



## UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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## COMMENTS:

Is this what you're looking for? Hope so.  
Will call you next afternoon....

TOTAL PAGES (Including Cover): 2

Jo Ann O'Leary

## Education

Over the next ten years, the United States needs to hire 250,000 teachers a year. Twenty percent of all new teachers leave the profession within five years and the number is growing. More than half New York State's teachers are eligible for retirement within 10 years and more than 14,000 of New York City's 75,000 public school teachers plan to retire over the next 18 months. New York City is facing its worst teacher shortage ever, expecting to lose 54,000 of its 75,000 teachers - 72% - during the next five years. In addition, of the 10,000 uncertified teachers in New York State, 9,000 practice in New York City. Math, science, bilingual education and special education have the most serious certified teacher shortages.

In 1998, the national average teacher salary was \$39,347, while the average salary for a lawyer was \$71,530 and for an engineer, \$64,489. New York City teachers face a 25 percent gap between their pay and their suburban counterparts' earnings - as much as \$30,000 more per year. New York graduates roughly 21,000 teachers each year -- only to see two-thirds of them hired in other states that offer better opportunities.

### Pay-for-Performance

#### Background

Traditionally, teachers' salaries have been based upon a single salary schedule, in which individual teachers are paid on the basis of their years of experience and educational units and degrees. This system has been used in nearly every state and school district for more than fifty years. Until recently, attempts to change compensation methods have failed. In the 1980s, various districts experimented with career ladders and "merit pay" plans, however, very few of these experimental systems still survive today. The single salary schedule remains the most prevalent salary structure.

National pay-for-performance proposals would award competitive grants to high-poverty urban and rural school districts to help them attract and retain high-quality teachers and principals through better pay and higher standards. In order to receive funding, partnerships involving school districts, local businesses, and teacher's unions, would take aggressive steps to raise teacher standards and provide professional development and intensive support to help all teachers and principals succeed. Participating partnerships would agree on steps to reward good teaching, provide mentors for new teachers and principals, recruit talented new teachers, and adopt faster, but fair ways to identify, improve, and when necessary remove low performing teachers. School districts would require rigorous peer evaluations to identify potential master teachers, provide advice and extra help to all teachers, and identify those who should be placed into a program to improve, or when necessary remove low-performing teachers.

Under this proposal, all teachers in participating school districts would receive up to a \$5,000 salary increase. Master teachers, reaching an advanced professional standard, would receive an additional \$5,000 salary increase - for example, given to those who get advanced certification through the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards Certification or those who pass a rigorous peer evaluation demonstrating high-quality teaching based on clearly defined and objective standards.

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Proponents of pay-for-performance salary structures argue that it would enhance teaching as a profession, reinforce the goals and strategies of standards-based educational reform while changing the way teachers are paid. Unions generally tend to oppose pay-for-performance schedules, but as states around the country experiment with the concept, teachers are gradually shifting their own attitudes toward developing performance-based salary structures. In contrast to Giuliani's "merit pay" system of rewarding individual teachers, pay-for-performance systems are group-based, offering collective incentive-pay plans. This distinction highlights the concept that student outcomes are often the joint product of many teachers working together in a school.

Vice President Al Gore has proposed rewarding good teachers by giving bonuses to master teachers, teachers certified by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards and teachers in schools that have shown improved student performance. At the National Education Summit in Palisades, New York in September 1999, President Clinton endorsed a conference plan calling for 10 states to create programs linking teachers' pay with performance.

#### Experiments in Various States

Kentucky has the longest-running experiment with teacher pay-for-performance. In 1990, Kentucky established a statewide system of rewards designed as collective incentives, as opposed to individual merit pay plans. The first round of testing took place in 1995 and included \$26.1 million in rewards to schools and districts. The cash incentives ranged from \$1,300 to \$2,600 per teacher. Although initial reports indicated that the system had created rifts between teachers, parents and schools, legislators have agreed that the system has been successful in encouraging teachers to change what they are doing in the classroom.

In October 1999, the East Aurora, Illinois school board approved a 3-year contract with the districts' teachers, in which teachers agreed to link a portion of their salary to district-wide test achievement levels. According to the new contract, in order for teachers to receive pay raises based on performance, 10 percent of the students will have to ascend to the next category from "does not meet" to "meets" standards or from "meets" to "exceeds." California Governor Gray Davis recently approved \$50 million for one-time bonuses of up to \$25,000 for teachers in underachieving schools where students show substantial gains.

#### Merit Pay

Merit pay systems aim to identify and reward the "best" teachers with additional pay. Merit pay plans have met little success because of resentment fostered when the subjective judgments of administrators determine the pay. Critics of the merit pay system have pointed out that it assumes that the individual teacher has control over the achievement of the schools' goals, as opposed to the team of teachers in the school. Critics also contend that the merit pay system fails to link compensation with overall school/district-wide achievement goals and that it is at odds with the team-based, collegial character of well-functioning schools. In the education research community, the idea of a merit pay system is routinely criticized as a flawed system that fosters divisiveness and generally negative results.

In his State of the City address, Giuliani proposed replacing traditional civil service step raises with a new merit pay system. In his annual budget address, Giuliani proposed re-writing teacher contracts so that they include merit pay. His budget proposal set aside funds for a two-year collective bargaining agreement to provide a merit pay package for teachers. He advocates a system that would reward outstanding teachers with a 6 percent bonus and above average teachers with a 2 percent bonus. UFT President Randi Weingarten responded to Giuliani's recommendations by saying that she would allow a provision for bonuses only if the contract provided for an across-the-board wage increase at least equal to inflation. A Giuliani campaign ad, which aired in Rochester, New York, cited "merit pay for teachers" as one of the mayoral accomplishments. The only merit pay program in New York City is a pilot program in two Brooklyn school districts, where the New York City Partnership, a private organization, is awarding bonuses of \$15,000 a year to principals and \$2,000 a year to teachers if test scores improve at their schools. Mayor Giuliani has expressed interest in expanding the program despite warnings that it might encourage cheating.

