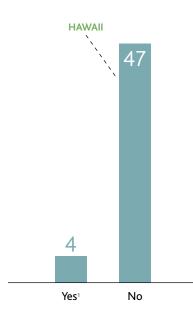
HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that its institutions provide evidence that candidates possess the necessary knowledge, skills and dispositions to be a qualified teacher. "Each institution is unique, and therefore molds its program based on their conceptual framework, faculty and institutional resources, and relationships with the K-12 sector to produce a quality program. With the acceptance of performance standards, mandating specific coursework requirements for all institutions and focusing only on 'inputs' is a thing of the past. Today, teacher education institutions must document how their candidates perform to the state's standards."

LAST WORD

The expectation that programs prepare teacher candidates to meet certain standards does not preclude efficient delivery of those standards. Hawaii's commitment to standards-based education and NCTQ's recommendation of program efficiency are not mutually exclusive goals.

Do states cap the amount of professional coursework programs can require?



1 California, New Jersey², Tennessee, Virginia.

2 Although not technically a cap, New Jersey requires a minimum of 90 credit hours distributed among general education and an academic major.

Figure 31

Coursework that supports teacher effectiveness

In monitoring the amount of professional coursework required by teacher preparation programs, states also need to consider whether professional requirements support teacher effectiveness in the classroom. States should ensure that the following key areas are addressed:

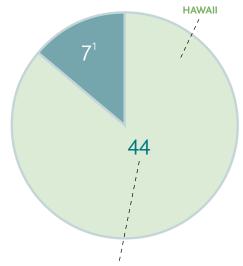
- Methods for teaching subject matter
- Child or adolescent development, with emphasis on cognitive psychology
- Classroom management
- Assessment
- Special education
- Contemporary issues in education, particularly the achievement gap



Examples of Best Practice

Although no state was awarded "best practice" honors, Virginia and Tennessee are notables because both keep a check on the amount of professional studies that preparation programs may require.





States with at least one approved program that requires 60 or more credit hours in professional coursework

1 California, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Tennessee, Virginia

Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal A – Alternate Route Eligibility

The state should require alternate route programs to exceed the admission requirements of traditional preparation programs while also being flexible to the needs of nontraditional candidates.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- With some accommodation for work experience, alternate route programs should screen candidates for academic ability, such as requiring a minimum 2.75 overall college GPA.
- All alternate route candidates, including elementary candidates and those having a major in their intended subject area, should be required to pass a subject-matter test.
- 3. Alternate route candidates lacking a major in the intended subject area should be able to demonstrate subject-matter knowledge by passing a test of sufficient rigor.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Alternate route teachers need the advantage of a strong academic background.
- Academic requirements for admission to alternate routes should exceed the requirements for traditional programs.
- Multiple ways for assessing subject-matter competency are needed to accommodate nontraditional candidates.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 33

How States are Faring in Alternate Route Eligibility



Best Practice State Connecticut



- 12 States Nearly Meet Goal Arizona, Arkansas, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee

16 States Partly Meet Goal Alabama, Alaska, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, Ohio, South Dakota, Texas, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia

- 16 States Meet a Small Part of Goal California, Colorado, HAWAII, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Oregon, South Carolina, Vermont, Wyoming
- 6 States Do Not Meet Goal Maine, Michigan, Nebraska, North Dakota, Utah, Wisconsin

Area 2: Goal A Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

The admission requirements for Hawaii's alternate route do not exceed those of traditional preparation programs, although they do provide some flexibility for nontraditional candidates.

Hawaii offers an Alternative Route to Licensure in Special Education (ARLISE). The state does not require evidence of academic performance, such as a minimum GPA, nor are candidates required to pass a subjectmatter test for admission. Candidates are required to have either a major equivalent in the field or a passing score on the content test.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

RECOMMENDATION

http://www.rrsc.k12.hi.us/tc/index.html

Hawaii is commended for allowing candidates to use a subject-matter test to meet the major requirement.

The state should require all alternate route candidates to pass a subject-matter test. The concept behind the alternate route into teaching is that the nontraditional candidate is able to concentrate on acquiring professional knowledge and skills because he or she has strong subject-area knowledge. Teachers without sufficient subject-matter knowledge place students at risk. The state should make demonstration of subjectmatter knowledge a condition of admission to the alternate route program.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

pass exa pared in

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. Hawaii should require that its alternate route candidates provide some evidence of good academic performance. The standard should be higher than what is required of traditional teacher candidates, such as a 2.75 GPA. The original concept behind the alternate route into teaching is that the nontraditional candidate is able to concentrate on acquiring professional knowledge and skills because he or she has demonstrated strong subject-area knowledge and/or an above-average academic background. The state can make accommodations for mid-career candidates. Hawaii stated that all licensed teachers are required to pass examinations in their content field, whether prepared in an alternate route or traditional program The ARLISE program does have a requirement minimum GPA of 2.75.

LAST WORD

Neither Hawaii's response nor additional communication with the state included documentation of a minimum GPA requirement of 2.75.

Further, NCTQ's recommendation regarding a subjectmatter test is that it should be required for admission to an alternate route program. NCTQ acknowledges that Hawaii, like most states, requires subject-matter tests for licensure.

Are states' alternate rc fl

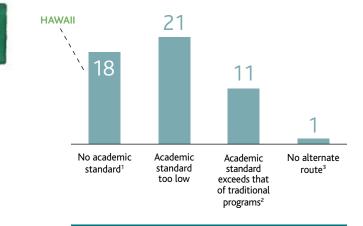
Examples of Best Practice 1

Connecticut meets three admission criteria for a quality alternate route: 1) a requirement that candidates have a GPA higher than what is generally expected in a traditional preparation program, 2) a requirement that all candidates pass a subject-area test and 3) flexibility built into its policy that respects nontraditional candidates' diverse backgrounds.

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Connecticut		-		
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	11	28	19	1

Figure 34 1 Elementary candidates only

Do states require alternate routes to be selective?



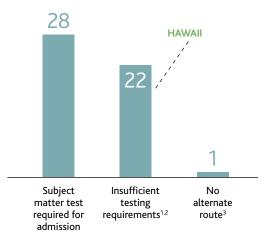
1 California, Colorado, Delaware, Hawaii, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Oregon, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin

2 Arizona, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee

3 North Dakota

Figure 36

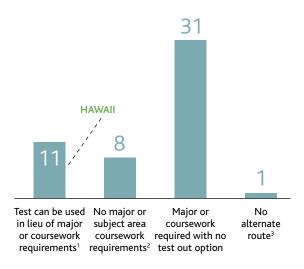
Do states ensure that alternate route teachers have subject matter knowledge?



- 1 State does not require subject test at all; exempts some candidates; or does not require candidate to pass test until program completion.
- 2 Alaska, Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, Hawaii, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Wisconsin, Wyoming
- 3 North Dakota

Figure 37

Do states accommodate the nontraditional background of alternate route candidates?



1 Alabama⁴, Alaska, Connecticut, Georgia, Hawaii, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia

- 2 Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Washington
- 3 North Dakota
- 4 For elementary candidates only

Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal B – Alternate Route Preparation

The state should ensure that its alternate routes provide streamlined preparation that is relevant to the immediate needs of new teachers.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should ensure that the number of credit hours it either requires or allows is manageable for the new teacher. Anything exceeding 12 credit hours of coursework (for which the teacher is required to physically attend a lecture or seminar) in the first year may be counterproductive, placing too great a burden on the teacher. This calculation is premised on no more than 6 credit hours in the summer, 3 in the fall and 3 in the spring.
- 2. The state should ensure that alternate route programs offer accelerated study not to exceed six courses (exclusive of any credit for mentoring) over the duration of the program. Programs should be no longer than two years, at which time the new teacher should be eligible for a standard certificate.
- 3. Any coursework requirements should target the *immediate* needs of the new teacher (e.g., seminars with other grade-level teachers, training in a particular curriculum, reading instruction and classroom management techniques).
- 4. The state should ensure that candidates have an opportunity to practice teach in a summer training program. Alternatively, the state can provide an intensive mentoring experience, beginning with a trained mentor assigned full-time to the new teacher for the first critical weeks of school and gradually reducing the amount of time. The state should support only induction strategies *that can be effective even in a poorly managed school*: intensive mentoring, seminars appropriate to grade level or subject area, a reduced teaching load and frequent release time to observe other teachers.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The program must provide practical, meaningful preparation that is sensitive to a new teacher's stress level.

Figure 38

How States are Faring in Alternate Route Preparation

- 🔶 0 Best Practice States
 - 4 States Meet Goal Arkansas, Connecticut, Georgia, New Jersey
 - 4 States Nearly Meet Goal Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Virginia
- 14 States Partly Meet Goal Alaska, California, Colorado, Delaware, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, West Virginia
- 17 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Arizona, District of Columbia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Washington, Wyoming
- 12 States Do Not Meet Goal HAWAII, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, Vermont, Wisconsin
- Induction support is especially important for alternate route teachers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 2: Goal B Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not ensure that its alternate route candidates will receive streamlined preparation that meets the immediate needs of new teachers.

Hawaii's Alternative Route to Licensure in Special Education (ARLISE) program requires candidates to complete 30 credits of coursework. The coursework is a combination of classroom and online sessions. Topics include Teaching Methods & Learning Strategies, Learning Theories & Multiple Intelligence, Behavior Measurement & Principles, Transition Planning & Teaching Diverse Learners, Formal Assessments for Learners with Special Needs and Reading Strategies.

ARLISE candidates do have the opportunity to practice teach as part of a field experience, but it is not required of all candidates.

Supporting Research

http://www.rrsc.k12.hi.us/tc/index.html

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The nature and amount of coursework required is not streamlined to the immediate needs of a new teacher, and more closely resembles a traditional post-baccalaureate preparation program. Appropriate coursework should include gradelevel or subject-level seminars, methodology in the content area, classroom management, assessment and scientifically based early reading instruction. Programs should not be permitted to overburden the new teacher by requiring multiple courses to be taken simultaneously during the school year. The state should also ensure that the program can be completed within two years. Hawaii should offer a highly structured, well-supervised induction program for all alternate route candidates. Effective strategies include practice teaching prior to starting to teach in the classroom, intensive mentoring with full classroom support in the first few weeks or months of school, a reduced teaching load and relief time to allow new teachers to observe experienced teachers during each school day.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

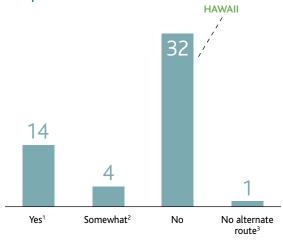
Hawaii asserted that ARLISE is not the only alternate route to teaching in Hawaii, and stated that ARLISE teachers already working at a school site validate their student teaching via supervision while already on the job. Required coursework ensures that candidates are prepared in all areas of teaching instead of stipulating an arbitrary minimum number of courses to complete a program. There is ongoing mentoring.

LAST WORD

The other programs that Hawaii refers to appear to be traditional graduate programs that allow candidates to begin teaching while completing the program. Neither these programs nor ARLISE are consistent with the intents and purposes of a true alternate route to certification.

Figure 39		1	1	Plactice teaching opportunis	à /	1
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the immediate needs of	Peu	con	blep	teac	dhs a	nate
new teachers?	Streamlined coursework	Relevant coursework	Reasonable program leners	ctice	Intensive support	No altemate route
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Do states curb excessive coursework requirements?



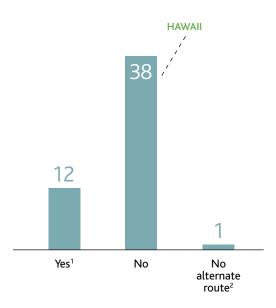
1 Alabama, Alaska, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, Mississippi, New Jersey, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia

2 Indiana, Montana, South Dakota, Wyoming

3 North Dakota

Figure 41

Do states require mentoring of high quality and intensity?



1 Alaska, Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Georgia, Kentucky, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Utah, West Virginia

2 North Dakota



Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia and New Jersey ensure that their alternate routes provide streamlined preparation that meets the immediate needs of new teachers. Each state requires a manageable number of credit hours, relevant coursework and intensive mentoring.

Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal C – Alternate Route Usage and Providers

The state should provide an alternate route that is free from regulatory obstacles that inappropriately limit its usage and providers.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should not treat the alternate route as a program of last resort or restrict the availability of alternate routes to certain geographic areas, grades or subject areas.
- The state should allow districts and nonprofit organizations other than institutions of higher education to operate alternate route programs.
- 3. The state should ensure that its alternate route has no requirements that would be difficult to meet for a provider that is not an institution of higher education. Such requirements include an approval process based on institutional accreditation or raining requirements articulated in only credit hours and not clock hours.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Alternate routes should be structured to do more than just address shortages; they should provide an alternative pipeline for talented individuals to enter the profession.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 42

How States are Faring in Alternate Route Usage and Providers



Best Practice States



20 States Meet Goal Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, Wisconsin

 States Nearly Meet Goal New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, West Virginia

10 States Partly Meet Goal Alaska, Arizona, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Washington

C 2 Sta

States Meet a Small Part of Goal South Carolina, Vermont

15 States Do Not Meet Goal Alabama, HAWAII, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Wyoming

Area 2: Goal C Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii limits the usage and providers of its alternate routes.

Hawaii's alternate route can only be used for certification to teach special education. The program is university-based, and the specific requirements are articulated in terms of credit hours, effectively precluding nonhigher education providers.

Supporting Research

http://www.rrsc.k12.hi.us/tc/index.html

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. Hawaii should reconsider restricting its alternate route to special education teachers. The state should allow new teachers to work across all grades, subjects and geographic areas.

The state should also encourage a diversity of providers, allowing school districts and nonprofit organizations, in addition to institutions of higher education, to operate programs.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii contended that it welcomes the application from other entities to implement a new state-approved program, but to date it has not received an indication of interest from any organization to operate a program in the state. "This lack of interest should not be the basis for faulting the state and there is no basis for how the authors have concluded that "Hawaii limits the usage and providers of its alternate routes."

LAST WORD

NCTQ concludes that Hawaii limits the usage and providers of its alternate routes based on the state's current policy. If Hawaii outlined a high-quality alternate route in its statute or regulations, organizations might be more interested in operating programs. The responsibility for establishing an alternative pathway that allows talented nontraditional candidates to enter the profession lies with the state. If the state had such policy in place and still had no willing providers, that would be a different matter.

t Examples of Best Practice

Twenty states meet this goal, and although NCTQ has not singled out one state's policies for "best practice" honors, it commends all states that permit both broad usage and a diversity of providers for their alternate routes.

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Can alternate route teachers teach any subject or grade anywhere in the state?



Figure 45

Are providers other than colleges or universities permitted?

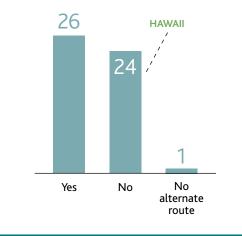




Figure 46 Do states provide real alternative pathways?

Figure 46		1	Offered Poute is disingenuous	. /
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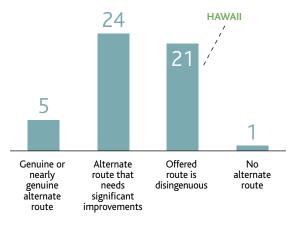


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Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal D – Alternate Route Program Accountability

The state should ensure that its approval process for alternate route programs holds them accountable for the performance of their teachers.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should collect some or all of the following data to create a more comprehensive index of program performance to hold alternate route programs accountable:
 - Average raw scores of graduates on licensing tests, including subject matter and professional knowledge tests;
 - Satisfaction ratings by school principals and teacher supervisors of programs' student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison;
 - Evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching;
 - Academic achievement gains of graduates' students averaged over the first three years of teaching; and
 - Five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession.
- 2. The state should also establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs must be held accountable for meeting these standards, and the state, after due process, should shut down programs that do not do so.
- 3. The state should produce and publish on its website an annual report card that shows all the data that the state collects on individual teacher preparation programs.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Alternate route programs should show they consistently produce effective teachers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

Research citations to support this goal are ► available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 49

How States are Faring in Alternate Route Program Accountability





States Nearly Meet Goal Florida, Louisiana, Texas



States Partly Meet Goal Alabama, Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, Tennessee

- () 8 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Arizona, Arkansas, Georgia, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, Vermont, Washington
 - 35 States Do Not Meet Goal Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, HAWAII, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming

Area 2: Goal D Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii neither collects objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of its alternate route programs nor applies any transparent, measurable criteria for conferring program approval.

In addition, Hawaii's website has no report card that allows the public to review and compare program performance. Finally, Hawaii should post an annual report card on its website that details the data it collects for all programs, both alternate route and traditional, as well as the criteria used for program approval. This report card should also identify the programs that fail to meet these criteria and cite the reasons why they failed.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. To generate the hard, objective data needed to hold programs accountable, the state should make objective outcomes the focus of its approval process for alternate route programs and establish precise standards for performance that are useful for accountability purposes.

Hawaii should collect meaningful, objective data to create a comprehensive index of program performance. NCTQ recommends the use of 1) graduates' average raw scores on licensing tests (including subjectmatter and professional knowledge tests); 2) satisfaction ratings (by principals and teacher supervisors) of programs' student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison; 3) evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching; 3) evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching; 4) academic achievement gains of students taught by the programs' graduates, averaged over the first three years of teaching; and 5) five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession. To hold these programs accountable, the state should then establish a minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs that do not meet the standard, after due process, should be shut down.

Hawaii noted that it is currently working to create a data interface among the Hawaii Teacher Standards Board, the Hawaii Department of Education and local institutions to track and collect data on teacher performance of locally trained teacher candidates. The State Legislature has mandated that these agencies develop data interfaces, but it has not appropriated resources to this task.

J State Str minimum standards for performance Figure 50 statennakes data publicly Jate collects objective program-specific data Do states hold alternate route programs accountable? Alabama Alaska Arizona Arkansas California Colorado Connecticut 2 Delaware District of Columbia 1 Florida Georgia HAWAII Idaho Illinois Indiana lowa Kansas 1 Kentucky Louisiana \square Maine Maryland Π Massachusetts Michigan Minnesota \square Mississippi Missouri Montana Nebraska Nevada New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico New York North Carolina North Dakota³ Ohio

16

1

2

7

Oklahoma

Pennsylvania

Rhode Island

Tennessee

Texas

Utah Vermont

Virginia

Washington

West Virginia

Wisconsin

Wyoming

South Carolina South Dakota

Oregon

•

Examples of Best Practice

While no state earns a "best practice" designation for this goal, Louisiana comes the closest. Louisiana uses objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of its alternate route programs and posts this data annually on the state's website. Louisiana is also well ahead of other states in setting standards for program performance and measuring each program according to those standards. Program scores are determined on the basis of a relatively complex rating formula. The state provides a system to reward programs that attain performance scores each year at an Exemplary or High Performing level. Teacher preparation programs that are rated as being At Risk for four years or that are designated as Low Performing and do not become Satisfactory within two years lose their state approval.

Figure 51

Which states collect meaningful data?

AVERAGE RAW SCORES ON LICENSING TESTS Tennessee

SATISFACTION RATING FROM SCHOOLS

Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Maryland, Texas, Vermont, Washington

EVALUATION RESULTS FOR PROGRAM GRADUATES Alabama, Delaware, Michigan, Tennessee

STUDENT LEARNING GAINS¹ Florida, Tennessee, Texas

TEACHER RETENTION RATES Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Texas

 Louisiana is piloting the use of value-added data that connects student achievement to teacher preparation programs, but not yet using the results for accountability purposes.

Figure 50

- The posted data do not allow the public to review and compare alternate route program performance because institutional data are not dissaggregated.
- 2 The posted data do not allow the public to review and compare program performance because data are not disaggregated by individual program provider.