### Attracting New Teachers National Teachers Corps

You could propose creating a National Teacher Corps that would eventually help 75,000 talented people each year become teachers in high-need schools. This includes providing college scholarships to 60,000 young people annually who commit to teach in high-need schools for at least four years as well as bonuses and training for 15,000 mid-career professionals to become teachers every year. We could explore a tax credit that would basically operate as loan forgiveness for new teachers. Vice President Gore has proposed a 21<sup>st</sup> Century Teachers Corps to reward college students who choose to teach in schools that need their help. Gore wants to attract bright and talented people by giving them hefty signing bonuses, setting the bounty at \$10,000 a head (an estimated \$750 million a year). Gore has suggested that these scholarships could be awarded through local public-private partnerships.

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### Pataki's Plan

In his State of the State address, Pataki announced a plan that would offer scholarships of \$3,400 per year to prospective teachers who would work in designated areas where there is a shortage of certified teachers. Additional money would be made available to help teachers with temporary licenses in order gain certification. The governor also called for creation of "alternative credentialing" of teachers that would allow people who have lived lives of accomplishments to serve as classroom teachers, even though they do not have traditional teacher training. The unions were critical of this plan. In January 1999, New York City Council Speaker Peter Vallone proposed an incentive program for new teachers that would pay for their graduate studies if they promised to work in city schools for at least three years. Sandra Feldman has called for dramatically higher salaries to counter anticipated shortages of up to 2.5 million teachers over the next ten years.

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Pre II HGA - TR (Enthusiasm)

In his State of the State address, Governor Pataki outlined his plan to attract new teachers to New York's schools. His "Teachers for Tomorrow" initiative would provide free tuition for students who commit to teach critical subjects in the most disadvantaged schools. (Private college students who make the same commitment will receive similar benefits.) This new program could attract 50,000 new teachers in this decade. Pataki's "Summer in the City" initiative would allow college juniors a chance to serve as tutors, classroom aides and student mentors in city summer schools. Pataki proposed allowing retired public employees—policemen, firemen, and others—to seek a second career as teachers, by eliminating the caps on the public salaries that they can earn while still receiving full retirement benefits. Pataki proposed providing support to cover the cost of the supplemental education and training that uncertified teachers need to pass certification tests.

While generally praising Pataki's Teachers of Tomorrow plan, New York State United Teachers claimed that the proposals did not go far enough, saying, "Attracting certified teachers to New York is only one piece of the solution. The other piece is investing in the teachers who are already in the classroom by providing critical training to help them hone their skills, and learn how to best help their students learn the more difficult Regents material." The United Federation of Teachers, the New York City teachers' union, gave a tempered response to the Governor's plan, noting that Mr. Pataki's plan gave with one hand while taking with the other, and termed it "a good start to this year's budget negotiations."

#### Administration's Proposals

In his State of the Union Address, the President announced a new \$1 billion teacher quality initiative that seeks to recruit, train and reward successful teachers. It will give grants to states and districts to fund high-quality, standards-based professional development for teachers. The President proposed a \$50 million initiative to award grants to high-poverty school districts to assist them in attracting and retaining skilled, knowledgeable teachers through better pay and higher standards. Under this plan, teachers would receive immediate pay increases and additional raises for exceptional performance. The President proposed a \$75 million initiative to enable high-poverty school districts to develop programs to recruit local teachers to respond to the shortage of qualified teachers. Such programs would inform students, beginning at the middle school level, of the opportunities available in the teaching profession; provide mentoring and teaching experiences as they progress through school; and provide financial assistance for students who enter college and pursue academic degrees with the goal of teaching in high-need communities after graduation.

#### **Teacher Testing**

##### Require Rigorous Tests For All New Teachers

The plan will require states, as a condition of receiving federal money, to test all new teachers for subject matter knowledge and teaching skills before they enter the classroom. As you know, New York requires that all new teachers are tested. In addition, you could discuss maintenance of certification requirements for existing teachers, which is already required in New York.

Renewed  
5 yrs?

### New York State

In September 1999, New York State education officials approved tougher certification exams for new teachers and stricter requirements on college teacher preparation programs. The changes will be phased in over the next five years. The key elements include: candidates must have majored in the field they want to teach and they must also pass a core of liberal-arts and science classes; the passing score for certification exams will be raised and candidates need to have 5 to 15 percent more correct answers; by 2004, colleges must have teacher-education programs accredited; temporary teaching certificates will be phased out by 2004; candidates will have three years instead of five after getting a bachelor's degree to obtain a master's degree.

Previously approved changes included: requiring teachers to complete 175 hours of continuing education every five years and threatening to close colleges if at least 80 percent of their graduates do not pass the certification tests. In 1998, the Regents approved a harder state certification exam to prepare teachers for the more difficult tests their students had to take. Critics of the educational establishment supports these changes, but concerns have been raised over whether these changes might become an added burden to cities who face the possibility of massive teacher shortages.

The Regents are pressuring teaching colleges to add full-time faculty and become nationally accredited. Presidents of the various SUNY campuses oppose the expenses necessary to meet this new requirement. Currently, only four teaching colleges in the state are accredited by the National Council of the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

Last year at City College, City University's largest teacher-ed program, only 49 percent of the 1,097 teacher candidates passed their certification exams. The statewide rate was 86 percent. Five CUNY colleges have been put on notice that their programs will be closed if they do not improve. Already, 10,000 of the city's 72,000 teachers are not certified in their subject areas. Eight percent of incoming community college students and 72 percent of senior college freshmen could not pass three high-school-level tests.