3 North Dakota does not have an alternate route to certification.

Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal E – Licensure Reciprocity

The state should help to make teacher licenses fully portable among states, with appropriate safeguards.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should offer fully certified teachers moving from other states standard licenses, without using transcript analysis or recency requirements as a means of judging eligibility. The state can and should require evidence of good standing in previous employment.
- The state should uphold its standards for all teachers by insisting that certified teachers coming from other states meet the incoming state's testing requirements.
- The state should accord the same license to teachers from other states who completed an approved alternate route program as it accords teachers prepared in a traditional preparation program.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Using transcripts to judge teacher competency provides little value.
- Testing requirements should be upheld, not waived.
- Signing on to the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement at least signals a state's willingness to consider portability.
- States licensing out-of-state teachers should not differentiate between experienced teachers prepared in alternate routes and those prepared in traditional programs.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 2: Goal E Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Out-of-state teachers with valid, standard professional certificates may be eligible for Hawaii's professional certificate.

To qualify, applicants must have completed a stateapproved teacher education program. Transcripts are required to verify the preparation program; however, it is not clear whether the state also analyzes these transcripts to determine whether additional coursework will be required.

Regrettably, Hawaii accepts passing test scores based on the applicant's previous state requirements. For tests not taken but required by Hawaii, out-of-state teachers must meet Hawaii test requirements.

Finally, Hawaii has indicated its willingness to support the portability of teacher licenses by signing the NASDTEC (National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification) Interstate Agreement. While signing this agreement does not ensure that a state will provide *unconditional* reciprocity, it is, at the very least, symbolically important. However, the state has not signed on to the provisions of the agreement designed to facilitate licensure reciprocity for alternate route teachers.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Teacher Standards Board, Form OS2007 www.nasdtec.org

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should expand its reciprocity policy to include all valid professional certificates, regardless of whether a teacher was prepared through a traditional or alternate route. All certified out-of-state teachers should receive equal treatment. State policies that discriminate against teachers who were prepared in an alternate route are not supported by evidence. In fact, a substantial body of research has failed to discern differences in effectiveness between alternate and traditional route teachers.

The state should also consider discontinuing its requirement for the submission of transcripts. Transcript analysis is likely to result in additional coursework requirements, even for traditionally prepared teachers.

Hawaii should uphold its standards for all teachers and insist that out-of-state teachers meet its own testing requirements. It takes considerable risk by granting a waiver for its licensing tests to any out-of-state teacher with a passing test score in another state. It should not provide any waivers of its teacher tests unless an applicant can provide evidence of a passing score under its own standards.

Although the state has signed on to some provisions of the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement, its participation is disingenuous, given its actual policies. Hawaii should consider additional support for the agreement, especially those provisions pertaining to alternate route teachers. Such an adjustment in policy would surely make the state more welcoming to teachers from other states.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that it is inconsistent for NCTQ to request that Hawaii honor other state licenses with full portability and then say it is regrettable that it accepts licensure tests from other states. The state added that it does not analyze transcripts or have a recency requirement for licensure. Applicants must present proof of approved program completion either by an institutional recommendation or statement on the transcript. Finally, Hawaii contended it does not differentiate between traditional and alternate route programs in the license application process.

LAST WORD

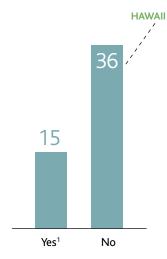
There is no inconsistency in recommending the reduction of burdensome policies for granting reciprocal licensure as long as the state upholds its licensure testing requirements. In this way, the state ensures that it does not license teachers from other states who do not meet its expectations. If Hawaii upheld its testing requirements, it could eliminate outdated processes, such as transcript analysis, that create unnecessary obstacles for out of state teachers.

Examples of Best Practice

Alabama makes teacher licenses fully portable among states by not specifying any additional coursework or recency requirements to determine eligibility for either traditional or alternate route teachers. The state also does not grant any waivers of its testing requirements and appropriately requires all out-of-state teachers to meet Alabama's passing scores on assessments. It has also signed on to the NASDTEC agreement, signaling the state's willingness to consider licensure reciprocity for teachers from other states.

Figure 53

Do states require all out-of-state teachers to pass their licensure tests?



1 Alabama, Alaska, Idaho, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin

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	West Virgini
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Figure 54 1 For traditionally-prepared teachers only	

Figure 54

attached in with no

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Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal A – State Data Systems

The state should develop a data system that contributes some of the evidence needed to assess teacher effectiveness.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should establish a longitudinal data system with at least the following key components:
 - A unique statewide student identifier number that connects student data across key databases across years;
 - A unique teacher identifier system that can match individual teacher records with individual student records; and
 - An assessment system that can match individual student test records from year to year in order to measure academic growth.
- 2. Value-added data provided through the state's longitudinal data system should be considered among the criteria used to determine teachers' effectiveness.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Value-added analysis connects student data to teacher data to measure achievement and performance.
- There are a number of responsible uses for value-added analysis.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 56

How States are Faring in the Development of Data Systems



18 States Partly Meet Goal Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, HAWAII, Kentucky, Mississippi, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, West Virginia, Wyoming

- 28 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin
-) 2 States Do Not Meet Goal Maryland, Nevada

Area 3: Goal A Hawaii Analysis

State Partly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii has a data system with the capacity to provide evidence of teacher effectiveness.

Hawaii has all three necessary elements of a studentand teacher-level longitudinal data system. The state has assigned unique student identifiers that connect student data across key databases across years and has assigned unique teacher identifiers that enable it to match individual teacher records with individual student records. It also has the capacity to match student test records from year to year in order to measure student academic growth.

However, Hawaii does not currently use this data system to provide value-added evidence of teacher effectiveness.

Supporting Research

www.dataqualitycampaign.org

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets this goal in part. Having all the necessary elements in place, the state should support the use of value-added data to provide part of the evidence of teacher effectiveness, particularly for decisions about granting teachers tenure. Value-added data are also important and necessary for performance pay plans to reliably measure individual teacher and overall school performance.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

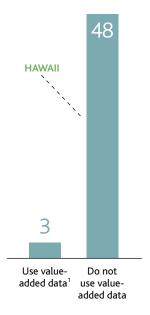
Hawaii recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. The state added that it is not equipped to provide the analysis recommended at this time. "Current development is in progress to provide the data analysis."

Examples of Best Practice

Tennessee not only has all three elements of a student- and teacher-level longitudinal data system-unique student identifiers that connect student data across key databases across years, unique teacher identifiers that enable the state to match individual teacher records with individual student records and the capacity to match student test records from year to year so as to measure student academic growth-but it is also the only state that uses this valueadded data to measure teacher effectiveness by isolating each teacher's impact on individual students' academic growth. It translates this impact into a "teacher effect" score and then uses it as part of a teacher's evaluation.

Figure 57

Do states use value-added data as a criterion for assessing teacher effectiveness?



1 Louisiana uses value-added data to assess certain aspects of teacher effectiveness; however, this information is not used to decide tenure. Ohio uses value-added data to improve classroom instruction; however, it is not clear whether this information plays a role in teacher evaluations. Tennessee uses value-added data to measure teacher effectiveness by isolating the impact each teacher has on individual students' academic growth, which can be used as part of a teacher's evaluation.

Figure 58

- 1 Nevada prohibits the use of value-added data in teacher evaluations.
- 2 New York prohibits the use of student-achievement data in teacher tenure decisions.

Test records match over time Figure 58 Individual student records Unique student identifier t connects data across data # identifier Do state data systems have the capacity to ² teacher reliably assess teacher Unique System effectiveness? Alabama Alaska Arizona Arkansas California Colorado Connecticut Delaware District of Columbia Florida Georgia HAWAII Idaho Illinois Indiana lowa Kansas Kentucky Louisiana Maine Maryland П Massachusetts Michigan Minnesota \square Mississippi Missouri Montana Nebraska Nevada¹ New Hampshire New Jersey New Mexico New York² North Carolina North Dakota Ohio Oklahoma Oregon Pennsylvania Rhode Island South Carolina South Dakota Tennessee Texas Utah Vermont Virginia Washington West Virginia Wisconsin Wyoming 50 46 48 21

Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal B – Evaluation of Effectiveness

The state should require instructional effectiveness to be the preponderant criterion of any teacher evaluation.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should either require a common evaluation instrument in which evidence of student learning is the most significant criterion or should specifically require that student learning be the preponderant consideration in local evaluation processes. Evaluation instruments, whether state or locally developed, should be structured so as to preclude a teacher from receiving a satisfactory rating if found ineffective in the classroom.
- 2. Evaluation instruments should require classroom observations that focus on and document the effectiveness of instruction.
- Teacher evaluations should consider objective evidence of student learning, including not only standardized test scores, but also classroombased artifacts such as tests, quizzes and student work.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Teachers should be judged primarily by their impact on students.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 3: Goal B Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not require instructional effectiveness to be the preponderant criterion of any teacher evaluation.

Hawaii has a statewide instrument for teacher evaluation in which teachers are assessed on how well they meet the five "duties of a teacher." These five duties include developing independent learners, providing a positive and safe learning environment, demonstrating professionalism, using assessment data and reflecting on one's teaching practice. The state requires classroom observations to determine how well a teacher is meeting the evaluation criteria and suggests that other data -lesson plans and grade books, for example -- may be considered. However, the state does not make evidence of student learning a specific criterion in the teacher evaluation, nor does it make classroom effectiveness the preponderant criteria.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Revised Statutes 302A-638 http://www.capitol. hawaii.gov/hrs2006/Vol05_Ch0261-0319/HRS0302A/ HRS_0302A-0638.HTM

Hawaii Standard Practices 5602 http://sp.k12.hi.us/ pdf/sp5602.pdf

Hawaii Professional Evaluation Program for Teachers (PEP-T) http://sp.k12.hi.us/pdf/atch5602manual.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. Hawaii is commended for requiring classroom observation, but it should consider adopting a policy that requires evidence of student learning garnered through objective measures such as standardized test results, in addition to subjective measures, as the preponderant criterion of teacher evaluations. The state should also ensure that evaluation instruments do not permit teachers found ineffective in the classroom to receive satisfactory ratings.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii noted that it is developing a performance based evaluation, as outlined in Teacher Contract Appendix XXI.

Figure 60	Requires evaluation to include	/ de	/ «.
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Montana			
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New Hampshire			
New Jersey			
New Mexico			
New York			
North Carolina			
North Dakota			
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Oklahoma			
Oregon Pennsylvania			
Rhode Island			
South Carolina			
South Dakota			
Tennessee			
Texas			
Utah			
Vermont			
Virginia			
Washington			
West Virginia			
Wisconsin Wyoming			
	30	16	4

Examples of Best Practice

Florida explicitly requires teacher evaluations to be based primarily on evidence of student learning. The state requires evaluations to rely on classroom observations as well as objective measures of student learning, including state assessment data. South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas also structure their formal evaluations so that teachers cannot get an overall satisfactory rating unless they also get a satisfactory rating on classroom effectiveness

Figure 61

Sources of objective evidence of student learning

Many educators struggle to identify possible sources of objective student data. Here are some examples:

- Standardized test scores
- Periodic diagnostic assessments
- Benchmark assessments that show student growth
- Artifacts of student work connected to specific student learning standards that are randomly selected for review by the principal or senior faculty, scored using rubrics and descriptors
- Examples of typical assignments, assessed for their quality and rigor
- Periodic checks on progress with the curriculum coupled with evidence of student mastery of the curriculum from quizzes, tests and exams

Figure 60

- 1 Louisiana has an optional teacher evaluation system that does make explicit the need to include objective measures of student learning as part of the teacher evaluation.
- 2 Minnesota has implemented an optional teacher evaluation system based on evidence of student learning as measured by classroom observations and objective measures, such as student achievement data.

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Washington					
West Virginia					
Wisconsin					
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	9	3	2	17	20
	9	5	2	17	20

Figure 62 1 The state has no policy regarding any aspect of teacher evaluations.

Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal C – Frequency of Evaluations

The state should require annual evaluations of all teachers and multiple evaluations of all new teachers.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should require that all nonprobationary teachers receive a formal evaluation annually.
- The state should require that all new, nonpermanent teachers receive a minimum of two formal evaluations annually. At least one evaluation should occur during the first half of the school year.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Annual evaluations are standard practice in most professional jobs.
- Evaluations are especially important for new teachers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 3: Goal C Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii requires new teachers to be formally evaluated once a year. The state's policy does not include any guidelines on when the evaluation should occur.

Hawaii allows tenured teachers who receive satisfactory ratings to be formally rated every five years.

Supporting Research

Hawaii DOE Human Resources Manual http://sp.k12.hi.us/pdf/sp5602.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should require that all new, probationary teachers be formally evaluated at least twice annually and that the first evaluation occur within the first half of their first school year. By doing so, the state will ensure that local districts more efficiently determine whether new teachers are demonstrating appropriate classroom skills. The point of requiring that one evaluation occur early in the year is to be able to immediately offer feedback and support to new teachers, especially if the observation indicates any unsatisfactory performance. That way, the teacher and school or district leadership can implement a plan for improvement, rather than potentially allow an ineffective new teacher to remain in the classroom without any evaluation until late in the year.

Hawaii should also require annual formal evaluations for all nonprobationary teachers regardless of their previous performance.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that tenured teachers are rated once in a five-year cycle and nontenured teachers are rated annually. The state added that it and the Teacher Union are looking at revising these rating periods.

Supporting Research Teacher Contract Article VIII

Do states require districts to evaluate all veteran teachers each year?

	Yes	No
Alabama		
Alaska ¹		
Arizona		
Arkansas		
California		
Colorado		
Connecticut		
Delaware		
District of Columbia		
Florida		
Georgia		
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Idaho		
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South Carolina		
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Vermont		
Virginia		
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West Virginia		
Wisconsin		
Wyoming		
, ,		
	15	36

🔶 Examples of Best Practice

Oklahoma not only requires that new teachers be evaluated twice a year, but it also articulates that the first evaluation must be completed by November 15. This allows new teacher performance to be assessed early in the year with an unsatisfactory performance addressed by an improvement plan. Oklahoma also requires that nonprobationary teachers are evaluated annually.

Figure 65

Do states require districts to evaluate all veteran teachers each year?

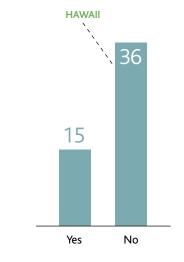


Figure 64

- ¹ Teachers in Alaska who exceed performance standards can waive annual evaluation; they are evaluated every two years.
- 2 Minnesota requires multiple evaluations per year for teachers who participate in the optional QComp program.
- 3 North Carolina allows districts to grant waivers to its annual evaluation requirement.
- 4 Texas's annual evaluation may be waived for teachers rated proficient on most recent evaluation.

H st ev du

Figure 66

How many times do states require districts to evaluate a new teacher during a school year?

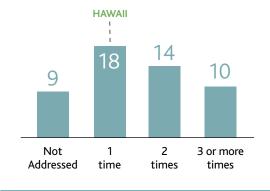
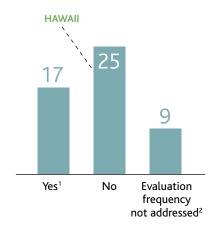


Figure 67

Do states require districts to evaluate new teachers early in the school year?



1 Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Washington, West Virginia

2 District of Columbia, Iowa, Maine, Mississippi, Montana, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont

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Mississippi				
Missouri ¹				
Montana				
Nebraska				
Nevada				
New Hampshire				
New Jersey				
New Mexico				
New York		-		
North Carolina ¹				
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Ohio				
Oklahoma				
Oregon Pennsylvania				
Rhode Island				
South Carolina				
South Dakota				
Tennessee ¹				
Texas				
Utah				
Vermont				
Virginia Washington ³				
Washington ³				
West Virginia ¹ Wisconsin ⁴				
Wyoming				
	9	18	14	10

1

Figure 68

- 1 State requires multiple observations followed by post-observation conferences.
- 2 The state's mentoring program requires multiple observations followed by formative feedback.
- 3 State requires two observations followed by post-observation conferences.

4 Only applies to first-year teachers

Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal D – Tenure

The state should require that tenure decisions be meaningful.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- A teacher should be eligible for tenure after a certain number of years of service, but tenure should not be granted automatically at that juncture.
- The state should articulate a process, such as a hearing, that local districts must administer in considering the evidence and deciding whether a teacher should receive tenure.
- 3. Evidence of effectiveness should be the preponderant criterion in tenure decisions.
- 4. The minimum years of service needed to achieve tenure should allow sufficient data to be accumulated on which to base tenure decisions; five years is the ideal minimum.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Tenure should be a significant and consequential milestone in a teacher's career.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 3: Goal D Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not require any process to ensure that tenure decisions are meaningful.

In 2008, Hawaii's legislature passed Rule 222, which deleted language that had required a two-year probationary period for new teachers. This cleared the way for the implementation of a collective bargaining agreement between the Hawaii State Teachers Association and the Board of Education stating that the current probationary period is just one year. There is no indication that any additional process evaluating cumulative evidence of teacher effectiveness is required for tenure. The awarding of tenure appears to be virtually automatic.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Revised Statute 302A-607 http://www.capitol.hawaii.gov/session2008/Bills/ GM910_.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The awarding of tenure is a milestone in every teacher's career and should be afforded the consideration it deserves, regardless of whether the state is bestowing a lifetime or limitedterm position. The state should consider extending the minimum probationary period for tenure to five years, which would allow for the accumulation of sufficient data on teacher effectiveness to support meaningful tenure decisions. Although it is appropriate for teachers to achieve tenure after a certain number of years, tenure should not automatically be granted at this juncture. To justify this leap in professional standing, most notably a tremendous advantage in due process, the state should identify a process, such as a hearing, where the cumulative evidence of teacher effectiveness would be considered for each teacher and a determination made of whether to award tenure. Teacher effectiveness in the classroom, rather than years of experience, should be the preponderant criterion in tenure decisions.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that tenure is not automatically awarded, and a teacher must have satisfactory ratings for the two semesters in order to be granted tenure.

LAST WORD

The state has not presented any evidence that an additional process evaluating cumulative evidence of teacher effectiveness is required for tenure.

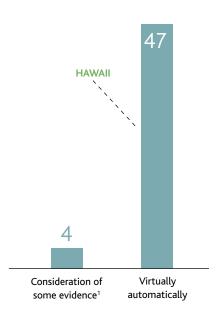
How long before a teacher earns tenure?

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Alaska									
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Examples of Best Practice

Unfortunately, NCTQ cannot highlight any state's policy in this area. All states need to improve how tenure is awarded, but four states have policies that are initial steps in the right direction. Iowa and New Mexico require the consideration of some evidence of teacher performance when making tenure decisions, although it is not the preponderant criterion. Minnesota requires local school boards to consult with peer review committees that evaluate probationary teachers, but there is no requirement that teacher effectiveness must be considered. New policy in North Carolina requires teachers to achieve a minimum "proficient" rating on all five of the state's professional teaching standards on their annual evaluations in order to be recommended for tenure. Regrettably, evidence of student learning is not the preponderant criterion in the evaluation.

Figure 71 How are tenure decisions made?



1 Iowa, New Mexico and North Carolina require some evidence of teacher performance, although evidence of student learning is not the preponderant criterion. Minnesota requires a peer review process, but does not specify that the review include classroom effectiveness.

Figure 70

1 The probationary period must not exceed two years.

2 New teachers with three consecutive satisfactory evaluations may qualify for tenure after one year.

Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal E – Licensure Advancement

The state should ensure that licensure advancement is based on evidence of effectiveness.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should base advancement from a probationary to a nonprobationary license on evidence of classroom effectiveness.
- 2. The state should not require teachers to fulfill general, nonspecific coursework requirements to advance from a probationary to a nonprobationary license.
- 3. The state should not require teachers to have an advanced degree as a condition of professional licensure.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The reason for probationary licensure should be to determine teacher effectiveness.
- Most state requirements for achieving permanent certification have not been shown to impact teacher effectiveness.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 72 How States are Faring on Licensure Advancement 1 Best Practice State New Mexico 0 States Meet Goal 0 States Nearly Meet Goal 14 States Partly Meet Goal Arkansas, California, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin 13 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Rhode Island 23 States Do Not Meet Goal Alabama, Alaska, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, HAWAII, Idaho, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nevada,

New York, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming

Area 3: Goal E Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not require that teachers demonstrate evidence of effectiveness for licensure renewal.