In November 1999, New York received a grade of B minus — the sixth-highest score in the country—in a national study on state efforts to boost teacher quality. The report applauded new regulations that require graduates of New York teacher training programs to pass licensing exams and take a substantial concentration of courses in the subjects they will teach.

### Vice President Gore

Vice President Gore has called for tough standards for licensing or tenure, with evaluations by teams of accomplished teachers and administrators and rigorous but fair performance evaluations after the granting of a teaching license. In addition, Gore has proposed fast but fair procedures for identifying, helping and when necessary removing low-performing teachers.

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**PRESIDENT CLINTON ANNOUNCES UNPRECEDENTED NATIONAL EFFORT  
TO IMPROVE OUR NATION'S SCHOOLS BY DRAMATICALLY  
INCREASING ACCOUNTABILITY AND INVESTMENT**

January 27, 2000

In his State of the Union Address President Clinton will announce an unprecedented national effort to demand more from our schools and to invest more in them. The President will propose: 1) the largest-ever expansion of after-school and summer school programs, to ensure that every child in every failing school can get extra help to meet high standards; 2) the largest increase in Head Start in history, to build the foundation for our long-term goal of universal pre-school; 3) dramatically increasing accountability in public schools by doubling funding to turn around low-performing schools and rewarding states that improve academic achievement; 4) a new teacher quality initiative to help states and districts recruit, train, and reward good teachers; and 5) a substantial increase in class size funding to put us nearly half way to our goal of hiring 100,000 new high-quality teachers.

**DOUBLING AFTER-SCHOOL TO HELP EVERY CHILD IN EVERY FAILING SCHOOL MEET HIGH STANDARDS.** The President will call on Congress to invest \$1 billion to expand after-school and summer school for students across the nation – more than double the \$453 million enacted last year, and the largest expansion ever proposed. With this increase, we can enable every child in every failing school to participate in quality extended learning programs and work toward higher academic standards. Studies have shown that extended learning programs such as after-school and summer school help improve student achievement in reading and math, as well as increase student safety and reduce juvenile crime. Under the President's proposal, the number of children served will triple from 850,000 to 2.5 million children.

**LARGEST HEAD START EXPANSION IN HISTORY.** The President will call on Congress to increase funding for Head Start by \$1 billion – the largest funding increase ever proposed for the program -- to provide Head Start and Early Head Start to approximately 950,000 children. This funding will bring within reach the President's goal of serving one million children in 2002 and builds the foundation for the long-term goal of universal pre-school. Head Start prepares low-income children for a lifetime of learning and development by providing early, rigorous and comprehensive child development. Early Head Start, created by the Clinton-Gore Administration in 1994, brings these services to families with children ages zero to three and to pregnant women. Since 1993, this Administration has already increased funding for Head Start by 90 percent. The President will also propose a \$600 million Early Learning Fund to improve child care quality and early childhood education for children under five.

**DOUBLING FUNDS TO TURN AROUND FAILING SCHOOLS AND GIVING STATES A NEW HIGH-PERFORMANCE BONUS.** In last year's State of the Union the President proposed the first-ever national initiative to hold schools accountable for results by turning around or closing failing schools. In November, the Congress appropriated \$134 million for the President's accountability fund. The President will call on Congress to nearly double this fund to \$250 million to turn around failing schools. The President also will propose a \$50 million initiative to provide high-performance bonuses to states that make exemplary progress in improving student performance and closing the achievement gap between high and low performing groups of students. States would be eligible for bonuses based on substantial overall improvements in student performance and significant narrowing of the achievement gap as indicated by performance on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP).

## **A NEW TEACHER QUALITY PLAN TO RECRUIT, TRAIN, AND REWARD GOOD**

**TEACHERS.** The President will propose a new \$1 billion initiative to improve teacher quality. The Teaching to High Standards Initiative will give grants to states and districts to fund high quality, standards-based professional development for teachers. It also includes several new proposals:

- **Higher Standards-Higher Pay for Teachers** – This \$50 million initiative will award grants to high-poverty school districts to help them attract and retain high-quality teachers through better pay and higher standards. Participating teachers would receive immediate pay increases and additional raises based on their demonstration of high-quality teaching through rigorous peer review.
- **Teacher Quality Rewards** – This \$50 million program will reward school districts that have made exceptional progress in reducing the number of uncertified teachers and teachers teaching outside their subject area. The President has proposed requiring states to ensure that 95 percent of teachers are certified and 95 percent of secondary teachers are teaching within field by 2004.
- **Hometown Teacher Recruitment** – This \$75 million program would empower high-poverty school districts to develop programs to recruit homegrown teachers to address the shortage of qualified teachers. Programs supported by this grant would make students aware, as early as middle school, of the opportunities available in the teaching profession; provide mentoring and teaching experiences as they progress through school; and provide financial assistance for students who enter college and pursue academic degrees with the goal of teaching in high-need communities after graduation.
- **Transition to Teaching** – This \$25 million initiative will build on the success of the Department of Defense's Troops to Teachers program by recruiting and preparing talented mid-career professionals from diverse fields to become teachers in high-need subject areas and high-need schools.
- **School Leaders Initiative** – This \$40 million program will fund non-profit partnerships designed to recruit, prepare and provide professional development for superintendents and principals, and other school leaders.

## **MORE HIGH-QUALITY TEACHERS FOR SMALLER CLASS SIZES IN THE EARLY**

**GRADES.** The President will call on Congress to continue its commitment to reduce class size in the early grades by staying on a path to hiring 100,000 high quality teachers. The President will propose boosting class size funding to \$1.75 billion, an increase of \$450 million over current levels – enough to fund about 49,000 teachers, nearly half way to our long-term goal. Smaller classes allow teachers to spend more time on instruction and less time on discipline, and provide more individualized attention. Research shows that students attending small classes in the early grades make more rapid educational progress than students in larger classes. New teachers hired under this program must be qualified and know the subjects they are teaching.

Ann—

Here's two parts of the FY2000 WH recruitment options. I just sent an email updating the progress of each piece, and I assume we'll hear from Jon whenever he wants to collect. In the meantime, I'll see you in the morning and I'll hit teacher quality hard for a couple days.

I talked with the head of recruiting at Teach for America, who had much to say about the nature of their recruiting success. I'm not totally turned off by the university recruiting idea; I'm not sure about the capacity of a Dept-initiated program to actually follow through on it, but there are definitely merits to their current strategy. Also, there's a new spin-off group from Teach for America called "The New Teacher Project," which sends TforA alums to interested districts to act as consultants to their administrators, and to help them tailor some successful recruiting strategies to their own district's need. Interesting, eh?

Ok, see you tomorrow morning.

Take care,

Courtney

### **FY2000 Recruitment: National Teaching Fellows**

In an effort to attract the best and brightest prospective teachers into the profession, one option would be to offer scholarships for college tuition and expenses to high-performing high-school juniors or seniors. These scholarships would be tied to a commitment to teach in one of the high-demand subject areas of math or science. To help to fill the demand for urban and high-poverty teachers, the scholarships could be greater for those students committing to serve in a designated high-need district. Alternatively, if the financial support were offered in the form of loan forgiveness, the payback period could be longer for teachers in urban/high-poverty districts than teachers working elsewhere.

Process: Target students in their junior year who indicate an interest in teaching. Offer scholarships (e.g., \$10,000 yearly for up to 4 years) to be applied toward their instruction in a mathematics or science major at a college of their choice that includes a teacher ed program (*would this be an avenue to require that the teacher ed program be National Board certified?*). The student would commit to teaching in a math or science subject area for a specified number of years, and would receive some kind of bonus for teaching in a high-poverty or urban district.

Operational question:

- Administered by whom? At the state level? Each state might have 6 fellows per year, to be selected by state education agencies based on ED-supported criteria.

#### ***Optional methods to target eligible scholarship applicants would include:***

- (1) *Top 5% of graduates nationwide.* We expect there to be 2,811,000 high school graduates in June 1999. The top 5% would be 140,500 students who are eligible to apply for Fellow positions. If we extrapolate the only statistic on career interest we have (4% of National Merit Scholars indicate interest in education) to the larger population of top 5% of all schools, we reach a rough estimate of 5,622 top-5% students aimed toward the education profession. Of that pool of eligible *and interested* applicants, the selection process could take into account PSAT scores, references, etc.

Determination of the selection process could limit the scope of the program to any level we desire, i.e., we could limit the eligibility pool to top 1%, yielding 28,110 eligible students. If interest levels are at 4%, there would be 1,400 top-1% students aimed toward the education profession. Of this smaller pool of eligible and interested applicants, the selection process could further limit the number of fellows to within whatever necessary funding level.

*Top 5%, no further selection process:*

\$40,000 per student:  $(40,000 \times 5622) = \$224.9$  million.

\$ 5,000 per student:  $(5,000 \times 5622) = \$ 28.2$  million.

*Top 1%, no further selection process:*

\$40,000 per student:  $(40,000 \times 1400) = \$56.2$  million.

\$ 5,000 per student:  $(5,000 \times 1400) = \$ 7.0$  million.

- (2) *National Merit scholars (or scholars + finalists, or scholars + finalists + semi-finalists)*. The College Board estimates 7,600 National Merit scholars in 1998. Eligibility for National Merit is based initially on PSAT scores, along with a supplemental application process. Past career interest data from National Merit students reveals that 4% of scholars indicate interest in education. This would yield roughly 304 eligible and interested students.

*National Merit scholars, no further selection process:*

\$40,000 per student:  $(40,000 \times 304) = \$12.2 \text{ million}$

\$ 5,000 per student:  $(5,000 \times 304) = \$ 1.5 \text{ million}$

An issue may be raised on equity, and on the diversification of our teaching force. In targeting the top 5% or 1% of our schools, we would anticipate that students in predominantly minority schools would balance the minority distribution of the top 5%, and, in effect, the pool of eligible students would be relatively representative of the student population as a whole. On the other hand, using PSAT scores may yield a less representative pool:

- 44% of all high school juniors take the PSAT. This includes 48% of all white students, 23% of all African-American students, and 33% of all Hispanic students.

- (3) *Expansion of Byrd Scholarships*. HEA currently authorizes \$39.3 million for the provision of roughly 26,000 merit-based scholarships to high-achieving high school students. The scholarships are administered almost fully at the state level (development of selection criteria, intake of applications, awarding of scholarships), and give recipients \$1500 each year for up to four years of college expenses. These scholarships are *not* currently tied to any commitment to teach. As one of the only merit-based programs supported by ED, the Byrd scholarships have enjoyed limited support, and expansion of the program by this Administration would most likely require something like a teacher training commitment.

Appropriations language under HEA FY2000 appropriations could substantially expand the program, and allow a larger scholarship for those eligible students who indicate an interest in and can commit to teaching in math and science.

Any modification of the existing program will require support from Senator Byrd's office, working to develop a legislative proposal to expand the program but earmark the increase for the kinds of fellowships outlined above. *Pros and Cons of doing this?*

- (4) *Model selection after NC Teaching Fellows program*. Terry will provide details.