At present, Hawaii only offers one level of licensure. Rather than advance to another level of licensure, new teachers must renew their initial license. To do so, teachers create a professional growth plan during the first year of each licensure period. The plan should contain activities, ranging from taking college courses to traveling for educational purposes, that are to be implemented throughout years two, three and four of the licensure period. The plan also must address two of the performance standards, with one being "demonstrates knowledge of content." In the fifth and final year of the licensure period, teachers submit a reflection report that shows "how the professional growth activities impacted his/her teaching or students' learning" to the standards board for review.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Teacher Standards Board http://www.htsb.org/ html/details/licensing/types.html

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. Although the state is commended for not requiring general, nonspecific coursework or the completion of a master's degree for certification advancement, the state's criteria are not based on factors that measure or advance teacher effectiveness. The state should require evidence of effectiveness to be a factor in determining whether teachers advance to the next licensure level.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii noted that the Hawaii Teacher Standards Board is currently working on a tiered license.

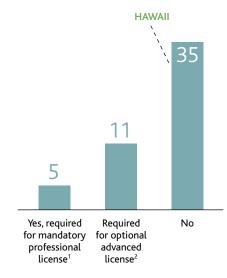
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Figure 73		her ler	Proonderant evidence of
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show evidence of effectivene	220	effe	vide
before conferring profession	al s	te de	ss ss
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Wyoming			
	35	15	1

Examples of Best Practice

In addition to three years' teaching experience and completing the mentoring requirement, New Mexico requires new teachers to submit a professional development dossier to advance from the probationary to the nonprobationary certificate. The dossier is divided into five strands, including evidence of teacher effectiveness and evidence of student learning, and teachers must meet or exceed the standards in all strands to advance.

Figure 74

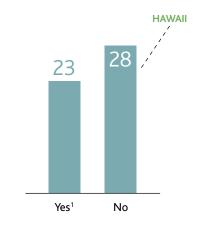
Do states require teachers to earn advanced degrees before conferring professional licensure?



¹ Connecticut, Kentucky, Maryland, New York, Oregon all require a master's degree or coursework equivalent to a master's degree.

2 Alabama, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia

Do states require teachers to take additional, nonspecific coursework before conferring professional licensure?



1 Alabama, Alaska, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Idaho, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Texas, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wyoming

Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal F – Equitable Distribution

The state should contribute to the equitable distribution of teacher talent among schools in its districts by means of good reporting.

Goal Components	
(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)	Figure 76 How States are Faring on Equitable Distribution
The state should make the following data publicly available:	1 Best Practice States
1. An index for each school that includes factors	• 0 States Meet Goal
associated with teacher quality, such as: teachers' average SAT or ACT scores; 	O States Nearly Meet Goal
 the percentage of teachers failing basic skills licensure test at least once; 	6 States Partly Meet Goal Connecticut, New Jersey, New York,
 the percentage of teachers on emergency credentials; 	North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina
 average selectivity of teachers' undergraduate colleges; and 	• 34 States Meet a Small Part of Goal
 the percentage of new teachers; 	Alabama, Alaska, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, District of Columbia,
2. The percentage of highly qualified teachers,	Florida, Georgia, HAWAII, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine,
disaggregated both by individual school and by teaching area;	Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska,
3. The annual teacher absenteeism rate reported	Nevada, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia,
for the previous three years, disaggregated by individual school;	Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin
4. The average teacher turnover rate for the previous	O 11 States Do Not Meet Goal Arizona, Idaho, Iowa, Michigan,
three years, disaggregated by individual school,	New Hampshire, North Dakota,
by district and by reasons that teachers leave.	Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Utah, Vermont, Wyoming
Rationale	
See appendix for detailed rationale.	
 Distribution data should show more than just teachers' years of experience and highly qualified status. 	
States need to report data at the level of the	

States need to report data at the level of the individual school.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 3: Goal F Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

Comprehensive reporting may be the state's most important role for ensuring the equitable distribution of teachers among schools. Hawaii reports little schoollevel data that can help support the equitable distribution of teacher talent.

Hawaii does not collect or publicly report most of the data recommended by NCTQ. The state does not provide a school-level teacher quality index that demonstrates the academic background of a school's teachers and the ratio of new to veteran teachers. Hawaii also does not report on teacher absenteeism or turnover rates.

Hawaii does report the percentage of highly qualified teachers. In doing so, the state identifies the schools' poverty quartile as low, mid-low, mid-high, or high. Hawaii also reports the average years of teacher experience by complex.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Highly Qualified Teacher Percentage by School http://arch.k12.hi.us/PDFs/nclb/2008/ Hawaii%20HQT%202007-08%20FINAL%20 Results%20by%20School.pdf

Hawaii Superintendent's Annual Report http://arch. k12.hi.us/PDFs/state/superintendent_report/2008/ 2008SuptRptFinal20090205.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. The state should expand its data collection and reporting efforts to include other areas that would shine a light on the distribution of teachers both across and within districts. Individual school report cards should include an index of teacher quality with such data as teachers' average SAT or ACT scores, the percentage of teachers failing basic skills licensure tests at least once, the percentage of teachers on emergency credentials, the selectivity of teachers' undergraduate colleges and the percentage of new teachers. School report cards should also include teacher absenteeism and turnover rates. These data can be used to address issues of staff quality and stability. Providing comparative data for schools with similar poverty and minority populations would yield an even more comprehensive picture of gaps in the equitable distribution of teachers.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii pointed out that it is currently working on developing a system that will enable the state to pull and aggregate longitudinal data.

Figure 77

Does **Hawaii** publicly report school-level data about teachers?

An index for each school that includes factors associated with teacher quality	NO
Percentage of teachers on emergency credentials ¹	NO
Percentage of new teachers ¹	NO
Percentage of highly qualified teachers	YES
Annual turnover rate	NO
Teacher absenteeism rate	NO

 I deally, percentage of new teachers and percentage of teachers on emergency credentials would be incorporated into a teacher quality index.

🔶 Examples of Best Practice

No state has an outstanding record when it comes to public reporting of teacher data that can help to ameliorate inequities in teacher quality. However, **Connecticut**, **New Jersey**, **New York**, **North Carolina**, **Rhode Island** and **South Carolina** report more school-level data than other states. Each of these states reports four of the five following factors at the school level: the percentage of teachers on emergency credentials, the percentage of new teachers, the percentage of highly qualified teachers, the annual absenteeism rate and the average teacher turnover rate.

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Figure 78	An index for each school	that		Percentage of highly.	paj	/ /	
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1 Ideally, percentage of new teachers and percentage of teachers on emergency credentials would be incorporated into a teacher quality index.

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal A – Induction

The state should require effective induction for all new teachers, with special emphasis on teachers in high-needs schools.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should require that new teachers receive a high-quality mentoring experience.
- 2. The state should ensure that new teachers receive mentoring of sufficient frequency and duration, especially in the first critical weeks of school.
- 3. Mentors should be carefully selected based on evidence of their own classroom effectiveness and subject-matter expertise. Mentors should be trained, and their performance as mentors should be evaluated.
- 4. Induction programs should include only strategies that can be successfully implemented even in a poorly managed school. Such strategies include intensive mentoring, seminars appropriate to grade level or subject area, a reduced teaching load and frequent release time to observe other teachers.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale. ►
- Too many new teachers are left to "sink or swim" when they begin teaching.
- Vague requirements simply to provide mentoring are insufficient.
- New teachers in high-needs schools particularly need quality mentoring.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure	e 79	
-		es are Faring on Induction
*	1	Best Practice State South Carolina
•	9	States Meet Goal Alabama, Arkansas, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, New Jersey, North Carolina, West Virginia
•	15	States Nearly Meet Goal California, Colorado, Delaware, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Utah, Virginia
•	10	States Partly Meet Goal Alaska, Arizona, Illinois, Maryland, New Mexico, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Washington, Wisconsin
•	7	States Meet a Small Part of Goal Florida, HAWAII, Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Texas
0	9	States Do Not Meet Goal Connecticut, District of Columbia, Georgia, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, Oregon, Vermont, Wyoming

Area 4: Goal A Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not ensure that all new teachers receive mentoring or any other induction support.

State legislation requires all complexes to have a new teacher orientation and an induction program based on the Hawaii Statewide Induction Program Foundation Elements and the Hawaii Teacher Induction Standards. However, participation in the program is voluntary and is limited to non-highly qualified teachers. Unfortunately, this program, which was authorized the legislation in 2005, has yet to receive funding.

Supporting Research

Hawaii House Bill 844 (2005) http://www.capitol. hawaii.gov/session2005/bills/hb844_sd2_.htm

Testimony Hawaii Senate Bill 738 (2009) http://www. capitol.hawaii.gov/session2010/testimony/ SB738_TESTIMONY_EDH_02-06-09.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. The state should require that new teachers are provided with a high-quality mentoring experience. While the state is commended for encouraging new non-highly qualified teachers to receive mentoring, Hawaii should make this a requirement and ensure that new teachers are provided with a high-quality mentoring experience, especially in the first critical weeks of school. To ensure that provided support is meaningful, the state should require induction strategies that can be implemented successfully, even in poorly managed schools, such as intensive mentoring, seminars appropriate to grade level or subject area, a reduced teaching load and/or frequent release time to observe other teachers.

The state should also set a timeline in which mentors are assigned at least to all new teachers in high-needs schools and ideally to all new teachers throughout the state, soon after the commencing of teaching, to offer support during those critical first weeks of school. Mentors should be required to be trained in a content area or grade level similar to that of the new teachers, and the state should mandate a method for performance evaluation.

Hawaii is also encouraged to provide funding for its induction program.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

Figure 80

Does **Hawaii** policy articulate the elements of an effective induction program?

Mentoring for all new teachers	NO
Mentoring of sufficient frequency and duration	NO
Mentoring provided at beginning of school year	NO
Careful selection of mentors	NO
Mentors must be trained	NO
Mentors must be evaluated	NO
Mentor is compensated	NO
Use of a variety of effective induction strategies	NO

Examples of Best Practice

South Carolina requires that all new teachers, prior to the start of the school year, be assigned mentors for at least one year. Districts carefully select mentors, who must undergo additional training, based on experience and similar certifications and grade levels. Adequate release time is mandated by the state so that mentors and new teachers may observe each other in the classroom, collaborate on effective teaching techniques and develop professional growth plans. Mentor evaluations are mandatory and stipends are recommended.

Figure 81



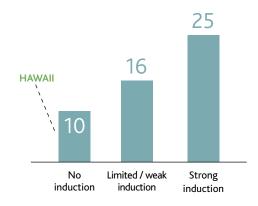


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articulate the element	s of	indu	.5
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Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal B – Pay Scales

The state should give local districts full authority for pay scales, eliminating potential barriers such as state salary schedules and other regulations that control how districts pay teachers.

Figure 83 How States are Faring in Pay Scales **Best Practice States** 0 States Meet Goal 1 State Nearly Meets Goal Minnesota **30** States Partly Meet Goal Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia. Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming 3 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Illinois, Rhode Island, Texas 17 States Do Not Meet Goal Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia, HAWAII, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Washington, West Virginia

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. While the state may articulate teachers' starting salaries, it should not require districts to adhere to a state-dictated salary schedule that sets minimum pay for every level.
- The state should discourage districts from tying additional compensation to advanced degrees. The state should eliminate salary schedules that establish higher minimum salaries or other requirements to pay more to teachers with advanced degrees.
- 3. The state should discourage salary schedules that imply that teachers with the most experience are the most effective. The state should eliminate salary schedules that require that the highest steps on the pay scale be determined solely by seniority.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Compensation reform can be accomplished within the context of local control.
- There is an important difference between a state's setting the minimum teacher salary and setting a salary schedule.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 4: Goal B Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

To determine teachers' salaries, Hawaii provides a Minimum Salary Schedule. Because the salary schedule is based on years of experience and earned advanced degrees, the state effectively mandates how teachers are paid. The inclusion of advanced degrees in the state schedule is particularly problematic as this sends a clear message to teachers that attaining an advanced degree is desirable and should be rewarded, although exhaustive research has shown unequivocally that advanced degrees do not impact teacher effectiveness.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Salary Schedule http://doe.k12.hi.us/personnel/ teachersalaryschedule.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. While the state may articulate the starting salary that a teacher should be paid, it should not require a state-dictated salary schedule. It should also refrain from tying compensation to advanced degrees and eliminate salary schedules that establish higher minimum salaries for teachers with such degrees. The state should also refrain from salary schedules that assume teachers with the most experience are the most effective and ensure that the highest steps on the pay scale are not determined solely by seniority.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.

What role does the state play in deciding teacher pay rates?

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New Hampshire			
New Jersey			
New Mexico			
New York			
North Carolina			
North Dakota			
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Oregon			
Pennsylvania			
Rhode Island ²			
South Carolina			
South Dakota			
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Utah			
Vermont			
Virginia			
Washington			
West Virginia			
Wisconsin			
Wyoming			
	17	9	25
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n salary salary hority

Examples of Best Practice

Unfortunately, no state meets this goal. Twenty-five states do not require districts to adhere to salary schedules or minimum salary requirements, giving them full control of teacher pay rate. Although no state has articulated a policy that discourages tying compensation to advanced degrees or basing salary solely on years of experience, **Minnesota's** Quality Compensation for Teachers program is on the right track. Q Comp requirements prevent participating districts' local salary schedules from tying compensation primarily to factors that do not correlate with teacher effectiveness, while still allowing districts the flexibility to establish their own pay system and policies.

Figure 85

What role does the state play in deciding teacher pay rates?

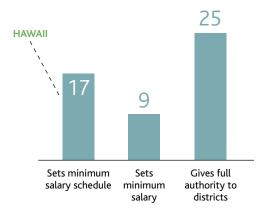


Figure 84

 Colorado gives districts option of a salary schedule, a performance pay policy or a combination of both.

2 Rhode Island requires that local district salary schedules are based on years of service, experience and training.

Do states require districts to pay more to teachers who have earned advanced degrees?

	Yes	No
Alabama		
Alaska		
Arizona		
Arkansas		
California		
Colorado ¹		
Connecticut		
Delaware		
District of Columbia		
Florida		
Georgia		
HAWAII		
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Utah		
Vermont		
Virginia		
Washington		
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Wisconsin		
What a main of		
Wyoming		

Figure 86

- 1 If Colorado districts choose to have salary schedules, one variable must be teacher's education.
- 2 Idaho refers to "education index" in district-determined schedules.
- 3 Rhode Island requires local district salary schedules to include teacher "training."

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal C – Retention Pay

The state should support retention pay, such as significant boosts in salary after tenure is awarded, for effective teachers.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should encourage districts to provide a significant pay increase to teachers awarded tenure, provided tenure is based on sufficient data to determine effectiveness.
- The state should not support longevity bonuses, which are awarded at the end of teachers' careers and do not provide effective retention strategies.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Connecting additional compensation to the awarding of tenure would add to its significance and improve teacher retention.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Examples of Best Practice

Unfortunately, NCTQ cannot highlight any state's policy in this area.

Area 4: Goal C Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not support retention pay for effective teachers, such as significant boosts in salary after tenure is awarded. The state does not have any policies that encourage retention pay. Hawaii requires a salary schedule (see Goal 4-B) that shows minimal increases in pay throughout a teacher's first five years in the classroom, not indicating any sort of significant financial incentives around the time of tenure award.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Salary Schedule http://doe.k12.hi.us/personnel/ teachersalaryschedule.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should provide a significant pay increase to teachers awarded tenure, provided tenure is based on sufficient data to determine effectiveness. Offering financial incentives for classroom performance is a valuable tool for keeping effective new teachers in the school system, rather than more commonly employed incentives such as longevity bonuses, which are awarded toward the end of teachers' careers and are not connected to teachers' effectiveness.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii pointed out that the department does have a retention bonus for staff in hard-to-fill schools in specific geographic areas as mutually agreed upon by the Board of Education and the Hawaii State Teachers Association in collective bargaining.

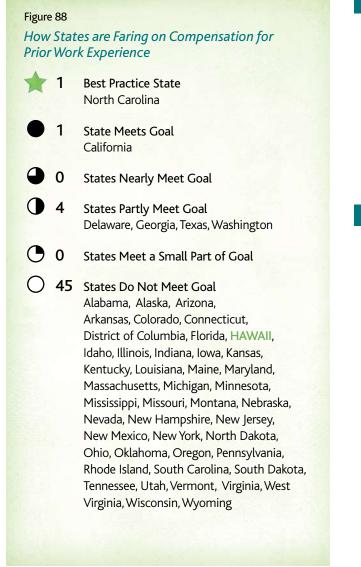
LAST WORD

Although Hawaii is commended for financially rewarding teachers who work in high-needs schools (see Goal 4-E), this type of compensation does not qualify as retention pay, as defined by this goal, because teachers may achieve this certification at any point in their careers; it is not an incentive directly associated with achieving tenure.

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal D – Compensation for Prior Work Experience

The state should encourage districts to provide compensation for related prior subject-area work experience.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

 The state should encourage districts to compensate new teachers with relevant prior work experience through mechanisms such as starting these teachers at an advanced step on the pay scale. Further, the state should not have regulatory language that would block such strategies.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Districts should be allowed to pay new teachers with relevant work experience more than other new teachers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 4: Goal D Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not provide compensation for related prior subject-area work experience. However, the state does not seem to have regulatory language blocking such strategies.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Teacher Salary Schedule http://www.nctq.org/docs/ teachersalaryschedule_2200.pdf.

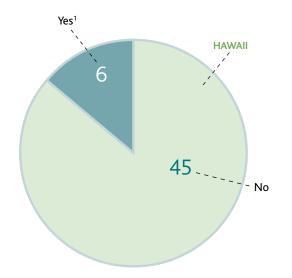
LAST WORD

While it is important that the salary schedule compensates for prior teaching experience, this goal specifically addresses the need to compensate teachers for prior non-teaching experience.

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should compensate new teachers with relevant prior work experience through mechanisms such as starting these new teachers at an advanced step on the pay scale.

Do states direct districts to compensate teachers for related prior work experience?





North Carolina compensates new teachers with relevant prior-work experience by awarding them one year of experience credit for every year of full-time work, after earning a bachelor's degree, that is related to their area of licensure and work assignment. One year of credit is awarded for every two years of work experience completed prior to earning a bachelor's degree.

1 California, Delaware, Georgia, North Carolina, Texas and Washington

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal E – Differential Pay

The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in shortage and high-needs areas.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in shortage subject areas.
- 2. The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in high-needs schools.
- 3. The state should not have regulatory language that would block differential pay

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States should take the lead in addressing chronic shortages and needs.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

tes are Faring on Differential Pay
Best Practice State Georgia
States Meet Goal Arkansas, California, Florida, HAWAII, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Nevada, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Wyoming
States Nearly Meet Goal Maryland, Pennsylvania, Washington
States Partly Meet Goal Colorado, Iowa, North Carolina, Utah, Wisconsin
States Meet a Small Part of Goal Connecticut, Illinois, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont
States Do Not Meet Goal Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Delaware, District of Columbia, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, Rhode Island, West Virginia

Area 4: Goal E Hawaii Analysis

State Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii supports differential pay by which a teacher can earn additional compensation by teaching certain subjects. Those teaching special education are eligible to receive a stipend of \$10,000, distributed over three years. This stipend is available only to certified special education teachers who are currently in general education classrooms and agree to serve three years teaching special education.

Hawaii also supports differential pay for those teaching in high-needs schools in a specified geographic region. Teachers are eligible to receive up to \$3,000 in annual incentive pay.

In addition, teachers who are National Board Certified are eligible to receive a \$5,000 annual supplement plus an additional \$5,000 yearly bonus if they teach in a hard-to-fill school.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Department of Education Special Education Incentive Bonus http://doe.k12.hi.us/personnel/ teacherreturntospedbonus.htm

Hawaii Department of Education Retention Bonus for Teachers in Hard-to-Fill Areas http://doe.k12.hi.us/ personnel/teacherretentionbonus_hardtofillareas.htm

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Hawaii Profile http://www.nbpts.org/resources/ state_local_information/HI

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets this goal. The state is commended for supporting differential pay initiatives to link compensation more closely with district needs and to achieve a more equitable distribution of teachers.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.