*FY2000 Recruitment Options*

*11/30/1998*

**FY2000 Recruitment: Troops to Teachers**

*The situation:*

Current DoD appropriations will fund the Troops to Teachers program through FY99. There are no current plans to fund the program further. Having observed the unique pool of incoming teachers from the TTT program, it is clear that the participants' teaching interests can positively impact the national teaching shortage in the areas of math, science, and urban/high-poverty.

The program costs have included:

- Maintenance of a website "job bank", matching district vacancies with ex-military resumes.
- Operation of 20 state program offices, including headquarters in Pensacola, Florida.
- Stipends to participants to be applied to tuition costs.
- Salary supplements paid to districts as incentives to hire participants (this practice has already been phased out).

Discussions of recruiting a broader pool of prospective teachers from professional positions in business and engineering could lead to some version of TTT being folded into ESEA reauthorization. Funding would not kick in until FY2001; consequently, TTT faces a gap year in FY2000. Program contacts have indicated that \$1 million in funding for FY2000 would sustain the website job bank as well as the operations of the 20 state program offices.

*The status on our strategy:*

ED has already been working with this gap-year funding lapse. Attached is a memo that has been approved by Gerry Tirozzi to be sent to the Secretary. The memo outlines the situation and recommends that Secretary Riley urge Secretary Cohen to extend TTT funds at \$1million for FY2000, with the understanding that the successful strategies undertaken by the program will greatly inform a broader recruitment piece of ESEA. In exchange for this additional year of operating funds, ED will offer non-financial support in the form of an information campaign, possibly advertising the successes of the TTT program as a promising practice in the context of HEA Title II implementation guidance. In addition, the job bank website can be linked to the ED website.

November 30, 1998

**MEMORANDUM**

**TO** : Secretary Riley

**FROM** : Gerald Tirozzi

**SUBJECT** : Troops to Teachers

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I am writing you this memo to strongly emphasize my enthusiasm for the Troops to Teachers program. As you know, Troops to Teachers is a Department of Defense program born out of the military "drawdown" after the cold war. The program recruits qualified retired military personnel and has been particularly successful in attracting teachers in the high-demand subjects of math and science as well as in hard-to-staff economically depressed areas of our nation. After fiscal year 1999, however, the Department of Defense will not continue to contribute any funds to this program. I am suggesting that the U.S. Department of Education play a key role not only in promoting and supporting the program, but in building on the model to promote recruitment and alternative certification through our new teacher quality program under Title II of HEA, and through reauthorization of ESEA.

Our nation is challenged to hire 2.2 million teachers in the next decade to meet the growing student population. A number of alternative certification routes already in existence can supplement the teacher supply entering through traditional certification routes. The Troops to Teachers represents one way to help alleviate this great need, because the characteristics and interests of its particular participants are responsive to the areas of greatest teacher demand.

- 29% of TTT teachers are teaching mathematics, compared to 13% of all teachers.
- 29% of TTT teachers are from a minority or ethnic group, compared to 10% of the general public school teaching force.
- 24% of TTT teachers are teaching in an inner-city school, compared to 16% of all public school teachers.

Troops to Teachers is a great success story of an alternative certification route that could inform our discussions on a potential national campaign. The President could challenge corporations and businesses nationwide to encourage transitioning professionals to consider the classroom. Future programs might be broadened to include Scholars to Schools, Peace Corps to Principals, National Service to our Nation's Schools, Engineers to Educators, Corporations to Classrooms and more.

I know you are cognizant of the impressive characteristics of the Troops to Teachers program. I urge you to consider the following strategies:

- (1) Request from the Secretary of the Department of Defense that the Troops to Teachers program be funded through their FY2000 budget at a level of \$1,000,000 to sustain TTT recruitment efforts and the operation of state offices to assist participants with both certification requirements and employment vacancies.
- (2) Supplement FY2000 Department of Defense operative funds for Troops to Teachers with significant non-financial support. Through S&E funds, an information campaign could be launched, endorsing the Troops to Teachers program as a promising practice in the emerging search for high quality, effective alternative routes. Dissemination of information by ED to states and districts on the successes of the program would garner public awareness and support for its continued existence.
- (3) Link the ED web-site to the DANTES (Defense Activity for Non-Traditional Education Support) job bank web-site in Pensacola, Florida. Discussion has already occurred proposing the development of an ED-supported recruitment web-site. Such a site, when coupled with the DANTES database, would give aspiring teachers of all backgrounds an extensive, convenient, user-friendly way to transition to a

second career in public education through identifying employment opportunities and teacher certification programs.

The Troops to Teachers program has provided transitioning professionals of all ages the opportunity to help children learn. It attracts qualified teachers to the classroom, concentrated particularly in high-demand subjects and schools. It may serve as a model to be replicated in attracting teachers from other professions. Creative and high-quality "alternative routes" to teaching can help ameliorate the effects of the significant projected increase in teacher shortage over the next decade.

Attached is a brief program summary of specific options to keep the TTT program *running and to expand the concept nationwide*. I would be happy to provide you with more detailed information should you need it in making your decision.