***** Examples of Best Practice

Georgia supports differential pay by which teachers can earn additional compensation by teaching certain subjects. The state is especially commended for its new compensation strategy for math and science teachers, which moves teachers along the salary schedule rather than just providing a bonus or stipend. The state also supports differential pay initiatives to link compensation more closely with district needs and to achieve a more equitable distribution of teachers. Georgia's efforts to provide incentives for National Board Certification teachers to work in high-needs schools are also noteworthy.

Figure 91

- 1 Connecticut offers mortgage assistance and incentives to retired teachers.
- 2 Maryland offers tuition reimbursement for retraining in the areas of mathematics and science, if the teacher agrees to teach in the public school system for at least two years following certification. It also offers a stipend to alternative route candidates who agree to teach math, science or special education in a public school for at least three years.
- 3 South Dakota offers scholarships and signing bonuses.

Figure 91	н	IGH-NEED	c / ci	HORTAGE	/
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Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal F – Performance Pay

The state should support performance pay, but in a manner that recognizes its infancy, appropriate uses and limitations.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. The state should support performance pay efforts, rewarding teachers for their effective-ness in the classroom.
- The state should allow districts flexibility to define the criteria for performance pay; however, the state should ensure that districts' criteria are connected to evidence of student achievement.
- 3. Any performance pay plan should allow for the participation of all teachers, not just those with students who take standardized tests.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Performance pay is an important retention strategy.
- States should set guidelines for districts to ensure that plans are fair and sound.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 4: Goal F Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not support performance pay. The state does not have any policies in place that offer teachers additional compensation based on evidence of effectiveness.

Hawaii's 2007 Equity Plan includes a Teacher and Principal Advancement Program, described as a "five year pilot program to design, develop, implement, track and evaluate a performance based pay system concurrently for principals and teachers." The data from this pilot program is intended to "justify the need for the Hawaii State Legislature to create a permanent funding mechanism to cover the costs of converting the pilot project into a statewide system." Unfortunately, the pilot program was not funded.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Equity Plan http://doe.k12.hi.us/ teacherquality/Hawaii_HQT_Equity_Plan_FINAL_ APPROVED_062607.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should consider awarding teachers for their effectiveness by supporting a performance pay plan, which can be implemented at either the state or local level. However, to ensure its success, the state is encouraged to proceed with caution when implementing such a plan, as criteria must be developed with careful consideration of the available data and subsequent issues of fairness. The state may want to consider piloting a performance pay plan in a select number of schools. This would provide an opportunity to discover and correct any limitation in available data or methodology before implementing the plan on a wider scale. Of critical importance is that criteria thoughtfully measure classroom performance and connect student achievement to teacher effectiveness.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii had no comment on this goal.

Figure 93			/	HARACTERISTICS
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🛖 Examples of Best Practice

Tennessee requires differentiated pay plans, which may include performance pay. If districts choose to include a performance pay component, it must be based on student achievement gains and be criterionbased so that all teachers meeting the standard, not just those with students who take standardized tests, are eligible for the reward. Although the state does not indicate specific incentive amounts, it requires that the award be significant enough to make a difference to teachers.

Figure 93 1 Alaska, Ohio and South Dakota fund pilot programs.

2 California only offers incentives to teachers in underachieving schools.

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal G – Pension Sustainability

The state should ensure that excessive resources are not committed to funding teachers' pension systems.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should ensure that its pension system is financially sustainable. The system should not have excessive unfunded liabilities or an inappropriately long amortization period.
- 2. Mandatory employee and employer contribution rates should not be unreasonably high. Excessively high employee contribution rates reduce teachers' paychecks, while excessive employer contributions commit district resources that could otherwise be spent on salaries or incentives.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Many states' pension systems are based on promises they cannot afford to keep.
- Pension plans disadvantage teachers early in their careers by overcommitting employer resources to retirement benefits.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 94

How States are Faring on Pension Sustainability

3 **Best Practice States** Delaware, New York, Wisconsin 4 States Meet Goal District of Columbia, North Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee 11 States Nearly Meet Goal Florida, Idaho, Maryland, Nebraska, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wyoming **16** States Partly Meet Goal Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, Virginia 15 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Colorado, Connecticut, HAWAII, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Mississippi, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, West Virginia 2 States Do Not Meet Goal Indiana, New Mexico

Area 4: Goal G Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

As of June 30, 2007, the most recent date for which an actuarial valuation is available, Hawaii's pension system for teachers is 67.5 percent funded and has a 25.5-year amortization period. This means that it would take the state more than 25 years to pay off its unfunded liabilities. While its amortization period meets regulatory requirements, Hawaii's funding level is too low, especially considering that it was below the conventionally recommended minimum funding level of 80 percent before the recent financial market downturn. The state's system is not financially sustainable according to actuarial benchmarks.

In addition, Hawaii commits excessive resources toward its teachers' retirement system. The current employer contribution rate of 15 percent is too high, even before the additional contributions that districts must make to Social Security. While this rate allows the state to pay off liabilities within the required 30-year period, it does so at great cost, precluding Hawaii from spending those funds on other, more immediate means to retain talented teachers. The mandatory employee contribution rate to the defined benefit plan of 6 percent is reasonable.

Supporting Research

http://www4.hawaii.gov/ers/Financials.htm www.publicfundsurvey.org

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. The state needs to ensure that its pension system is financially sustainable. The state would be better off if its system was over 95 percent funded to allow more protection during financial downturns. However, Hawaii should consider ways to improve its funding level without raising the state's or teachers' contributions. In fact, the state should work to decrease employer contributions. Committing excessive resources to pension benefits can negatively affect teacher recruitment and retention.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii asserted that the analysis is "subjective" and referenced the Employee Retirement System (ERS) Comprehensive Annual Financial Report "for an ERS perspective."

Pension glossary

Accrued Liability: The value of a pension plan's promised benefits calculated by an actuary (actuarial valuation), taking into account a set of investment and benefit assumptions to a certain date.

Actuarial Valuation: In a pension plan, this is the total amount needed to meet promised benefits. A set of mathematical procedures is used to calculate the value of benefits to be paid, the funds available and the annual contribution required.

Amortization Period: The gradual elimination of a liability, such as a mortgage, in regular payments over a specified period of time.

Benefit Formula: Formula used to calculate the amount teachers will receive each month after retirement. The most common formula used is (years of service x final average salary x benefit multiplier). This amount is divided by 12 to calculate monthly benefits.

Benefit Multiplier: Multiplier used in the benefit formula. It, along with years of service, determines the total percentage of final average salary that a teacher will receive in retirement benefits. In some plans, the multiplier is not constant, but changes depending upon retirement age and/or years of service.

Defined Benefit Plan: Pension plan that promises to pay a specified amount to each person who retires after a set number of years of service. Employees contribute to them in some cases; in others, all contributions are made by the employer.

Defined Contribution Plan: Pension plan in which the level of contributions is fixed at a certain level, while benefits vary depending on the return from the investments. Employees make contributions into a tax-deferred account, and employers may or may not make contributions. Defined contribution pension plans, unlike defined benefit pension plans, give the employee options of where to invest the account, usually among stock, bond and money market accounts.

Lump-sum Withdrawal: Large payment of money received at one time instead of in periodic payments. Teachers leaving a pension plan may receive a lump-sum distribution of the value of their pension.

Normal Cost: The amount necessary to fund retirement benefits for one plan year for an individual or a whole pension plan.

Pension Wealth: The net present value of a teacher's expected lifetime retirement benefits.

Purchasing Time: A teacher may make additional contributions to a pension system to increase service credit. Time may be purchased for a number of reasons, such as professional development leave, previous out-of-state teaching experience, medical leaves of absence or military service.

Service Credit/Years of Service: Accumulated period of time, in years or partial years, for which a teacher earned compensation subject to contributions.

Supplemental Retirement Plan: An optional plan to which teachers may voluntarily make tax-deferred contributions in addition to their mandatory pension plans. Employees are usually able to choose their rate of contribution up to a maximum set by the IRS; some employers also make contributions. These plans are generally in the form of 457 and 403(b) programs.

Vesting: Right an employee gradually acquires by length of service to receive employer-contributed benefits, such as payments from a pension fund.

Sources: Barron's Dictionary of Finance and Investment Terms, Seventh Edition; California State Teachers' Retirement System http://www.calstrs.com/Members/Defined%20Benefit%20Program/glossary.aspx; Economic Research Institute, http://www.eridlc.com/resources/index.cfm?fuseaction=resource.glossary

Are state pension systems financially sustainable?



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🔶 Examples of Best Practice

Delaware, New York and **Wisconsin** provide financially sustainable pension systems without committing excessive resources. The systems in these states are fully funded, without requiring excessive contributions from teachers or school districts.

Figure 97 Are state pension systems financially sustainable?

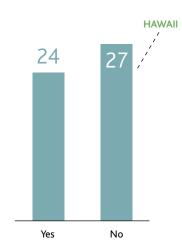


Figure 96

¹ According to the most recent valuations, Ohio and Wyoming are 79 percent funded.

How well funded are state pension systems?

Figure 98 *Real Rate of Return*

The pension system funding levels presented in Goal 4-G are based on each state's individual actuarial valuation, which use a series of varying assumptions. One of these assumptions concerns rate of return, which greatly affects a system's funding level. If investment returns fall short of assumptions, the fund will have a deficit; if returns are greater than expected, the fund will have a surplus. Higher assumed rates involve more risk, while rates closer to inflation (typically in the 3-5 percent range) are safer.

Most state pension funds assume a rate between 7.5 percent and 8.25 percent. A state using a 7.5 percent rate will report a lower funding level that if it had used 8.25 percent, even though its liabilities remain the same. Many states report that they do meet or exceed an eight percent rate of return over the life of the plan.

However, some economists argue that states' assumed rates of return are too high, and should instead be closer to four percent. They caution that the risk associated with states' higher rates is borne by taxpayers, with the result that tax rates rise to fund pension deficits. A rate closer to four percent would make the vast majority of the nation's pension systems less than 50 percent funded. In light of the current market situation, the debate over the rate of return is particularly timely. With no current consensus by experts or policymakers, NCTQ used states' self-reported numbers rather than recalculate all funding levels based on a standard rate of return. Considering how many states' systems NCTQ found in questionable financial health without using the lower rates some economists prefer, it is clear this is an issue that demands policymakers' attention.

state pension systems?	`			
	Below 60%		/	
	160	×62/ 09	80.94%	^{95,100%}
	se/o	20'	6.0%	95- ₁
Alabama				
Alaska				
Arizona				
Arkansas				
California				
Colorado				
Connecticut				
Delaware				
District of Columbia				
Florida				
Georgia				
HAWAII				
Idaho				
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Louisiana				
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Minnesota				
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Missouri				
Montana				
Nebraska				
Nevada				
New Hampshire				
New Jersey				
New Mexico				
New York				
North Carolina				
North Dakota				
Ohio				
Oklahoma				
Oregon				
Pennsylvania				
Rhode Island				
South Carolina				
South Dakota				
Tennessee Texas				
Utah				
Vermont				
Virginia				
Washington				
West Virginia				
Wisconsin				
Wyoming				
	5	17	18	11

Figure 100

What is a reasonable rate for pension contributions?

- 4-7 percent each for teachers and districts in states participating in Social Security
- 10-13 percent each for teachers and districts in states not participating in Social Security

Analysts generally agree that workers in their 20's with no previous retirement savings should save, in addition to Social Security contributions, about 10-15 percent of their gross income in order to be able to live during retirement on 80 percent of the salary they were earning when they retired. While the recommended savings rate varies with age and existing retirement savings, NCTQ has used this 10-15 percent benchmark as a reasonable rate for its analyses. To achieve a total savings of 10-15 percent, teacher and employer contributions should each be in the range of 4-7 percent. In states where teachers do not participate in Social Security, the total recommended retirement savings (teacher plus employer contributions) is about 12 percent higher, to compensate for the fact that these teachers will not have Social Security income when they retire. In order to achieve the appropriate level of total savings, teacher and employer contributions in these states should each be in the range of 10-13 percent.

Sources:

http://www.schwab.com/public/schwab/planning/retirement/saving/strategies?cmsid=P-990053&lvl1=planning&lvl2=retirement&

https://personal.vanguard.com/us/planningeducation/retirement/PEdRetInvHowMuchToSaveContent. jsp#early

Figure 101

1 The employer contribution rate includes the contributions of both school districts and state governments, where appropriate.

- 2 Some school districts in Georgia do not contribute to Social Security.
- 3 The employer contribution to the defined benefit plan is 15 percent for employees hired prior to July 1, 2005.

What are the current employer ¹ contribution rates to
state pension systems?

Employer contribution rate						
Social Security (+6.2%)	0%	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%
	Î	Î	1070		1	1
Alabama						
Alaska						
Arizona						
Arkansas						
California						
Colorado				-		
Connecticut						
Delaware		_				
District of Columbia						
Florida				_		
Georgia ²						
HAWAII						
Idaho						
Illinois						
Indiana						
lowa				5.0		
Kansas						
Kentucky						
Louisiana						
Maine						
Maryland						
Massachusetts						
Michigan						
Minnesota						
Mississippi						
Missouri						
Montana						
Nebraska						
Nevada						
New Hampshire						
New Jersey						
New Mexico						
New York						
North Carolina						
North Dakota						
Ohio						
Oklahoma						
Oregon						
Pennsylvania						
Rhode Island						
South Carolina						
South Dakota						
Tennessee				I		
Texas						
Utah						
Vermont						
Virginia						
Washington						
West Virginia ³						
Wisconsin						
Wyoming						

Do states require excessive contributions to their pension systems?

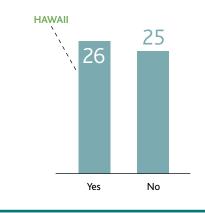


Figure 103

How much do state pension systems require teachers to contribute?

Employee contribution rate						
Social Security (+6.2%)	0%	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%
Alabama				1	1	
Alaska						
Arizona						
Arkansas						
California						
Colorado						
Connecticut			-			
Delaware ¹						
District of Columbia						
Florida						
Georgia						
HAWAII						
Idaho						
Illinois						
Indiana						
lowa						
Kansas						
Kentucky						
Louisiana						
Maine						
Maryland						
Massachusetts						
Michigan ²				1		
Minnesota						
Mississippi						
Missouri				1.1		
Montana						
Nebraska						
Nevada						
New Hampshire						
New Jersey						
New Mexico						
New York ³						
North Carolina						
North Dakota						
Ohio						
Oklahoma						
Oregon				- S.		
Pennsylvania						
Rhode Island			_			
South Carolina						
South Dakota						
Tennessee						
Texas						
Utah						
Vermont						
Virginia						
Washington ⁴						
West Virginia						
Wisconsin						
Wyoming						

- Figure 103 1 There is no employee contribution for income equal to and below \$6,000.
- 2 The rate is 3.4 percent of pay up to \$15,000.
- 3 The rate is 3 percent until 10 years of service, after which there is no employee contribution.
- 4 The rate is 4.26 percent for the defined benefit plan. The rate varies for the defined contribution plan with a minimum of 5 percent.

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal H – Pension Flexibility

The state should ensure that pension systems are portable, flexible and fair to all teachers.

Figure 104 How States are Faring on Pension Flexibility **Best Practice States** 2 States Meet Goal Alaska, South Dakota 4 States Nearly Meet Goal California, Ohio, South Carolina, Virginia 19 States Partly Meet Goal Alabama, Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, Oregon, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, Wyoming 14 States Meet a Small Part of Goal Connecticut, Delaware, HAWAII, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, New York, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Tennessee 12 States Do Not Meet Goal Arkansas, District of Columbia, Georgia, Massachusetts, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Texas, West Virginia

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- Participants in the state's pension system should have the option of a fully portable pension system as their primary pension plan. States may provide this through a defined contribution plan or a defined benefit plan that is formatted similar to a cash balance plan.
- 2. Participants in the state's pension system should be vested no later than the third year of employment.
- 3. Defined benefit plans should offer the option of a lump-sum rollover to a personal retirement account upon employment termination. This option at minimum should include employee contributions and accrued interest at a fair interest rate. In addition, withdrawal options from either defined benefit or defined contribution plans should include funds contributed by the employer.
- 4. Defined benefit plans should allow participants to purchase time for unlimited previous teaching experience at the time of employment. Teachers should also be allowed to purchase time for all official leaves of absence, such as maternity and paternity leave.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Anachronistic features of teacher pension plans disadvantage teachers early in their careers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 4: Goal H Hawaii Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not offer a fully portable pension plan, such as a defined contribution plan, as an option for a teacher's mandatory pension plan. The only mandatory plan available to a teacher is a defined benefit plan. However, teachers in Hawaii also participate in Social Security, so they must contribute to the state's defined benefit plan in addition to their Social Security contributions. Although retirement savings in addition to Social Security are good and necessary for most individuals, the state's policy results in mandated contributions to two inflexible plans, rather than permitting teachers options for their state-provided savings plans.

Vesting is a key component of defined benefit plans because it guarantees a teacher's eligibility to receive lifetime monthly benefit payments and be fully entitled to all other additional benefits. When vested teachers stop working in a particular system, they may leave their funds in the system and later receive benefits when they reach the defined retirement age, or they may withdraw some or all of the funds according to the plan's guidelines. Nonvested teachers may only withdraw funds; they may not receive retirement benefits. Hawaii's defined benefit plan does not vest until year five.

Nonvested teachers who leave Hawaii may only withdraw their account balance, which contains their contributions plus interest, meaning that they accrue no benefits beyond what they might have earned had they simply put their contributions in basic savings accounts. Furthermore, teachers who remain in the field of education but enter another pension plan (such as in another state) will find it difficult to purchase the time equivalent to their prior employment in the new system because they are not entitled to any employer contribution.

Vested teachers who do not want to receive monthly payments at retirement age are allowed to withdraw a sum of money equal to 150 percent of their employee contributions including interest. This, in effect, allows teachers to withdraw a 3 percent employer contribution, or a 50 percent match of their mandatory 6 percent employee contribution. This is a fair contribution considering Hawaii is also contributing to teachers' Social Security accounts.

The ability to purchase time is important because defined benefit plans' retirement eligibility and benefit payments are often tied to the number of years a teacher has worked. Hawaii's plan does not allow teachers to purchase time for previous work experience or official leaves of absence. Not only is this a severe disadvantage to teachers who move to Hawaii with teaching experience, but also it is a tremendous disadvantage to any teacher who needs to take a leave for paternity or maternity care (common for teachers at the beginning of their careers), or for other personal reasons.

Supporting Research www4.hawaii.gov/ers

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets only a small part of this goal. The state should at least offer teachers the option of a fully portable pension plan, such as a defined contribution plan, especially considering that teachers also participate in Social Security. The portability of such plans is attractive to an increasingly mobile teacher workforce. If Hawaii maintains its defined benefit option, it should also consider allowing vesting after year three instead of year five.

Because purchasing time can be structured as generally cost neutral to the fund, teachers should be allowed to transfer unlimited time from previous teaching experience, and this purchase should be allowed on the first day of employment in the new school system. The state's plan should also allow teachers to purchase time for approved leaves of absence such as parental leaves, and payment should be allowed at the time of leave without requiring interest.

Hawaii is commended for allowing vested teachers to withdraw sums of money equal to 150 percent of their employee contributions plus interest, thus earning a 3 percent employer match.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii noted that vesting and refund formulas differ by plan.

LAST WORD

NCTQ's analysis is based on the plan currently offered to newly hired teachers.