## BACKGROUND BRIEF ON TROOPS TO TEACHERS

### BRIEF HISTORY

Senator Sam Nunn (D-GA), concerned with the post cold war "drawdown" of military personnel, proposed that the Department of Defense take responsibility to move military people affected by this "drawdown" into other careers. The Troops to Teachers program resulted from legislation introduced in the FY1993 Defense Authorization Bill. Appropriations were allocated for FY 94 and FY 95 at \$65 million. The program will no longer operate next year if not re-authorized within DoD's legislation for FY2000. Under current law, eligibility of participants ends 9/30/99.

|                        |                        |                          |                        |
|------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| <b>FY 96 \$800,000</b> | <b>FY 97 \$635,000</b> | <b>FY 98 \$1,900,000</b> | <b>FY 99 \$800,000</b> |
|------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|

### PROFILE OF TROOPS TO TEACHERS (TTT)

| <b>TTT Teachers in Public Schools</b>   | <b>Traditional Teachers in Public Schools</b> |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| 90% are male                            | 26% are male                                  |
| 29% teach mathematics                   | 13% teach mathematics                         |
| 8% teach science                        | 3% teach science                              |
| 10% teach special education             | 5% teach special education                    |
| 15% teach vocational technology         | 3% teach vocational technology                |
| 30% are from a minority or ethnic group | 10% are from a minority or ethnic group       |
| 24% teach in an inner-city school       | 16% teach in an inner-city school             |

## **DRAFT**

### **Performance-Based Pay**

#### Background:

As part of the 1999 National Education Summit in Palisades, New York, the governors and assembled business leaders pledged to sponsor “pay for performance” initiatives for teacher salary in 10 locations as a strategy to make teacher pay more competitive with other professions. Despite considerable attention to the issue of teacher quality, teacher pay still remains far below other professions with the national average starting salary only approximately \$25,000, average teacher salary overall only approximately \$38,000, and the average maximum teacher salary in any state only about \$51,000.

In addition, the Vice President and others have called for developing more equitable and expeditious ways to reward good teachers and get low-performing teachers out of the classroom. Specifically, in his May 16<sup>th</sup> speech at Graceland College, the Vice President called for teacher evaluations by experienced peers and administrators every 5 years to ensure, “faster but fair ways to identify, improve, and when necessary remove low performing teachers. California in addition to several large school districts have programs similar to what the Vice President proposed.

At the time of the education summit, Denver, Colorado was receiving considerable attention for its pay for performance pilot and Governor Ridge of Pennsylvania had set-aside \$1 million for school districts to establish pay-for-performance programs (which has sparked a pay-for-performance discussion in Philadelphia). The Denver program evaluates teacher performance on three-different measures with teachers electing which measure to use. The first is student performance on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS) a nationally normed standardized test. The second is student performance on teacher-developed criterion-referenced measures. The final measure is net student progress after the teacher receives some sort of professional development related to their teaching.

12 elementary schools will participate in the first year of the Denver program. In order to participate, 85 percent of teachers at a school site had to affirmatively vote to participate. As a result, only 12 of the 82 elementary schools in Denver qualified to participate with a total participation of approximately 450 teachers. All teachers receive a \$500 bonus for participating and an additional \$1000 if they meet two (self-determined) goals for raising student achievement in one of the three categories.

During the DPC’s discussions with local school officials this fall the issue of teacher salary structure was raised on two fronts. First, local officials complained that because teacher pay was not competitive, particularly in high need areas such as math and science, they were having trouble attracting qualified candidates. Second, local officials pointed out that because teachers compensation systems are so rigid and based on input measures

rather than output measures they felt that it hurt motivation and incentive to perform in the long run. They also highlighted the problems that they have dismissing poor performing teachers and acknowledged that often they simply assign these teachers where they can do the least damage rather than attempting to get them out of the school district.

England is now introducing pay for performance for teachers as well. This Spring the first component of the Blair proposal will be put in place. In the “Green Book” published in December of 1998 outlining school improvement strategies, the Blair Administration proposed rewarding teachers for high performance as a way to reward successful teachers.

While teachers’ unions remain opposed to merit pay, they are open to the idea of rewards for effective teaching. One of the main complaints about merit pay schemes is that they are too subjective and based more on relationships with supervisors than performance. Conversely, even testing experts in favor of merit pay agree that basing teacher pay on student test scores alone is an unfair and unreliable base for compensation. This argues for a hybrid approach such as Denver’s that incorporates multiple measures for evaluation.

A second complaint about performance rewards for teaching is that the resources for compensation rarely exist. For example, several New York school districts that experimented with merit pay had to suspend the program after it became fiscally impossible to reward all eligible teachers. A common complaint from teachers about reform efforts is a lack of sustainability. By providing sufficient funding for 10 pilots, our proposal addresses this concern.

Critics of performance pay also argue that teaching is a collegial profession and that efforts to reward individual performance detract from this atmosphere. There is little data upon which to judge this argument lending credence to the need to pilot such programs and evaluate them.

One area of agreement about pay for performance plans is that teachers should have a voice in the development of the performance indicators. The Denver plan includes this component. Teacher buy-in is essential for program success.

#### DPC proposal:

Our initiative is designed to support the commitment laid out in the Action Plan from the 1999 National Education Summit to pilot pay-for performance initiatives in 10 states or school districts and also to encourage districts to develop equitable and expeditious ways to evaluate teachers.

The initiative would support “Denver” style pay-for-performance initiatives in which all teachers receive an initial bonus for participating and additional rewards based on performance. As aforementioned, Denver set parameters for school participation; however, we recommend leaving details of this nature up to the local districts that

participate but require at least the participation of 250 teachers and cap participation at 500 per site. While large school districts are the obvious targets for grants of this type, partnerships of smaller school districts that meet the threshold should also be eligible.

Although there will be pressure from constituency groups and within the Administration to explicitly define every aspect of the program for local school districts, it would be a mistake to do so. First, by specifically defining programs we would stifle innovation and limit the value of data from this pilot. For example, the 1999 National Education Summit pledge was deliberately vague as to whether pay for performance plans had to have an individual teacher component or could be school-site-based. Second, entangling the federal government too much in the area of teacher pay raises numerous political problems that can be avoided with a more flexible program design. The proper federal role in supporting this type of initiative is to provide leadership and resources, broad parameters for participation, and to measure, compare, and disseminate results. The ideal initiative would provide resources to 10 sites within a context of broad discretion as to program design. Ideally, both individual teacher bonuses and school-based bonuses will be piloted.