Figure 105		Defined benefit plan with supported benefit plan with	tion	Choice of defined benefit	5 /
What type of pensio	u ffer plan for the second sec	nit.	ha:	hefit	lan l
systems do states of	ffor 🚽	Plan Con	. /	d be	ution,
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Leachers?	ben	ed be	lan	ofd	D CO
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Alaska					
Arizona					
Arkansas					
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Colorado					
Connecticut					
Delaware					
District of Columbia					
Florida					
Georgia					
HAWAII					
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Illinois					
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lowa					
Kansas					
Kentucky					
Louisiana					
Maine					
Maryland					
Massachusetts	-				
Michigan	-				
Minnesota					
Mississippi Missouri					
Montana					
Nebraska					
Nevada					
New Hampshire					
New Jersey					
New Mexico					
New York					
North Carolina					
North Dakota					
Ohio				3	
Oklahoma					
Oregon			2		
Pennsylvania					
Rhode Island					
South Carolina				2	
South Dakota					
Tennessee					
Texas					
Utah					
Vermont					
Virginia					
Washington			4		
West Virginia					
Wisconsin					
Wyoming					
	30	13	4	3	1
				5	1

1 A hybrid plan has components of both a defined benefit plan and a defined contribution plan.

2 Supplemental defined contribution plan also offered.

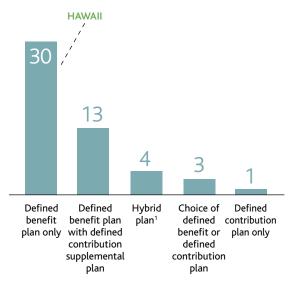
3 Ohio also offers the option of a hybrid plan.

4 Washington offers a choice between a defined benefit or hybrid plan.



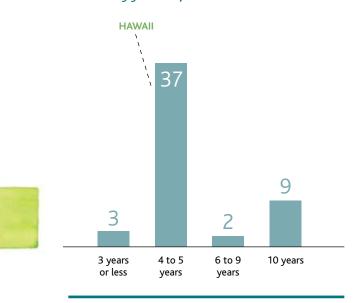
Alaska provides a fair and flexible defined contribution pension plan for all teachers. This plan is also highly portable, as teachers are entitled to 100 percent of employer contributions after five years of service. South Dakota's defined benefit plan has some creative provisions, which makes it more like a defined contribution plan. Most notably, teachers are able to withdraw 100 percent of their employer contributions after three years of service. In addition, Florida, Ohio and South Carolina are noteworthy for offering teachers a choice between a defined benefit plan and a defined contribution plan.

Figure 106 What type of pension systems do states offer teachers?



1 A hybrid plan has components of both a defined benefit plan and a defined contribution plan

Figure 107 How many years before teachers vest?



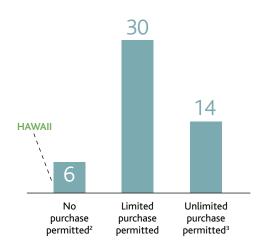
- ¹ California offers a hybrid plan in which teachers vest immediately in the defined contribution component and vest in the defined benefit component after five years.
- 2 Florida's defined benefit plan does not vest until year six; teachers vest in the state's defined contribution plan after one year.
- 3 Ohio's defined benefit plan does not vest until year five; teachers vest in the state's defined contribution plan after one year.
- 4 Oregon offers a hybrid plan in which teachers vest immediately in the defined contribution component and vest in the defined benefit component after five years.
- 5 South Carolina's defined benefit plan does not vest until year five; teachers vest immediately in the state's defined contribution plan.
- 6 Based on Washington's Plan 2. The state also offers a hybrid plan in which teachers vest immediately in the defined contribution component and vest in the defined benefit component after 10 years.

Figure 108				
The second s	oro			
How many years bef teachers vest?	ore			
teachers vest?		s /	1	1
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	(ears	505	روم	lo years
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Alaska Arizona				
Arkansas				
California ¹				
Colorado				
Connecticut				
Delaware				
District of Columbia				
Florida ²				
Georgia HAWAII				
Idaho				
Illinois				
Indiana				
lowa				
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Louisiana				
Maine				
Maryland				
Massachusetts Michigan				
Minnesota				
Mississippi				
Missouri				
Montana				
Nebraska				
Nevada				
New Hampshire				
New Jersey				
New Mexico New York				
North Carolina				
North Dakota				
Ohio ³				
Oklahoma				
Oregon ⁴				
Pennsylvania				
Rhode Island				
South Carolina⁵ South Dakota				
Tennessee				
Texas				
Utah				
Vermont				
Virginia				
Washington ⁶				
West Virginia				
Wisconsin				
Wyoming				
	3	37	2	9

Figure 109		/	1	1	1	
		/	tion	. /.	2 22 2	*
What funds do states per	mit s	. /	tribu	ution	ploy tere	tere
teachers to withdraw fro	m ¹		trih.	Intrij	us in the in	ų sn
their defined benefit pla	ns if చ్ర్	om	LCO LCO	5 20 20		ĩ
they leave after five year	Less than their own	Only their own	Their own contribution plus interest contribution	Their own contribution	Their own plus interest and fuller own contribution contribution poyer bution	
Alabama			ر بر ا			
Alaska ²						
Arizona						
Arkansas						
California						
Colorado						
Connecticut						
Delaware						
District of Columbia						
Florida ³						
Georgia						
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Maine			_			
Maryland Massachusetts			_			
Michigan			_			
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Missouri						
Montana						
Nebraska						
Nevada⁵						
New Hampshire						
New Jersey						
New Mexico						
New York						
North Carolina						
North Dakota						
Ohio ⁶						
Oklahoma						
Oregon ⁷						
Pennsylvania						
Rhode Island						
South Carolina ⁸						
South Dakota Tennessee						
Texas						
Utah ⁹						
Vermont						
Virginia						
Washington ¹⁰						
West Virginia						
Wisconsin						
Wyoming						
	3	5	35	5	2	
	,	,		,	-	

- 1 States' withdrawal policies may vary depending on teachers' years of service. Year five is used as a common point of comparison.
- 2 As of July 1, 2006, Alaska only offers a defined contribution plan to new members, which allows teachers leaving the system after five years to withdraw 100 percent of the employer contribution.
- 3 Since Florida teachers do not contribute to the defined benefit plan, the only funds participants could withdraw upon leaving are those made for special circumstances such as purchasing time. Florida also has a defined contribution plan, which allows teachers with at least one year of service who are leaving the system to withdraw 100 percent of the employer contribution.
- 4 Indiana teachers transfering to another governmental retirement plan may also withdraw the amount necessary to purchase creditable service in the new plan.
- 5 Most teachers in Nevada fund the system through salary reductions or forgoing pay raises, and thus do not have direct contributions to withdraw. The small minority that are in a contributory system may withdraw their contributions plus interest.
- 6 Ohio has two other pension plans. Ohio's defined contribution plan allows teachers with at least one year of service who are leaving the system to withdraw 100 percent of the employer contribution. Exiting teachers with at least five years of experience in Ohio's combination plan may withdraw their employee-funded defined contribution component, but must wait until age 50 to withdraw funds from the employer-funded defined benefit component.
- 7 Oregon only has a hybrid retirement plan, which allows exiting teachers to withdraw their contributions plus earnings from their defined contribution component; they still receive the employer-funded defined benefit payments at retirement age.
- 8 South Carolina also has a defined contribution plan, which allows exiting teachers to withdraw 100 percent of their contributions and employer contributions, plus interest.
- 9 Since Utah teachers do not contribute to the defined benefit plan, the only funds participants could withdraw upon leaving are those made for special circumstances such as purchasing time.
- 10 Washington also has a hybrid plan, which allows exiting teachers to withdraw their contributions plus earnings from their defined contribution component; they still receive the employer-funded defined benefit payments at retirement age.

Do states permit teachers to purchase time for previous teaching experience?¹



- 1 Alaska only offers a defined contribution plan; purchase of time does not apply.
- 2 Hawaii, Idaho, Minnesota, New York, Oregon and Tennessee.
- 3 Arizona, California, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Missouri, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah and Wisconsin.

Figure 111

Do states permit teachers to purchase time for leaves of absence?¹



1 Alaska only offers a defined contribution plan; purchase of time does not apply.

- 2 Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Kansas, Maine, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, West Virginia and Wisconsin.
- 3 Alabama, Arizona, Delaware, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Carolina and Utah.

Food For Thought

West Virginia's Cautionary Tale

Education and individual retirement planning advice is a critical aspect of any state's pension plan, as evidenced by the tribulations of West Virginia's teacher pension system. In 1991, facing financial troubles, West Virginia closed its defined benefit Teachers' Retirement System (TRS) to new members and opened the Teachers' Defined Contribution plan (TDC). However, after widespread dissatisfaction with TDC account balances, it was closed to new members in 2005, and TRS was reopened. In 2008, the state legislature gave TDC participants a one-time option to switch their account balances from TDC to TRS in order to receive retirement payments according to the defined benefit formula. Over 78 percent of teachers elected to transfer.

While these events may appear to argue against states' offering defined contribution plans, West Virginia's experience should be viewed as a cautionary tale of the need for proper investment education. The implementation of the defined contribution plan was not handled well. In fact, some teachers believe they were so poorly advised that they have filed suit against the investment firm managing the plan. About three-fourths of teachers invested solely in low-yield, low-risk annuities that performed only slightly better than some savings accounts. For example, the Associated Press found that from May 2005 to May 2008, these annuities provided only their guaranteed 4.5 percent annual return. Over this same time period, the S&P 500 had an average rate of return of over 7 percent per year.

Defined contribution plans provide teachers flexibility in their retirement savings, but such plans are not without risk. States have a responsibility to educate teachers on their financial options and how to invest at different stages in life.

Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal I – Pension Neutrality

The state should ensure that pension systems are neutral, uniformly increasing pension wealth with each additional year of work.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

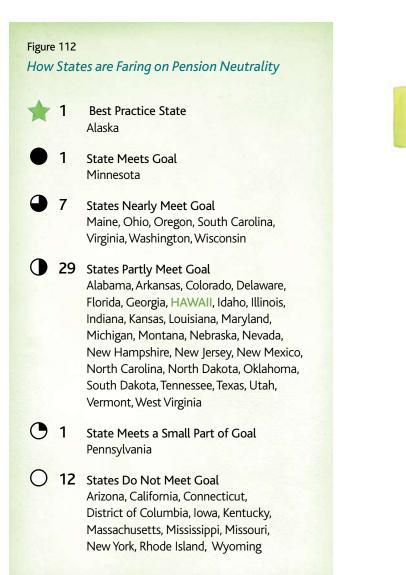
- The formula that determines pension benefits should be neutral to the number of years worked. It should not have a multiplier that increases with years of service or longevity bonuses.
- The formula for determining benefits should preserve incentives for teachers to continue working until conventional retirement ages. Eligibility for retirement benefits should be based on age and not years of service.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- It is unfair to all teachers when pension wealth does not accumulate in a uniform way.
- Pension systems affect when teachers decide to retire as they look to maximize their pension wealth.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.



Area 4: Goal I Hawaii Analysis

State Partly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii's pension system is based on a benefit formula that is not neutral, meaning that each year of work does not accrue pension wealth in a uniform way until members reach Social Security retirement age.

To qualify as neutral, a pension formula must not only utilize a constant benefit multiplier to determine retired teachers' benefits, but it must also rely on an eligibility calendar based on age, rather than years of service. In most defined benefit plans, pension wealth peaks for teachers the year they become eligible for retirement, and then it declines every year they work beyond eligibility. Plans that base retirement on years of service create unnecessary peaks, and plans that allow a low retirement age create incentives to retire early. Therefore, plans that base retirement on an age in line with Social Security are likely to create the most uniform accrual of wealth.

Hawaii's pension plan utilizes a constant benefit multiplier of 2 percent, regardless of years of service; however, teachers may retire before standard retirement age based on years of service without a reduction in benefits. Teachers with 30 years of service may retire at age 55, while vested teachers may not retire until age 62. Therefore, teachers who begin their careers at age 25 can reach 30 years of service by age 55, entitling them to seven additional years of unreduced retirement benefits beyond what other teachers can receive who started their careers at age 32 and cannot retire with unreduced benefits until age 62. Not only are teachers being paid benefits by the state well before Social Security's retirement age, but these provisions, along with the state's early retirement with reduced benefits based on years of service, may encourage effective teachers to retire early. They also fail to treat equally those teachers who enter the system at a later age and give the same amount of service.

Supporting Research www4.hawaii.gov/ers

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii meets this goal in part. Although the state is commended for using a constant benefit multiplier, it should consider increasing its retirement age to align with Social Security and no longer basing eligibility on years of service. These changes would result in a pension plan that treats all teachers more equitably, regardless of where they are in their careers.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii indicated that it has different benefit plans; consequently, age requirements and the benefit multiplier may be different depending on the teacher's plan.

LAST WORD

NCTQ's analysis is based on the plan currently offered to newly hired teachers.

Figure 113

Does pension wealth in **Hawaii** accumulate uniformly for all teachers?

Benefit formula is determined by a multiplier that does not change based on years of service	YES
Retirement eligibility is based on age, not years of service ¹	NO

1 This only refers to determining retirement eligibility, not retirement benefits

How much do states pay for each teacher that retires with unreduced benefits at an early age?¹

ount in bene er from the t t until age 65

41 1 2		-
Alaska ²	-	-
Minnesota ³	\$0	65
Washington	\$0	65
Maine	\$258,357	62
California	\$310,028	62
Indiana	\$317,728	55
New Hampshire	\$321,326	60
Kansas	\$337,385	60
Oregon	\$361,536	58
Wisconsin	\$416,007	57
Rhode Island	\$430,013	59
Texas	\$443,421	60
South Dakota	\$449,151	55
Michigan	\$468,590	52
Tennessee	\$499,973	52
New York	\$517,816	55
Connecticut	\$520,009	57
Vermont	\$520,655	52
New Jersey	\$525,117	55
Virginia	\$531,068	52
lowa	\$551,428	55
Idaho	\$551,743	56
North Dakota	\$551,743	56
Oklahoma	\$551,743	56
Florida	\$557,112	52
Maryland	\$562,308	52
North Carolina	\$568,555	52
Illinois	\$572,010	57
South Carolina	\$577,142	50
HAWAII	\$577,687	55
Nebraska	\$577,687	55
West Virginia	\$577,687	55
Delaware	\$577,927	52
District of Columbia	\$585,737	52
Massachusetts ⁴	\$594,296	57
Montana	\$600,768	47
Mississippi	\$621,861	47
Georgia	\$624,786	52
Utah	\$624,786	52
Alabama	\$625,747	47
Pennsylvania	\$650,011	57
Wyoming	\$655,506	54
Arkansas	\$681,789	50
Ohio ⁵	\$687,265	52
Arizona	\$694,622	51
Colorado	\$722,108	55
New Mexico	\$730,686	47
Louisiana	\$780,983	52
Missouri	\$780,983	52
Kentucky	\$791,679	49
Nevada	\$834,090	52

Examples of Best Practice

Alaska offers a defined contribution pension plan that is neutral, with pension wealth accumulating in an equal way for all teachers for each year of work. Minnesota offers a defined benefit plan with a formula multiplier that does not change relative to years of service and does not allow unreduced benefits for retirees below age 65.

Figure 115

What kind of multiplier do states use to calculate retirement benefits?¹

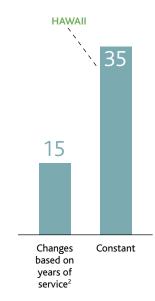


Figure 115

2 Arizona, California, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Florida, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island and Wyoming.

Figure 114

- 1 All calculations are based on a teacher who starts teaching at age 22, earns a starting salary of \$35,000 that increases 3 percent per year, and retires at the age when he or she is first eligible for unreduced benefits. The calculations use states' current benefit formulas and do not include cost of living increases. The final average salary was calculated as the average of the highest three years of salary, even though a few states may vary from that standard. Age 65 was used as the point of comparison for standard retirement age because it is the miminum eligibility age for unreduced Social Security benefits.
- 2 Does not apply to Alaska's defined contribution plan.
- 3 Minnesota provides unreduced retirement benefits at the age of full Social Security benefits or age 66, whichever comes first.
- 4 Massachusetts's formula has many options for retirement. A teacher with 35 years of experience at age 57 would reach the maximum benefit.
- 5 Applies only to Ohio's defined benefit plan.



Alaska has a defined contribution plan, which does not have a benefit multiplier.

Area 5: Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Goal A – Licensure Loopholes

The state should close loopholes that allow teachers who have not met licensure requirements to continue teaching.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. Under no circumstances should a state award a standard license to a teacher who has not passed all required licensing tests.
- If a state finds it necessary to confer conditional or provisional licenses under limited and exceptional circumstances to teachers who have not passed the required tests, the state should ensure that requirements are met within one year.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Teachers who have not passed licensing tests may place students at risk.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 116

How States are Faring on Closing Licensure Loopholes



Washington

Area 5: Goal A Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii allows new teachers who have not met licensure requirements to be issued an "emergency hire" credential for a period not to exceed one year, but this credential is renewable for up to a maximum of four years. To qualify, the individual must have a bachelor's degree, submit an official transcript and actively pursue appropriate licensing. To renew, the teacher must submit evidence of satisfactory progress toward meeting the licensing standards.

Supporting Research

Hawaii Administrative Rules 8-54-9 (e) and Rules 8-54-9 (f) www.htsb.org/docs/HTSB_Relic_Rules.pdf

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should ensure that all teachers pass all required licensure tests before they enter the classroom. Exceptions place students at risk of having teachers who lack sufficient or appropriate subject-matter knowledge. If, under limited and exceptional circumstances, such conditional or provisional licenses are deemed necessary, the state should allow only one additional year for teachers to meet testing requirements.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii pointed out that teachers who are hired without a license must successfully complete annual requirements to actively pursue licensure requirements up to three years.

LAST WORD

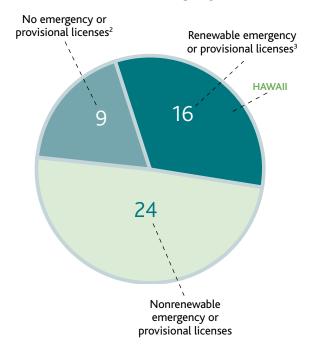
The demonstration of content mastery through subjectmatter testing is a vital part of ensuring teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Hawaii's current policy potentially allows new teachers who have not passed these exams to teach for up to four years. The state is strongly urged to strengthen its requirements and mandate that all teachers pass subject-matter tests before teaching.



Colorado, Mississippi and New Jersey require that all new teachers must pass all required subject-matter tests as a condition of initial licensure.

Figure 117

Do states still award emergency licenses?¹



1 Not applicable to Montana or Nebraska, which do not require subject-matter testing.

- 2 Arizona, Colorado, Illinois, Mississippi, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, South Carolina, Virginia
- 3 Hawaii, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Wisconsin

Figure 118		/	/	/
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Figure 118

1 lowa only requires subject-matter testing for elementary teachers.

2 Montana and Nebraska do not currently require licensing tests.

- 3 Nevada has no deferral as of 2010.
- 4 Wyoming only requires subject-matter testing for elementary and social studies teachers.

Area 5: Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Goal B – Unsatisfactory Evaluations

The state should articulate consequences for teachers with unsatisfactory evaluations, including specifying that teachers with multiple unsatisfactory evaluations are eligible for dismissal.



Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- The state should require that all teachers who have received a single unsatisfactory evaluation be placed on an improvement plan -- whether or not they have tenure.
- 2. The state should require that all teachers who receive two consecutive unsatisfactory evaluations or two unsatisfactory evaluations within five years be formally eligible for dismissal -- whether or not they have tenure.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Negative evaluations should have meaningful consequences.
- Employment status should not determine the consequences of a negative evaluation.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

 Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Area 5: Goal B Hawaii Analysis

State Nearly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii requires that a teacher who receives an overall unsatisfactory rating be immediately dismissed; however, teacher evaluations are required only every five years. If a principal notes a deficiency in the "marginal" evaluation of a tenured teacher, he or she would be placed on an improvement plan and receive annual ratings until these deficiencies are addressed.

Supporting Research

Hawaii DOE Human Resources Manual http://sp.k12. hi.us/pdf/sp5602.pdf

Memorandum of Understanding Between State of Hawaii Board of Education and Hawaii State Teachers Association, Appendix XXI, Teacher Evaluation, and Article VIII, Teacher Performance (Agreement, July 1, 2007 to June 30, 2009)

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii nearly meets this goal. Although the state is commended for its commitment to exiting ineffective teachers, the state may want to reconsider its aggressive policy and instead require that all teachers who receive a single unsatisfactory evaluation be placed on an improvement plan and given sufficient time to address their deficiencies.

HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Hawaii recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. The state added that the Hawaii Department of Education and the teachers' union are currently discussing the consequences of a teacher being rated less than satisfactory.

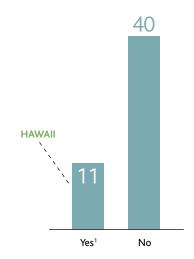
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Wisconsin			
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	25	15	LL

Examples of Best Practice 1

Illinois and Oklahoma both require that teachers who receive unsatisfactory evaluations be placed on improvement plans. Teachers in Illinois are then evaluated three times during a 90-day remediation period and are eligible for dismissal if performance remains unsatisfactory. Oklahoma's improvement plan may not exceed two months, and if performance does not improve during that time, teachers are eligible for dismissal.

Figure 121

Do states specify that all teachers with multiple unsatisfactory evaluations are eligible for dismissal?



1 Alaska, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Washington

Figure 120

- 1 Any teacher with an unsatisfactory evaluation is immediately dismissed.
- 2 Kentucky does require multiple observations the year following an unsatisfactory evaluation.
- 3 Improvement plans are only used for teachers in identified "Priority Schools." Those same teachers are also eligible for dismissal for multiple unsatisfactory evaluations.
- 4 Only teachers in low performing schools can be dismissed after just one negative rating.
- 5 Only teachers on annual contracts are eligible for dismissal after unsatisfactory evaluations.
- 6 Only probationary teachers can be dismissed following an unsatisfactory evaluation.

Area 5: Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Goal C – Dismissal for Poor Performance

The state should ensure that the process for terminating ineffective teachers is expedient and fair to all parties.

Goal Components

(The factors considered in determining the states' rating for the goal.)

- 1. A teacher who is terminated for poor performance should have an opportunity to appeal. In the interest of both the teacher and the school district, the state should ensure this appeal occurs within a reasonable time frame.
- 2. The state should distinguish the process and accompanying due process rights for teachers dismissed for classroom ineffectiveness from the process and accompanying due process rights for teachers dismissed or facing license revocation for felony or morality violations or dereliction of duties.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States need to be explicit that teacher ineffectiveness is grounds for dismissal.
- Due process must be efficient and expedited.
- Decisions about teachers should be made by those with educational expertise.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.

Figure 122

How States are Faring in Dismissal for Poor Performance



Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, HAWAII, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wyoming

Area 5: Goal C Hawaii Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Hawaii does not address the appeal process for teachers who are terminated for poor performance.

RECOMMENDATION

Hawaii does not meet this goal. The state should articulate policy that provides tenured teachers an opportunity to appeal district decisions to terminate their contracts; multiple appeals should not be permitted; and the appeal should be made before a panel of educators, not in a court of law. When articulating such policy, Hawaii should, in the best interest of both the teacher and the district, ensure that a conclusion is reached in a reasonable time frame. Prolonged appeals tax limited resources and may dissuade districts from attempting to terminate ineffective teachers.

The state should also distinguish the process for dismissing ineffective teachers from dismissal or license revocation for dereliction of duty or felony and/or morality violations. While teachers should have due process for any termination, it is important to differentiate between poor performance and issues with farreaching consequences that could permanently impact a teacher's right to practice.

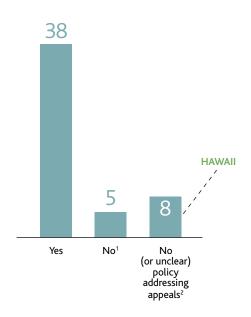
HAWAII RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS Hawaii had no comment on this goal.

🔶 Examples of Best Practice

Unfortunately, no state has an exemplary policy that NCTQ can highlight as "best practice" in this area. Only **Florida, New Hampshire** and **Wisconsin** ensure that their processes for terminating ineffective teachers should be concluded within a reasonable time frame. Regrettably, even these states do not distinguish due process rights for teachers dismissed for ineffective performance from those facing license revocation for dereliction of duties, or felony and/or morality violations.

Figure 123

Do states allow multiple appeals of teacher dismissals?



1 District of Columbia, Florida, Louisiana, North Dakota, Wisconsin

2 Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Maine, Nebraska, New Jersey, Utah

Figure 124		/	/
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Virginia			
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West Virginia			
Wisconsin			
Wyoming			
	1	47	3

Figure 124

Appendix

Area 1: Goal A

Admission into Preparation Programs

Rationale

The most appropriate time for assessing basic skills is at program entry.

Basic skills tests were not intended to be licensing tests, but rather to be used at the point of admission into a teacher preparation program. These tests generally assess middle school-level skills, and states should use them as a minimal screening mechanism to ensure that teacher preparation programs do not admit anyone who is not prepared to do college-level work. Admitting prospective teachers who have not passed these tests may result in programs devoting limited time to basic skill remediation rather than preparation for the classroom.

Screening candidates at program entry protects the public's investment.

Teacher preparation programs that do not screen candidates, particularly programs at public institutions that are heavily subsidized by the state, invest considerable taxpayer dollars in the preparation of individuals who may not be able to successfully complete the program and pass the licensing tests required to become a teacher. Candidates needing additional support should complete remediation prior to program entry, avoiding the possibility of an unsuccessful investment of significant public tax dollars.

Area 1: Goal B Elementary Teacher Preparation

Rationale

The state should ensure that its teacher preparation programs provide elementary teachers with a broad liberal arts education.

Many states' policies fail to ensure that elementary teacher candidates will complete coursework in topics relevant to common topics in elementary grades, specifically topics found in states' elementary learning standards. Even when states specify liberal arts coursework requirements, the regulatory language can be quite broad, alluding only minimally to conceptual approaches such as "quantitative reasoning" or "historical understanding." Another common but inadequate approach that states take is to specify broad curricular areas like "humanities" or "physical sciences." A humanities course could be a general overview of world literature--an excellent course for a prospective elementary teacher--but it could also be "Introduction to Film Theory." Likewise, a physical science course could be an overview of relevant topics in physics, chemistry, and astronomy, or it could focus exclusively on astronomy and fail to give a teacher candidate an understanding of the basic concepts of physics. Too few states' requirements distinguish between the value gained from a survey course in American history, such as "From Colonial Times to the Civil War," and an American history course such as "Woody Guthrie and Folk Narrative in the Great Depression."

In addition to the common-sense notion that teachers ought to know the subjects they teach, research supports the benefits to be gained by teachers being broadly educated. Teachers who are more literate--who possess richer vocabularies--are more likely to be effective. In fact, of all the measurable attributes of a teacher, teacher literacy correlates most consistently with student achievement gains. Some states still require that elementary teacher candidates major in elementary education, with no expectation that they be broadly educated. Others have regulatory language that effectively requires the completion of education coursework instead of liberal arts coursework by mandating only teaching methods courses in subject areas without also requiring content-based coursework in the areas themselves.

An academic concentration enhances content knowledge and ensures that prospective elementary teachers take higher level academic coursework.

Few states require prospective elementary teachers to major or minor in an academic subject area. Consequently, in most states these teachers can meet subject-matter requirements without taking any advanced-level coursework. At minimum, states should require a concentration in an academic area. In addition to deepening subject-matter knowledge in a particular area, building this concentration into elementary education programs ensures that prospective teachers complete academic coursework on par with peers earning bachelor's degrees in other areas.

A concentration also provides a fallback for education majors whose programs deem them unready for the classroom. In most education programs, virtually all coursework is completed before candidates begin student teaching. The stakes are high once student teaching begins: if a candidate cannot pass, he or she cannot meet requirements for a major or graduate. This may create a perverse incentive for programs to set low standards for student teaching and/or pass candidates whose clinical experience is unsatisfactory. If they were required to have at least an academic concentration, candidates who failed student teaching could still complete a degree with minimal additional coursework.

Standards-based programs can work when verified by testing.

Many states no longer prescribe specific courses or credit hours as a condition for teacher candidates to qualify for a license. Instead, they require teacher candidates to complete an approved program that meets state-specific standards or standards set forth by accrediting bodies--the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Association for Childhood Education International (ACEI)--and leave it at that. The advantage of this "standards-based" approach is that it grants greater flexibility to teacher preparation programs regarding program design.

However, a significant disadvantage is that the standards-based approach is far more difficult to monitor or enforce. While some programs respond well to the flexibility, others do not. Though the ACEI/NCATE standards may be beneficial, they are too general for states to rely on in their efforts to ensure adequate subject-matter training. For example, ACEI's standard for social studies requires that elementary teacher candidates be "able to use knowledge, skills and dispositions from social studies to organize and provide integrated instruction in grades K-6 for the study of major themes, concepts, and modes of inquiry drawn from academic fields that address: (1) culture; (2) time, continuity, and change; (3) people, places, and environment; (4) individual development and identity; (5) individuals, groups, and institutions; (6) power, governance, and authority; (7) production, distribution, and consumption; (8) science, technology, and society; (9) global connections; and (10) civic ideals and practices." These broad concepts do very little to articulate the actual knowledge that elementary teacher candidates should possess.

Standards are important but essentially meaningless absent rigorous tests to ensure that teacher candidates have met them. Most states that have chosen the standards-based approach have not implemented such tests. In their absence, verifying that teacher preparation programs are teaching to the standards requires an exhaustive review process of matching every standard with something taught in a course. This approach is neither practical nor efficient. Tests of broad subject matter are also not the solution, given that it is possible to pass without necessarily demonstrating knowledge in each subject area. For instance, on many tests of teacher content knowledge, a passing score is possible while answering every mathematics question incorrectly.

Mere alignment with student learning standards is not sufficient.

Another growing trend in state policy is to require teacher preparation programs to align their instruction with the state's student learning standards. In many states, this alignment exercise is the only factor considered in deciding the content to be delivered to elementary teacher candidates. Alignment of teacher preparation with student learning standards is an important step but by no means the only one. For example, a program should prepare teachers in more than just the content that the state expects of its fourth graders. Also critical is moving past alignment and deciding the broader set of knowledge a teacher needs to have to be able to effectively teach fourth grade. The teacher's perspective must be both broader and deeper than what he or she will actually teach.

Subject-area coursework should be taught by arts and sciences faculty.

Most states do not explicitly require that subject-matter coursework be taught by academics in the field, that is, faculty from a university's college of arts and sciences. While an education professor who specializes in science education, for instance, is well suited to teach effective methodologies in science instruction, a scholar in science should provide the foundation work in the subject itself.

States cannot leave these decisions entirely to teacher preparation programs because sending teacher candidates to the college of arts and sciences to complete coursework can run counter to programs' financial interests.

Teacher candidates need to be able to "test out" of coursework requirements.

Many elementary teacher candidates will have acquired the knowledge needed to teach elementary grades in their high school coursework and other experiences. Someone who earned a score of 3 or higher on an Advanced Placement (AP) exam in American history does not need to take a general survey course in college but should be eligible to take a more advanced American history course focused on a particular topic. States need to have some process that allows teacher candidates to test out of survey requirements.

A legitimate test-out option would require individual subjectmatter tests or at least minimum subscores on a general test. Good policy would also accept equivalent scores from AP and SAT II tests.

Area 1: Goal C Teacher Preparation in Reading Instruction

Rationale

Reading science has identified five components of effective instruction.

Teaching children to read is the most important task teachers undertake. Over the past 60 years, scientists from many fields have worked to determine how people learn to read and why some struggle. This science of reading has led to breakthroughs that can dramatically reduce the number of children destined to become functionally illiterate or barely literate adults. By routinely applying in the classroom the lessons learned from the scientific findings, most reading failure can be avoided. Estimates indicate that the current failure rate of 20 to 30 percent could be reduced to 2 to 10 percent.

Scientific research has shown that there are five essential components of effective reading instruction: explicit and systematic instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension. While elementary teachers need to be well versed in these components, even secondary teachers need at least some knowledge of this process, particularly if they work in high-poverty schools.

Many states' policies still do not reflect the strong research consensus in reading instruction that has emerged over the last few decades. Many teacher preparation programs, still caught up in the reading wars, resist teaching scientifically based reading instruction. NCTQ's report "What Education Schools Aren't Teaching about Reading and What Elementary Teachers Aren't Learning" found that only 15 percent of teacher preparation programs in a national sample were providing even minimal exposure to the science of reading. Whether through standards or coursework requirements, states must ensure that their preparation programs graduate only teacher candidates who know how to teach children to reads.

Most current reading tests do not offer assurance that teachers know the science of reading.

A few states, such as Massachusetts and Virginia, have developed strong, stand-alone assessments entirely focused on the science of reading. Other states rely on either pedagogy tests or content tests that include items on reading instruction. However, since reading instruction is addressed only in one small part of most of these tests, it is often not necessary to know the science of reading to pass. States need to make sure that a teacher candidate cannot pass a test that purportedly covers reading instruction without knowing the critical material.

Area 1: Goal D Teacher Preparation in Mathematics

Rationale

Required math coursework should be tailored in both design and delivery to the unique needs of the elementary teacher.

Aspiring elementary teachers must begin to acquire a deep conceptual knowledge of the mathematics that they will teach, moving well beyond mere procedural understanding. Their training should focus on the critical areas of numbers and operations; algebra; geometry and measurement; and, to a lesser degree, data analysis and probability.

To ensure that elementary teachers are well trained to teach the essential subject of mathematics, states must require teacher preparation programs to cover these four areas in coursework that it specially designed for prospective elementary teachers. Leading mathematicians and math educators have found that elementary teachers are not well served by courses designed for a general audience and that methods courses also do not provide sufficient preparation. According to Dr. Roger Howe, a mathematician at Yale University: "Future teachers do not need so much to learn more mathematics, as to reshape what they already know."

Most states' policies do not require preparation in mathematics of appropriate breadth and depth and specific to the needs of the elementary teacher. NCTQ's report "No Common Denominator: The Preparation of Elementary Teachers in Mathematics by America's Education Schools" found that only 13 percent of teacher preparation programs in a national sample were providing high quality preparation in mathematics. Whether through standards or coursework requirements, states must ensure that their preparation programs graduate only teacher candidates who are well prepared to teach mathematics.

Most state tests offer no assurance that teachers are prepared to teach mathematics.

Only Massachusetts has developed a rigorous assessment for elementary teachers entirely and solely focused on mathematics. Other states rely on subject-matter tests that include some items (or even a whole section) on mathematics instruction. However, since subject-specific passing scores are not required, one need not know much mathematics in order to pass. In fact, one might answer every mathematics question incorrectly and still pass. States need to ensure that it is not possible to pass a licensure test that purportedly covers mathematics without knowing the critical material.

Area 1: Goal E Middle School Teacher Preparation

Rationale

States must differentiate middle school teacher preparation from that of elementary teachers.

Middle school grades are critical years of schooling. It is in these years that far too many students fall through the cracks. However, requirements for the preparation and licensure of middle school teachers are among the weakest state policies. Too many states fail to distinguish the knowledge and skills needed by middle school teachers from those needed by an elementary teacher. Whether teaching a single subject in a departmentalized setting or teaching multiple subjects in a self-contained setting, middle school teachers must be able to teach significantly more advanced content than elementary teachers do. The notion that someone should be identically prepared to teach first grade or eighth grade mathematics seems ridiculous, but states that license teachers on a K-8 generalist certificate essentially endorse this idea.

Approved programs should prepare middle school teacher candidates to be qualified to teach two subject areas.

Since No Child Left Behind requires most aspiring middle school teachers to have a major or pass a test in each teaching field, the law would appear to preclude them from teaching more than one subject. However, middle school teacher candidates could

instead earn two subject-area minors, gaining sufficient knowledge to pass state licensing tests and be highly qualified in both subjects. This policy would increase schools' staffing flexibility, especially since teachers seem to show little interest in taking tests to earn highly qualified teaching status in a second subject once they are in the classroom. Research offers little evidence that middle school teachers with a major will be more effective than middle school teachers with a minor, and in fact most middle schools do not require this credential of teachers.

Area 1: Goal F Special Education Teacher Preparation

Rationale

All teachers, including special education teachers, teach content and therefore need relevant coursework.

Special education teacher candidates who will teach elementary grades should complete roughly the same core of liberal arts coursework as regular elementary teacher candidates (See Goal 1-B). They will need the same knowledge in the classroom. Moreover, from a practical perspective, it is incumbent on teacher preparation programs to produce special education teachers who are highly qualified in the areas they will teach.

While special educators should be valued for their critical role in working with students with disabilities and special needs, the state identifies them not as "special education assistants" but as "special education teachers," presumably because it expects them to provide instruction. Inclusion models, where special education students receive instruction from a general education teacher paired with a special education teacher to provide instructional support, do not mitigate the need for special education teachers to know content. Providing instruction to children who have special needs requires both knowledge of effective learning strategies and of the subject matter at hand. Failure to ensure that teachers are well trained in content areas deprives special education students of the opportunity to reach their academic potential.

HQT requirements place unique challenges on secondary special education teachers.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and the 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) present conflicting expectations for the subject-matter preparation of new secondary special education teachers. Although the latter, which was passed after NCLB, offers greater flexibility and is more realistic than what NCLB suggests, it may not adequately address teachers' subject-matter knowledge. States can provide some middle ground, while meeting the requirements of both laws. Under IDEA, states can award "highly qualified teacher" status to new secondary special education teachers who:

- have a major or have passed a subject-matter test in one of three content areas: language arts, mathematics, or science (without explanation, the law excludes social studies); and
- complete a single HOUSSE route for multiple subjects in all other subjects that they are likely to teach during their first two years of teaching.

States need to provide more-specific guidance on this issue. They should require secondary special education teachers to have broad coursework in multiple subjects and to become highly qualified in two core academic areas. This will make teachers more flexible and thus better able to serve schools and students. States can use a combination of testing and coursework to meet this goal.

Secondary special education teachers need to graduate highly qualified in two subject areas.

Given that these teachers will be expected to complete a HOUSSE route in all remaining subject areas during their first two years of teaching, it makes sense for them to complete undergraduate training in two related areas, probably either math and science or English and social studies. That way, the HOUSSE route can focus on related subject areas and candidates can focus on related fields, rather than studying up on English, history, and mathematics, for example, in their first two years of teaching.

A customized HOUSSE route is needed to meet the needs of new special education teachers to earn highly qualified status.

Special education teachers face unique pressures, as they must be competent in both the subject areas they teach and in the strategies for teaching children with a variety of special needs. The 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act recognized these pressures in its proviso allowing new secondary special education teachers to use states' HOUSSE routes to become "highly qualified," a route normally reserved for veteran teachers.

Whether or not states have discontinued the HOUSSE route for veteran teachers, it is this traditional route that most states make available for secondary special education teachers. However, several problems are common among traditional HOUSSE routes that make them inappropriate for new secondary special education teachers. First, most state plans are weak on teacher content preparation even though the intent of the law was for HOUSSE to address weak subject-matter knowledge. Second, for teachers to achieve highly qualified status, states highly value experience, which, of course, a new teacher does not have. Third, state requirements tend to be inordinately complicated, making it hard on a new teacher to know how to navigate the system to earn the required credential.

Providing a HOUSSE option to special education teachers was originally seen as a way to streamline the process of achieving HQT status for teachers who instruct in multiple subject areas each day. While it is certainly important that a secondary special education teacher has a basic competency in subjects ranging from mathematics to world history, it is unreasonable to expect him or her to hold multiple college degrees or pass four or five different content examinations to be deemed highly qualified.

States can help new secondary special education teachers become highly qualified in multiple subjects by encouraging them to pursue professional development and coursework that focuses on state student learning standards. Having available adapted subject-matter tests would also add much-needed flexibility.

Structured properly, HOUSSE would offer an efficient means by which a teacher could gain a broad overview of a specific area of content knowledge. One clear option would be for a state to identify focused, content-driven university courses that would give teachers a survey of the information necessary to teach a given subject. A single world history course could provide a sufficient basis in social studies; a single quantitative reasoning course could give a broad review of mathematical concepts. While not providing expertise, such classes could provide the proficiency needed for a teacher to obtain highly qualified teacher status in the subject.

Area 1: Goal G Assessing Professional Knowledge

Rationale

A good pedagogy test puts teeth in states' professional standards.