However, to ensure both sound policy and political viability, any program funded under this initiative should have the following characteristics:

- No teacher should receive less compensation as a result of participating in the program;
- Teachers should be involved in the development of performance indicators;
- Performance should be based on more than a single indicator;
- Student performance must be an indicator.

In order to help states and school districts develop more effective teacher evaluation systems a second set of grants would be given to school districts that agree to 5-year teacher contracts with peer evaluation every five years and an fast but fair way to dismiss teachers who fail this evaluation and do not subsequently improve.

This Spring, California passed a statewide peer review program that could result in dismissals for low-performing teachers. Boston, Cincinnati, Columbus, Minneapolis, Rochester, and Toledo also have peer review programs in place; however, often these programs focus on professional development rather than tenure issues. Cincinnati is a noteworthy exception and reviews teachers every 5 years and is probably the best example of a successful program.

As with pay for performance plans we should allow local grantees flexibility in developing their specific programs; however we should require teachers to be evaluated no more than every 5 years and require that a fair and fast system is in place for consistently low-performing teachers as well as a support system for new teachers and teachers in need of help.

Research indicates that one of the reasons that many teachers leave the profession during

the first several years is that there is little to no support in place for them during this critical time. In short, new teachers are often “thrown to the wolves” and because of seniority provisions in many collective bargaining agreements new teachers often end up with the most challenging students.

Requiring districts that participate to move to a 5-year renewable contract will be a big give for both teachers unions; however, by requiring districts that participate to provide support for both new teachers and teachers that are identified as struggling through this system we meet one of their largest member issues.

#### Cost:

Including a substantial evaluation component, 10 sites for pay for performance could be funded adequately for \$25 million annually including independent evaluation. With guaranteed bonuses of \$500 for participation and assuming that all 10 sites enroll the maximum of 500 teachers, the bonus component will cost \$2.5 million. For an additional \$12.5 million we can support pay incentives for performance of up to \$2500 per participation teachers for a total program cost of \$15 million for the actual bonus component. Each local site will need additional resources for development and implementation including legal and administrative expenses. At least an additional \$2 million should be included for national activities to attract potential grantees and to conduct rigorous evaluation of programs.

The peer review component will also cost approximately \$25 million. Most districts that have implemented a peer review system have taken experienced classroom teachers out of the classroom to help develop it. Therefore, funding for the participating sites must be sufficient to allow for this reallocation of staff (essentially hiring teachers in their place), design and implementation of the plan and ongoing efforts. The Cincinnati public schools spend approximately \$2.5 million annually on their model system and estimate that it took about \$2.5 million to develop it initially. With approximately 50,000 students Cincinnati is one of the nation's largest school districts. Smaller districts could develop proposals that are less costly and so \$25 million annually could adequately fund 10 sites and evaluation.



"Moore, Heather" <Heather\_Moore@ed.gov>

02/01/2000 11:16:28 AM

Record Type: Record

To: Ann O'Leary/OPD/EOP

cc:

Subject: Here's some language that will help...

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New teachers usually must pass state-mandated tests for initial licensure. In the face of teacher shortages, however, states often waive such requirements. The Administration is calling on states to phase out the use of such waivers of full licensure.

In general, current teachers do not take these tests; they already have earned their license and do not (and should not) need to prove themselves by taking another test. However, unions often do make removing an incompetent teacher from the classroom far too difficult. Unions have a responsibility to ensure that teachers get due process, but they also need to be concerned about the quality of teaching force. Both AFT and NEA have been visible on the national level talking about these issues. Both support peer review, which allows teachers to take responsibility for their colleagues. Where implemented, these peer review processes have been more successful in removing poorly performing teachers from the classroom than administrator-led efforts. This is a national issue on which the position of the unions has improved dramatically.

We do not support the testing of current classroom teachers. They have already earned a teaching license and should not have to prove themselves again. The testing of current teachers would demean the profession. However, most states choose to require exams of content, basic skills, and teaching knowledge for new teachers. If they are good tests and the scores needed to pass them are set high enough, they can be good ways to help assess candidates' potential to be good teachers. A good exam is designed to test a body of knowledge that one needs to be an effective teacher (and not to test a candidate in relation to other candidates who take the exam, which is the way most current exams are designed).

The Department does support voluntary national certification through the National Board for Professional Teacher Standards. This is a rigorous test of content knowledge and teaching performance that allows teachers to demonstrate that they are highly accomplished.

Critics of teacher quality call for the testing of existing teachers. We have to stop bashing teachers. Testing veteran teachers punishes and demeans the entire profession at a time when we are trying to raise its status. However, prospective teachers should pass a basic skills test before entering the profession, and experienced teachers need opportunities to test themselves and demonstrate their excellence (through the National Board for

Professional Teaching Standards, for example).

### Rewarding Good Teachers

**The Problem.** Teachers have few opportunities to advance in their careers without leaving the classroom. First year teachers usually have the same teaching responsibilities and performance expectations as 20-year veterans. In addition, teacher salaries are not based on increased knowledge and skills.

- \* Teachers' salary schedules are linked to years' experience and advanced degrees (often unrelated to their teaching assignments) rather than demonstration of increased knowledge and skills.
- \* Many of our best teachers leave the classroom to enter administration because that is the only way they can advance.

### Promising Practices.

- \* The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards provides a voluntary, valid, and fair assessment process that allows teachers to examine their teaching and demonstrate their knowledge of content and teaching skills. By defining standards of excellence for experienced teachers, the National Board helps to recognize and reward outstanding teachers and keep our best teachers in the classroom, where they are needed most.
- \* 14 states currently provide salary supplements to those teachers who earn National Board certification.
- \* In a new concept called "knowledge and skills-based pay," teachers get pay increases for acquiring new skills and knowledge (not simply for years' experience and degrees held) that help a school reach its own established goals.