In order to ensure that the state is licensing only teachers who meet its expectations, all standards must be testable. The state's specifying standards that cannot be assessed in a practical and cost-effective manner has no value. Examples of knowledge that can be tested include the basic elements of good instruction, how to communicate effectively with children, how to use class time efficiently, effective questioning techniques, establishing smooth classroom routines, the importance of feedback, engaging parents, the best methods for teaching reading as well as other subjects, appropriate use of technology, knowledge of testing, and the fundamentals of addressing individual learning challenges.

States use too many tests to measure new teachers' professional knowledge that utterly fail to do so, either because the passing score is set so low that anyone--even those who have not had professional preparation--can pass or because one can discern the "right" answer on an item simply by the way it is written.

Area 1: Goal H Teacher Preparation Program Accountability

Rationale

States need to hold programs accountable for the quality of their graduates.

The state should examine a number of factors when measuring the performance of and approving teacher preparation programs. The quality of both the subject-matter preparation and professional sequence is crucial. However, in addition to consideration of program content, NCTQ recommends measures that can provide the state and the public with meaningful, readily understandable indicators of how well programs are doing in what is most important: preparing teachers to be successful in the classroom.

Average scores on basic skills tests of individuals admitted to programs can help the state know, "Are programs appropriately screening applicants?" Pass rate data on licensing tests can help inform states, "Are programs delivering essential academic and professional knowledge?" Classroom performance data and evaluation ratings can help the state determine, "Are programs producing effective classroom teachers?"

Collecting effective pass rate data on state licensing tests is especially important. At a minimum, the state should ensure that programs are reporting pass rates for individuals entering student teaching, not program completers, because the former is now required under the 2008 reauthorization of the Higher Education Act. It is also a method that will not mask the number of individuals the program was unable to properly prepare.

Area 1: Goal I State Authority for Program Approval

Rationale

States should not cede oversight authority over their teacher preparation programs to accreditors.

The recent growth in the popularity of national accreditation has led some states to adopt policies that blur the line between the public process of state program approval and the private process of national accreditation. The factors considered for accreditation are broader and more formative in nature than the factors that should be considered by the state when approving programs. The state's primary interest is--or should be--narrower, more sharply focused on only those aspects of teacher preparation that directly relate to teacher effectiveness and those measures that can be quantified (see Goals 1-H). While both the state and the accrediting body share the same ultimate goal--quality teachers--the questions that each asks differ. Furthermore, although there may be a growing consensus as to what teachers should know and be able to do--a consensus that could eventually strengthen the accreditation movement--no solid evidence exists that shows that nationally accredited teacher preparation programs produce better teachers than unaccredited programs.

States may choose to endorse the standards of national accrediting bodies, but these bodies' standards should not be seen as adequate substitutes for state program approval standards. Unfortunately, some states have allowed programs to substitute national accreditation for state program approval. A few states have gone further and required that all teacher preparation programs at public universities attain NCATE accreditation. A few more have required that all in-state programs, public and private, attain national accreditation. These policies are inappropriate, since they require that public funds and institutional resources be spent meeting the standards of a private organization that has yet to be recognized as the undisputed guarantor of minimum quality in its field.

Area 1: Goal J Balancing Professional Coursework

Rationale

Most states have programs that demand excessive requirements.

NCTQ's research shows that most states have teacher preparation programs where teacher candidates are required to complete more than 60 credit hours of professional coursework. These are excessive requirements that leave little room for electives and often leave insufficient room for adequate subjectmatter preparation. Though there is no research data to confirm this, it seems likely that such excessive requirements would discourage talented individuals from pursuing teacher preparation and public school teaching.

States need to monitor programs' total professional coursework requirements.

Although some states specify a reasonable amount of minimum professional coursework that new teachers must complete, teacher preparation programs often require far more. Requiring teachers to complete a minimum amount of coursework does nothing to ensure that approved programs will limit themselves to those minimums. It is also not necessarily the case that programs should be limited to those minimums.

Area 2: Goal A Alternate Route Eligibility

Rationale

Alternate route teachers need the advantage of a strong academic background.

The intent of alternate route programs is to provide a route for those who already have strong subject-matter knowledge to enter the profession, allowing them to focus on gaining the professional skills needed for the classroom. This intent is based on the fact that academic caliber has been shown to be a strong predictor of classroom success. Programs that admit candidates with a weak grasp of both subject matter and professional knowledge can put the new teacher in an impossible position, where he or she is much more likely to experience failure and perpetuate high attrition rates.

Academic requirements for admission to alternate routes should exceed the requirements for traditional programs.

Assessing a teacher candidate's college GPA and/or aptitude scores can provide useful and reliable measures of academic caliber, provided that the state does not set the floor too low. A 2.5 minimum GPA is the common choice of many alternate route programs but may be too low. It is about the same as what most teacher preparation programs require of traditional candidates. Some programs address this problem by looking for at least a 2.75 in the last 60 hours of college, as indicative of a candidate's growing seriousness of purpose. GPA measures are especially useful for assessing elementary teacher qualifications, since elementary teaching demands a broader body of knowledge that can be harder to define in terms of specific tests or coursework.

Multiple ways for assessing subject-matter competency are needed to accommodate nontraditional candidates.

Rigid coursework requirements can dissuade talented, qualified individuals who lack precisely the "right" courses from pursuing a career in teaching. States can maintain high standards by using appropriate tests to allow individuals to prove their subject-matter knowledge. For instance, an engineer who wishes to teach physics should face no coursework obstacles as long as he or she can prove sufficient knowledge of physics on a test. A good test with a sufficiently high passing score is certainly as reliable as courses listed on a transcript, if not more so.

Area 2: Goal B Alternate Route Preparation

Rationale

The program must provide practical, meaningful preparation that is sensitive to a new teacher's stress level.

Too many states have policies requiring alternate route programs to "back-load" large amounts of traditional education coursework, thereby preventing the emergence of real alternatives to traditional preparation. This issue is especially important given the large proportion of alternate route teachers who complete this coursework while teaching. Alternate route teachers often have to deal with the stresses of beginning to teach while also completing required coursework in the evenings and on weekends. States need to be careful to require participants only to meet standards or complete coursework that is practical and immediately helpful to a new teacher.

Induction support is especially important for alternate route teachers.

Most new teachers--regardless of their preparation--find themselves overwhelmed upon taking responsibility for their own classrooms. This is especially true for alternate route teachers, who may have had considerably less classroom exposure or pedagogy training than traditionally prepared teachers. While alternate route programs will ideally have provided at least a brief student teaching experience, not all programs can incorporate it into their models. States must ensure that alternate route programs do not leave new teachers to "sink or swim" on their own when they begin teaching.

Area 2: Goal C Alternate Route Usage and Providers

Rationale

Alternate routes should be structured to do more than just address shortages; they should provide an alternative pipeline for talented individuals to enter the profession.

Many states have structured their alternate routes as a streamlined means to certify teachers in shortage subjects, grades or geographic areas. While alternate routes are an important mechanism for addressing shortages, they also serve the wider-reaching and more consequential purpose of providing an alternative pathway for talented individuals to enter the profession. A true alternate route creates a new pipeline of potential teachers by certifying those with valuable knowledge and skills who did not prepare to teach as undergraduates and are disinclined to fulfill the requirements of a new degree. Some states claim the limitations they place on the use of their alternate routes impose quality control. However, states control who is admitted and who is licensed. With appropriate standards for admission (see Goal 2-A) and program accountability (see Goal 2-D), quality can be safeguarded without casting alternate routes as routes of last resort or branding alternate route teachers "second-class citizens."

Area 2: Goal D Alternate Route Program Accountability

Rationale

Alternate route programs should show they consistently produce effective teachers.

All data that are collected on alternate route programs should focus on the central question of whether they produce effective teachers. Although many components are involved in a good alternate route program, the output of productive teachers is the only true indicator of success. The indicators NCTQ recommends capture a comprehensive vision of teacher effectiveness.

Alternate route programs need to be held as accountable for their results as traditional programs are. While the training and time associated with alternate route programs differ substantially from those of traditional programs, the outputs of student learning and teacher effectiveness should be held to an identical standard.

Area 2: Goal E Licensure Reciprocity

Rationale

Using transcripts to judge teacher competency provides little value.

In an attempt to ensure that teachers have the appropriate professional and subject-matter knowledge base when granting certification, states often review a teacher's college transcript, no matter how many years earlier a bachelor's degree was earned. A state certification specialist reviews the college transcript, looking for course titles that appear to match state requirements. If the right matches are not found, a teacher may be required to complete additional coursework before receiving standard licensure. This practice holds true even for experienced teachers who are trying to transfer from another state, regardless of experience or success level. The application of these oftencomplex state rules results in unnecessary obstacles to hiring talented and experienced teachers. Little evidence indicates that reviewing a person's undergraduate coursework improves the quality of the teaching force or ensures that teachers have adequate knowledge.

Testing requirements should be upheld, not waived.

While many states impose burdensome coursework requirements, they often fail to impose minimum standards on licensure tests. Instead, they offer waivers to veteran teachers transferring from other states, thereby failing to impose minimal standards of professional and subject-matter knowledge. In upholding licensure standards for out-of-state teachers, the state should be flexible in its processes but vigilant in its verification of adequate knowledge. Too many states have policies and practices that reverse these priorities, focusing diligently on comparison of transcripts to state documents while demonstrating little oversight of teachers' knowledge. If a state can verify that a teacher has taught successfully and has the required subject-matter and professional knowledge, its only concern should be ensuring that he or she is familiar with the state's student learning standards.

Signing on to the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement at least signals a state's willingness to consider portability.

Many states have signed onto the Interstate Agreement sponsored by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC), an organization concerned with facilitating licensure reciprocity. However, the NAS-DTEC Interstate Agreement does not guarantee full transfer of certification and endorsement. Despite having signed the agreement, many states still require veteran teachers to complete additional coursework to attain full licensure. Neverthelesss by signing this agreement, states are taking a good first step toward achieving nationwide portability.

States licensing out-of-state teachers should not differentiate between experienced teachers prepared in alternate routes and those prepared in traditional programs.

It is understandable that states are wary of accepting alternate route teachers from other states, since programs vary widely in quality. However, the same wide variety in quality can be found in traditional programs. If a teacher comes from another state with a standard license and can pass the state's licensure tests, whether the preparation was traditional or alternative should be irrelevant.

Area 3: Goal A State Data Systems

Rationale

Value-added analysis connects student data to teacher data to measure achievement and performance.

Value-added models are an important tool for measuring student achievement and school effectiveness. These models measure individual students' learning gains, controlling for students' previous knowledge. They can also control for students' background characteristics. In the area of teacher quality, value-added models offer a fairer and potentially more meaningful way to evaluate a teacher's effectiveness than other methods schools use.

For example, at one time a school might have known only that its fifth-grade teacher, Mrs. Jones, consistently had students who did not score at grade level on standardized assessments of reading. With value-added analysis, the school can learn that Mrs. Jones' students were reading on a third-grade level when they entered her class, and that they were above a fourth-grade performance level at the end of the school year. While not yet reaching appropriate grade level, Mrs. Jones' students had made more than a year's progress in her class. Because of value-added data, the school can see that she is an effective teacher.

The school could not have seen this effectiveness without a data system that connects student and teacher data. Furthermore, multiple years of data are necessary to enable meaningful determinations of teacher effectiveness. Value-added analysis requires both student and teacher identifiers and the ability to match test records over time.

There are a number of responsible uses for value-added analysis.

Assessing Individual Teachers: With three years of good data, value-added analysis can identify the strongest and weakest teachers; however, it is not as useful at distinguishing differences among teachers in the middle range of performance. This is why value-added analysis should be used only to provide part of the evidence of teacher effectiveness.

School Performance: Value-added analysis can accurately assess the learning gains and losses made in a single school with less risk of measurement error. The U.S. Department of Education is working with states to pilot something akin to value-added analysis, known as "student growth" models, to determine schools' Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Student growth models are not as effective as value-added models at controlling for factors other than the quality of the teacher. However, these models are still valuable for providing a measure of academic improvement for the school overall, leaving open their potential use for determining school-wide bonuses. A good value-added model is a subset of a student growth model; it can more precisely separate out nonschool effects on learning, making it possible to better distinguish a specific teacher's impact.

Applicability to All Teachers: Many critics of value-added models dismiss them because they can only be used for teachers in tested subjects. While some subjects do not lend themselves to a value-added model, more teachers may be eligible than may be immediately obvious. For example, student reading scores are affected by the quality of social studies and science instruction, not just language arts instruction. Reading comprehension is directly connected to student learning of broad subject matter, including history, geography and science. **High School:** A value-added model is theoretically most useful at the high school level, where teachers are typically assigned many more students, making annual results more reliable. Data from an elementary class size of 20 to 30 students can produce relatively unstable results for a single year. A high school teacher, however, will be assigned on average 120 students, which would yield a much more stable, reliable indicator of actual teacher performance. Use at the high school level would require states to adopt reliable pre- and post-tests in core subject areas.

Pilots: States can directly and indirectly encourage districts to implement value-added analysis. By piloting value-added analysis in districts or schools, the states can directly encourage development of this valuable tool for eventual statewide use. Other programs, such as state-sponsored pay-for-performance programs that base bonuses, in part, on teachers' ability to produce student academic gains, can indirectly encourage experimentation with value-added analysis.

Evaluating Teacher-Preparation Programs: Another innovative use for value-added analysis is its inclusion in the evaluation of teacher preparation programs. Value-added analysis that measures the effectiveness of program graduates can provide valuable information that can be used to hold poor teacher preparation programs accountable, as well as identify strong programs that can be models for best practices.

Area 3: Goal B Evaluation of Effectiveness

Rationale

Teachers should be judged primarily by their impact on students.

While many factors should be considered in formally evaluating a teacher, nothing is more important than effectiveness in the classroom. Unfortunately, districts use many evaluation instruments, some mandated by states, that are structured so that teachers can earn a satisfactory rating without any evidence that they are sufficiently advancing student learning in the classroom. It is often enough that teachers just appear to be trying, not necessarily succeeding.

Many evaluation instruments give as much weight, or more, to factors that lack any direct correlation with student performance, for example, taking professional development courses, assuming extra duties such as sponsoring a club or mentoring, and getting along well with colleagues. Some instruments hesitate to hold teachers accountable for student progress. Teacher evaluation instruments should include factors that combine both human judgment and objective measures of student learning.

A teacher evaluation instrument that focuses on student learning could include the following components:

A. Observation

1. Ratings should be based on multiple observations by multiple persons, usually the principal and senior faculty, within the same year to produce a more accurate rating than is possible with a single observation. Teacher observers should be trained to use a valid and reliable observation protocol (meaning that it has been tested to ensure that the results are trustworthy and useful). The observers should assign degrees of proficiency to observed behaviors.

2. The primary observation component should be the quality of instruction, as measured by student time on task, student grasp or mastery of the lesson objective and efficient use of class time.

3. Other factors often considered in the course of an observation can provide useful information, including:

- questioning techniques and other methods for engaging class;
- differentiation of instruction;
- continual student checks for understanding throughout lesson;
- appropriate lesson structure and pacing;
- appropriate grouping structures;
- reinforcement of student effort; and
- classroom management and use of effective classroom routines.

Other elements commonly found on many instruments, such as "makes appropriate and effective use of technology" and "ties lesson into previous and future learning experiences" may seem important but can be difficult to document reliably in an observation. Having too many elements can distract the observer from the central question: "Are students learning?"

B. Objective Measures of Student Learning

Apart from the observation, the evaluation instrument should provide evidence of work performance. Many districts use portfolios, which create a lot of work for the teacher and may be unreliable indicators of effectiveness. Good and lesscumbersome alternatives to the standard portfolio exist, for example:

- The value that a teacher adds, as measured by standardized test scores;
- Periodic standardized diagnostic assessments;
- Benchmark assessments that show student growth;
- Artifacts of student work connected to specific student learning standards that are randomly selected for review by the principal or senior faculty and scored using rubrics and descriptors;
- Examples of typical assignments, assessed for their quality and rigor; and
- Periodic checks on progress with the curriculum (e.g., progress on textbook) coupled with evidence of student mastery of the curriculum from quizzes, tests, and exams.

Area 3: Goal C Frequency of Evaluations

Rationale

Annual evaluations are standard practice in most professional jobs.

Most states do not mandate annual evaluations of teachers who have reached permanent or tenured status. The lack of regular evaluations is unique to the teaching profession and does little to advance the notion that teachers are professionals.

Further, teacher evaluations are too often treated as mere formalities, rather than as important tools for rewarding good teachers, helping average teachers improve, and holding weak teachers accountable for poor performance. State policy should reflect the importance of evaluations so that teachers and principals alike take their consequences seriously (see Goal 5-B).

Evaluations are especially important for new teachers.

Individuals new to a profession frequently have reduced responsibilities coupled with increased oversight. As competencies are demonstrated, new responsibilities are added and supervision decreases. Such is seldom the case for new teachers, who generally have the same classroom responsibilities as veteran teachers, including responsibility for the academic progress of their students, but may receive limited feedback on their performance. In the absence of good metrics for determining who will be an effective teacher before he or she begins to teach, it is critical that schools and districts closely monitor the performance of new teachers.

States should require that districts formally evaluate new teachers at least twice annually. A formal evaluation results in a rating that becomes part of the teacher's record. Evaluations should not be treated as formalities; they are an important tool for identifying teachers' strengths and areas that need improvement. Although the goal should always be to provide feedback and support that will help teachers address weaknesses, evaluations also serve an important purpose in holding weak teachers accountable for continued poor performance.

The state should specifically require that districts evaluate new teachers early in the school year. This policy would help ensure that new teachers get the support they need early and that supervisors know from the beginning of the school year which new teachers (and which students) may be at risk. Requiring at least one additional evaluation provides important data about the teacher's ability to improve. Data from evaluations from the teacher's early years of teaching can then be used as part of the performance-based evidence to make a decision about tenure.

Area 3: Goal D Tenure

Rationale

Tenure should be a significant and consequential milestone in a teacher's career.

The decision to give teachers tenure (or permanent status) is usually made automatically, with little thought, deliberation or consideration of actual evidence. State policy should reflect the fact that initial certification is temporary and probationary, and that tenure is intended to be a significant reward for teachers who have consistently shown effectiveness and commitment. Tenure and advanced certification are not rights implied by the conferring of an initial teaching certificate. No other profession, including higher education, offers practitioners tenure after only a few years of working in the field.

To make tenure meaningful, states should require a clear process, such as a hearing, for districts to use when considering whether a teacher advances from probationary to permanent status. Such process would ensure that the local district reviews the teacher's performance before making a determination. This also protects the teacher's rights, as he or she knows of the process and has an opportunity to participate.

States should also ensure that evidence of effectiveness is the preponderant (but not the only) criterion for making tenure decisions. Most states confer tenure at a point that is too early for the collection of sufficient and adequate data that reflect teacher performance. Ideally, states would accumulate such data for five years. This robust data set would prevent effective teachers from being unfairly denied tenure based on too little data and ineffective teachers from being granted tenure.

Area 3: Goal E Licensure Advancement

Rationale

The reason for probationary licensure should be to determine teacher effectiveness.

Most states grant new teachers a probationary license that must later be converted to an advanced or professional license. A probationary period is sound policy as it provides an opportunity to determine whether individuals merit professional licensure. However, very few states require any determination of teacher performance or effectiveness in deciding whether a teacher will advance from the probationary license. Instead, states generally require probationary teachers to fulfill a set of requirements to receive advanced certification. Thus, ending the probationary period is based on whether a checklist has been completed, rather than on teacher performance and effectiveness.

Most state requirements for achieving permanent certification have not been shown to impact teacher effectiveness.

Unfortunately, not only do most states fail to connect advanced certification to actual evidence of teacher effectiveness, but the requirements teachers must most often meet are not even related to teacher effectiveness. The most common requirement for permanent licensure is completion of additional coursework, often resulting in a master's degree. Requiring teachers to obtain additional training in their teaching area would be meaningful; however, the requirements are usually vague, allowing the teacher to fulfill coursework requirements from long menus that include areas having no connection or use to the teacher in the classroom. The research evidence on requiring a master's degree is quite conclusive: these degrees have not been shown to make teachers more effective. This is likely due in no small part to the fact that teachers generally do not attain master's degrees in their subject areas. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, fewer than one-fourth of secondary teachers' master's degrees are in their subject area, and only 7 percent of elementary teachers' master's degrees are in an academic subject.

In addition to their dubious value, these requirements may also serve as a disincentive to teacher retention. Talented probationary teachers may be unwilling to invest time and resources in more education coursework. Further, they may well pursue advanced degrees that facilitate leaving teaching.

Area 3: Goal F Equitable Distribution

Rationale

Distribution data should show more than just teachers' years of experience and highly qualified status.

The first step in addressing the distribution of teachers is bringing transparency to the issue. States generally report little more than what is required by No Child Left Behind, which highlights years of experience and HQT status. However, while teaching experience matters, the benefits of experience are largely accumulated within the first few years of teaching. School districts that try to equalize experience among all schools are overestimating its impact. There is no reason why a school with many teachers with only three or five years' experience cannot outperform a school with teachers who have an average of more than ten years' experience.

For this reason, states need to report data that are more informative about a school's teachers. States can accomplish this by using an index for quantifying important teacher credentials found to correlate with student achievement. A good example of a strong index is the academic capital index developed by the Illinois Education Research Council, incorporating teachers' average SAT or ACT scores; the percentage of teachers failing basic skills licensure test at least once; the percentage of teachers on emergency credentials; average selectivity of teachers' undergraduate colleges; and the percentage of new teachers. These factors are complicated, so the state should install a system that translates them into something more easily understood, such as a color-coded matrix indicating a high or low score for a school.

States need to report data at the level of the individual school.

Only by achieving greater stability in the staffing of individual schools can districts achieve the nation's goal of more equitable distribution of teacher quality. A strong reporting system reflecting the index described above, as well as data on teacher attrition, teacher absenteeism and teacher credentials can lend much-needed transparency to those factors that contribute to staffing instability and inequity.

The lack of such data feeds a misconception that all high-poverty schools are similarly unable to retain staff because of their socioeconomic and racial status. If collected and disaggregated to the level of the individual school, however, such data could shift the focus of districts and states toward the quality of leadership at the school level and away from the notion that instability and inequity are unavoidable consequences of poverty and race. Variations in staff stability are huge among schools with similar numbers of poor and/or minority children. School culture, largely determined by school leadership, contributes greatly to teacher morale, which in turn affects teacher success and student achievement. By revealing these variations among schools facing the same challenges, school leadership can be held accountable--and rewarded when successful.

Within-district comparisons are crucial in order to control for as many elements specific to a district as possible, such as a collective bargaining agreement (or the district's personnel policies) and the amount of resources.

Area 4: Goal A Induction

Rationale

Too many new teachers are left to "sink or swim" when they begin teaching.

Most new teachers are overwhelmed and undersupported at the outset of their teaching careers. Although differences in preparation programs and routes to the classroom do affect readiness, even teachers from the most rigorous programs need support once they take on the myriad responsibilities of a teacher of record. A survival-of-the-fittest mentality prevails in many schools; figuring out how to successfully negotiate unfamiliar curricula, discipline and management issues, and labyrinthine school and district procedures is considered a rite of passage. However, new teacher frustrations are not limited to low performers. Many talented new teachers become disillusioned early by the lack of support they receive, and it may be the most talented who will more likely explore other career options.

Vague requirements simply to provide mentoring are insufficient.

Although many states recognize the need to provide mentoring to new teachers, state policies merely indicating that mentoring should occur will not ensure that districts provide new teachers with quality mentoring experiences. While allowing flexibility for districts to develop and implement programs in line with local priorities and resources, states also should articulate the minimum requirements for these programs in terms of the frequency and duration of mentoring and the qualifications of those serving as mentors.

New teachers in high-needs schools particularly need quality mentoring.

Retaining effective teachers in high-needs schools is especially challenging. States should ensure that districts place special emphasis on mentoring programs in these schools, particularly when limited resources may prevent the district from providing mentoring to all new teachers.

Area 4: Goal B Pay Scales

Rationale

Compensation reform can be accomplished within the context of local control.

Teacher pay is, and should be, largely a local issue. Districts should not face state-imposed regulatory obstacles that prevent them from paying their teachers as they see fit; different communities have different resources, needs and priorities. States should remove any barriers to districts' autonomy in deciding the terms for teacher compensation packages.

The state can ensure that all teachers are treated fairly by determining a minimum starting salary for all teachers. However, a state-mandated salary schedule that locks in pay increases or requires uniform pay deprives districts of the ability to be flexible and responsive to supply-and-demand problems that may occur.

There is an important difference between a state's setting the minimum teacher salary and setting a salary schedule.

What is the difference between establishing a minimum starting salary and a salary schedule? Maine, for example, set a minimum starting salary of \$30,000 for its teachers in 2007-2008. No district may pay less. In contrast, Washington, like many states, has established a salary schedule that lays out what the minimum salary must be at every level. A teacher who has been teaching for four years and has a master's degree may not be paid less than \$40,998. One who has taught for four years and does not have a master's degree may not be paid less than \$34,464. While most districts exceed the state minimum, setting the salary schedule forces districts to adhere to a compensation system

that is primarily based on experience and degree status, even when they would like to have other options.

It should also be noted that the minimums set by many states-whether a minimum starting salary or a complete schedule--are woefully out-of-date, not having been updated for 20 years or more in some cases. The starting salary in Louisiana, for example, has been just over \$12,000 since 1987; the Massachusetts minimum of \$18,000 dates to 1988. Rather than maintain policies lacking meaningful guidance to districts or assurance to teachers, states should remove these regulations and send a clear message to districts that they can decide how to compensate their teachers.

Area 4: Goal C Retention Pay Rationale

Connecting additional compensation to the awarding of tenure would add to its significance and improve teacher retention.

Starting salaries for teachers have risen significantly in many states over the last decade. While this may help attract promising candidates, the small pay increases that generally follow, particularly in the first few years of teaching, may deter retention. Most state and district salary schedules provide only small percentage increases in the early years, with the percentage increases widening later. Longevity bonuses are also common. A better strategy would be to connect a significant pay increase to the awarding of tenure, but only if tenure is based on a determination of effectiveness.

A tenure-connected pay increase, whether a significant salary increase or a single lump-sum payment, would serve two important and complementary purposes. First, connecting this payment to a meaningful process for awarding tenure to effective teachers would enhance public understanding that tenure is not awarded automatically to just anyone. In addition, it would provide an important retention strategy, as teachers at the beginning of their careers would know that they will receive additional compensation at the conclusion of their probationary periods if their effectiveness is demonstrated.

Area 4: Goal D Compensation for Prior Work Experience

Rationale

Districts should be allowed to pay new teachers with relevant work experience more than other new teachers.

State and district salary structures frequently fail to recognize that new teacher hires are not necessarily new to the workforce. Some new teachers bring with them deep work experience that is directly related to the subject matter they will teach. For example, the hiring of a new high school chemistry teacher with 20 years experience as a chemical engineer would most certainly be a great boon to any district. Yet most salary structures would place this individual at the same point on the schedule as a new teacher straight out of college. Compensating these teachers commensurate with their experience is an important retention (as well as recruitment) strategy, particularly when other, nonteaching opportunities in these fields are likely to be more financially lucrative.

As discussed in Goal 4-B, specifics of teacher pay should largely be left to local decision making. However, states should use policy mechanisms to inform districts that it is not only permissible but also necessary to compensate new teachers with related prior work experience appropriately.

Area 4: Goal E Differential Pay

Rationale

States should take the lead in addressing chronic shortages and needs.

As discussed in Goal 4-B, states should ensure that state-level policies (such as a uniform salary schedule) do not interfere with districts' flexibility in compensating teachers in ways that best meet their individual needs and resources. However, when it comes to addressing chronic shortages, states should do more than simply get out of the way. They should provide direct support for differential pay for effective teaching in shortage subject areas and high-needs schools. Attracting effective and qualified teachers to high-needs schools or filling vacancies in hard-to-staff subjects are problems that are frequently beyond a district's ability to solve. States that provide direct support for differential pay in these areas are taking an important step in promoting the equitable distribution of quality teachers. Short of providing direct support, states can also use policy levers to indicate to districts that differential pay is not only permissible but necessary.

Area 4: Goal F Performance Pay

Rationale

Performance pay is an important retention strategy.

Performance pay provides an opportunity to reward those teachers who consistently achieve positive results from their students. The traditional salary schedule used by districts pays all teachers with the same inputs (i.e., experience and degree status) the same amount regardless of outcomes. Not only is following a mandated schedule inconsistent with most other professions, it may also deter high-achieving teachers from staying in the field, because it offers no opportunity for financial reward for success.

States should set guidelines for districts to ensure that plans are fair and sound.

Performance pay plans are not easy to implement well. There are numerous examples of both state and district initiatives that have been undone by poor planning and administration. The methodology that allows for the measurement of teachers' contributions to student achievement is still developing, and any performance pay program must recognize its limitations (see Goal 3-A for more on the appropriate uses of this methodology). There are also inherent issues of fairness that should be considered when different types of data must be used to assess the performance of different kinds of teachers.

States can play an important role in supporting performance pay by setting guidelines (whether for a state-level program or for districts' own initiatives) that recognize the challenges in implementing a program well. Because this is an area in which there is still much to learn about best practice, states should consider piloting local initiatives as a way to expand the use of and knowledge base around performance pay.

Area 4: Goal G Pension Sustainability

Rationale

Many states' pension systems are based on promises they cannot afford to keep.

Teacher salaries are just one part of the compensation package that teachers receive. Virtually all teachers are also entitled to a pension, which, upon vesting, provides compensation for the rest of their lives after retirement. In an era when retirement benefits have been shrinking across industries and professions, teachers' generous pensions remain fixed. In fact, nearly all states continue to provide teachers with a defined-benefit pension system, an expensive and inflexible model that neither reflects the realities of the modern workforce nor provides equitable benefits to all teachers.

Under defined benefit systems, states have made an obligation to fund fixed benefits for teachers at retirement. However, the financial health and sustainability of many states' systems are questionable at best. Some systems carry high levels of unfunded liabilities, with no strategy to pay these liabilities down in a reasonable period, as defined by standard accounting practices. Without reform, these systems are a house of cards, vulnerable to collapse as funding cannot keep up with promised benefits. And it is taxpayers who will have to pay if it all tumbles down.

Pension plans disadvantage teachers early in their careers by overcommitting employer resources to retirement benefits.

The contribution of employers to their workers' retirement benefits is a valuable benefit, important to ensuring that individuals have sufficient retirement savings. Compensation resources, however, are not unlimited, and they must fund both current salaries and future retirement benefits. Mandated employer contributions to many states' teacher pension systems are extremely high, leaving districts with little flexibility to be more innovative with their compensation strategies. This is further exacerbated for states in which teachers also participate in Social Security, requiring the district to pay even more toward teacher retirement. While retirement savings in addition to Social Security are necessary, states are mandating contributions to two inflexible plans, rather than permitting options for teachers or their employing districts.

This approach to compensation disadvantages teachers early in their careers, as the commitment of resources to retirement benefits almost certainly depresses salaries and prevents incentives. Lower mandatory employer contribution rates (in states where they are too high; in some states they are shamefully low) would free up compensation resources to implement the kinds of strategies suggested elsewhere in the *Yearbook*. In addition, some states require high employee contributions; the impact this has on teachers' paychecks may impact retention, especially early in teachers' careers.

Area 4: Goal H Pension Flexibility

Rationale

Anachronistic features of teacher pension plans disadvantage teachers early in their careers.

Nearly all states continue to provide teachers with a defined benefit pension system, an expensive and inflexible model that neither reflects the realities of the modern workforce nor provides equitable benefits to all teachers. To achieve the maximum benefits from such a plan, a teacher must begin and end his or her career in the same pension system. Teachers who leave before vesting--which is as much as 10 years in some states--are generally entitled to nothing more than their own contributions plus some interest. This approach may well serve as a retention strategy for some, but on a larger scale, it fails to reflect the realities of the current workforce. At present, the United States is experiencing an explosion in school-age populations in some states, while others decline. The nation's workforce needs to be able to respond to these changes. The current workforce is increasingly mobile, with most entering the workforce expecting to change jobs many times. All workers, including teachers, may move to jobs in other states with no intention of changing careers. To younger teachers in particular, a defined benefit plan may seem like a meaningless part of the compensation package and thus fail to attract young talent to the profession. A pension plan that cannot move across state lines and requires a longterm commitment may not seem like much of a benefit at all.

There are alternatives. Defined contribution plans are fair to all teachers, at all points in their careers. These plans are more equitable because each teacher's benefits are funded by his or her

own contributions plus contributions from the employer specifically on the individual employee's behalf. This is fundamentally more equitable than defined benefit plans, which are generally structured to require new teachers to fund the benefits of retirees. Moreover, defined contribution plans are inherently portable and give employees flexibility and control over their retirement savings. It must also be noted that defined benefit plans can be portable and fair, if structured as cash balance plans or plans that permit the withdrawal of employer contributions.

Area 4: Goal I Pension Neutrality

Rationale

It is unfair to all teachers when pension wealth does not accumulate in a uniform way.

In addition to the ways defined benefit pension systems disadvantage teachers described in Goal 4-H, the way pension wealth accumulates in some systems further compounds the inequity. All pension systems use a multiplier to calculate the benefits an individual is entitled to receive based on salary levels and years of service. For example, a pension system may have a multiplier of 2.0. In such case, pension benefits are determined by multiplying average final annual salary by years of service and then multiplying the product by 2.0. Thus, someone working fewer years with a lower final salary would appropriately receive less in benefits than someone with more years of service and/or a higher final salary. However, the multiplier in many pension systems is not fixed; it increases as years of service increase. When a higher multiplier is used, teachers receive even more generous benefits.

Another way that pension benefits are awarded unfairly is through the common policy of setting retirement eligibility at different ages and years of service. In Hawaii, for example, a teacher with 30 years of service may retire at age 55, while teachers with fewer years of service may not retire until age 62. This means that a teacher who started teaching in Hawaii at age 25 would reach 30 years of service at age 55 and receive seven additional years of full retirement benefits beyond what a teacher that started at age 32 and cannot retire with full benefits until age 62 would receive. A fair system would set a standard retirement age for all participants, without factoring in years of service.

Pension systems affect when teachers decide to retire as they look to maximize their pension wealth.

The year teachers reach retirement eligibility by age and/or years of service, their pension wealth peaks; pension wealth then declines for each year they work beyond retirement age. Plans that allow retirement based on years of service create unnecessary peaks, and plans that allow a low retirement age create an incentive to retire earlier in one's career than may be necessary. For every year teachers continue to work beyond their eligibility for unreduced retirement benefits, they lose that year of pension benefits, thus decreasing their overall pension wealth. Although their yearly pension benefits would continue to rise as they earn additional service credit, it would only be at a small percentage per year, which would not make up for the loss of each year of benefits.

To try to balance this incentive to retire, some states have created DROP (Deferred Retirement Option Plan) programs. DROP programs allow participants to place their monthly pension benefits in a private investment account while still teaching and earning a salary, thus retaining those benefits. These teachers are, in effect, earning their pension and salary at the same time, and often at a relatively young age.

A DROP program is a band-aid on the problem; it does not fix what is structurally wrong--retirement at an early age without reduction of benefits. For example, the hypothetical teacher above decides to forgo retiring at age 47 in order to wait and qualify for her state's DROP program at age 55. She now has 33 years of service and has reached a pension equal to 66 percent of her salary. She remains in DROP for the maximum allowable five years. During that time, her five years of lost pension benefits plus her five years of mandatory employee pension contribution have been deposited in a private investment account. Upon retiring at age 60, she would receive the total of that private account plus a lifetime pension benefit annually of 66 percent of her final salary. With the lump-sum payment of her DROP account and monthly pension benefit, she will receive 100 percent of her final average salary for at least 10 years, and, depending on the state, she may also receive Social Security benefits. This generous guaranteed payout would be hard to find in any other profession.

DROP programs do create an incentive for some teachers to remain past their eligible retirement, but at a high cost. DROP programs mean that districts still must find the funds to pay pension benefits to teachers at a relatively young age when those dollars could be more effectively spent.

Area 5: Goal A Licensure Loopholes

Rationale

Teachers who have not passed licensing tests may place students at risk.

While states may need a regulatory basis for filling classroom positions with a few people who do not hold full teaching credentials, many of the regulations permitting this put the instructional needs of children at risk, often year after year. For example, schools can make liberal use of provisional certificates or waivers provided by the state if they fill classroom positions with instructors who have completed a teacher preparation program but have not passed their state licensing tests. These allowances are permitted for up to three years in some states. The unfortunate consequence is that students' needs are neglected in an effort to extend personal consideration to adults who cannot meet minimal state standards. While some flexibility may be necessary because licensing tests are not always administered with the needed frequency, the availability of provisional certificates and waivers year after year signals that even the state does not put much value on its licensing standards or what they represent. States accordingly need to ensure that all persons given full charge of children's learning are required to pass the relevant licensing tests in their first year of teaching, ideally before they enter the classroom. Licensing tests are an important minimum benchmark in the profession, and states that allow teachers to postpone passing these tests are abandoning one of the basic responsibilities of licensure.

Area 5: Goal B Unsatisfactory Evaluations

Rationale

Negative evaluations should have meaningful consequences.

Teacher evaluations are too often treated as mere formalities, rather than as important tools for rewarding good teachers, helping average teachers to improve and holding weak teachers accountable for poor performance. State policy should reflect the importance of evaluations so that teachers and principals alike take their consequences seriously. Accordingly, states should articulate the consequences of negative evaluations. First, teachers that receive a negative evaluation should be placed on improvement plans. These plans should focus on performance areas that directly connect to student learning and should list noted deficiencies, define specific action steps necessary to address these deficiencies and describe how progress will be measured. While teachers that receive negative evaluations should receive support and additional training, opportunities to improve should not be unlimited. States should articulate policies wherein two negative evaluations within five years are sufficient justification for dismissal.

Employment status should not determine the consequences of a negative evaluation.

Differentiating consequences of a negative evaluation based on whether a teacher has probationary or nonprobationary status puts the interests of adults before those of students. Ideally, weaknesses and deficiencies would be identified and corrected during the probationary period: if the deficiencies were found to be insurmountable, the teacher would not be awarded permanent status. However, in the absence of meaningful tenure processes based on teacher effectiveness, limiting significant consequences to the probationary period is insufficient. Any teacher who receives a negative evaluation, regardless of employment status, should be placed on an improvement plan, and any teacher who receives multiple negative evaluations, regardless of employment status, should be eligible for dismissal.

Area 5: Goal C Dismissal for Poor Performance

Rationale

States need to be explicit that teacher ineffectiveness is grounds for dismissal.

Most states have laws on their books that address teacher dismissal; however, these laws are much more likely to consider criminal and moral violations than performance. When performance is included, it is usually in a euphemistic term such as "incompetency," "inefficiency" or "incapacity." These terms are ambiguous at best and may be interpreted as concerning dereliction of duty rather than ineffectiveness. Without laws that clearly state that teacher ineffectiveness is grounds for dismissal, districts may feel they lack the legal basis for terminating consistently poor performers.

Due process must be efficient and expedited.

Teachers who are dismissed for any grounds, including ineffectiveness, are entitled to due process. However, process rights that allow for multiple levels of appeal are not fair to teachers, districts and especially students. All parties have a right to have disputes settled quickly. Cases that drag on for years drain resources from school districts and create a disincentive for districts to attempt to terminate poor performers. Teachers are not well served by such processes either, as they are entitled to final resolution quickly.

Decisions about teachers should be made by those with educational expertise.

Multiple levels of appeal almost invariably involve courts or arbitrators who lack educational expertise. It is not in students' best interest to have the evidence of teachers' effectiveness evaluated by those who are not educators. Teachers' opportunity to appeal should occur at the district level and involve only those with educational expertise. This can be done in a manner that is fair to all parties by including retired teachers or other knowledgeable individuals who are not current district employees.

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