### Controversial Issues.

**Merit Pay.** We clearly need incentives for teachers to improve their knowledge and skills. However, most attempts at implementing merit pay have failed because the criteria were not widely accepted by teachers as valid, and opportunities to earn merit pay were limited by artificial quotas that pitted teachers against one another for a fixed pool of funds. What works best is rewarding an entire school for improvement or rewarding individual teachers for acquiring new knowledge and skills.

<<merit.pay>>

### Administration Initiatives.

The Administration has significantly increased funding for the National Board, which received \$18.5 million in Federal funding in FY98. The Administration has requested \$21 million for FY99. In addition, the House-passed Higher Education Act would have prohibited Federal funding for the National Board, but the Administration succeeded in keeping this provision from the final bill.

### Challenges to America. We challenge:

- \* States and districts to provide increased pay and other incentives to teachers who earn National Board certification.

- \* Districts to implement knowledge and skills-based pay for teachers.
- \* Teachers to volunteer to open their practice to examination by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

#### What More Could We Do?

- \* In the ESEA reauthorization, provide competitive grants to districts that want to restructure their salary schedules to implement knowledge and skills-based pay.



- merit.pay

Accountability piece -

- more training - trouble

- go to system & institutions  
getting into the classroom

- better feedback - student for

- more information

U.S. Department of Education  
Meeting with NEA/AFT Representatives  
Tuesday, September 1, 1998

Agenda Topic - The Reauthorization of ESEA and Goals 2000; Quality Teaching

**Context:** This past spring we launched an extensive outreach effort inviting hundreds of people largely from within the broad education community to offer their perspectives and input concerning the progress being made in achieving the purpose and intent of the current legislation and to offer recommendations for future directions. There were 17 topics in the federal register notice organized under three categories: 1) federal support for state and local reform, 2) strategies for addressing the needs of children most at risk of failing to meet state standards and 3) school environments conducive to learning. Included among the five topics eliciting the most response was professional development. (The others were Comprehensive State and local school reform, strategies for improving achievement, accountability and flexibility, and targeting resources/equalization.)

What we learned did not surprise us, what did was the degree of consistency across the country. The testimony and the written text conveyed a compelling message about the importance of supporting a quality teaching force for the entire nation, not just in the comfortable places. The children attending schools with high poverty enrollments were more likely to be taught by teachers lacking credentials for permanent licenses or certifications and were more likely to perform at lower levels of academic achievement than their peers in low poverty schools. And the teachers in these schools, where mentoring and coaching opportunities were often not available, were more likely to leave the profession within the first three years of their career.

Just about everyone we met, as well as the people who responded to the federal register notice, believed that the key to school reform lies in the availability of continuing quality professional development for all staff. Many respondents recommended changes in federal legislation to fund and support innovations in the dissemination of information about proven professional development practices generally, as well as researched based effective practices in content areas.

And so, we are responding by carefully and thoughtfully thinking through legislative options that would strengthen the quality of our teaching force and as a result, the quality of the teaching/learning environment.

We need your help. There is a continuum to the notion of ongoing professional development for educators; it begins with preservice and moves along through recruitment, induction and ongoing professional development. ESEA cannot fund the entire continuum. We are trying to decide how ESEA legislation can support this effort and what is the best place in the continuum for these funds. What do you see as the federal role in this arena?

1) Are there changes to the federal statutes that would focus and coordinate professional development resources across Goals 2000 and ESEA programs to ensure that all teachers and educational personnel have sufficient knowledge and skills to teach all children, including children most at risk of failing, to challenging State standards?

2) How can the use of researched based knowledge and of research based approaches to improving student achievement be encouraged through teacher preparation and ongoing training?

Continued:

- induction for teachers in new assignment not just new teachers

- threshold to reassigned - base on retention dollars

- incentives

- electronic info hall - monitor > net

Dale

→ connect with

Fed. \$ 10

used for

→ provide Fed.

\$ for

mentoring

then assign to field/colleagues

(in the classroom)

Bella:

→ Ready/now

- suggestions

→ start early

Jerry:

- push for

to get across for every thing

(Dillon-based)

- think about

continuing education  
beginning

no white

beginning

@ level

→ professional  
more

→ then  
performance

- for the  
system to  
improve

- make  
available

to improve  
practice & all

→

→ link

P.D. to  
support

improvement  
plans

→ plan

→ planning

→

- distributable program

AFT - Keith

Brooklyn

- review school/district > not

individuals (e.g. merit pay)

Sept 15th - more and more class

MEM/ AFT

Null:   
 → DLR @ NEA/ AFT for Report Project

- Induction with adequate address in HEN

Attendees:

① David Dyer

Dale Carr

John Pung

Kidell

Sylvia Schell

Cheryl Orr

Theresa Ann AFT

Smith Training -

→ Focus on induction - public can look  
Theresa team dropout  
Improve team quality

Induction - need mentoring - motive teacher

→ TIME for master teaching but not new team

→ public is not happy on nature of  
higher on-going PDR.

... unless it's  
not assigned  
plans

Compensating  
- sometimes  
test + field  
experience

→ closer partnership w/ high ed + K-12 particularly P. student schools  
teachers + parents - Steve Thors - more in response  
2 children leaving for programs - schools as well

- Sit down w/  
administrators  
that are leaving this  
happen

Dale

→ primary state level issue - find different practice  
build a unit works - examples

Living in a new world

→ Title I aids - Why up shot on contribution for teacher aids

→ Teacher contribution - Stress National Board - raise its understanding of language + practice  
more - understand teachers in the classroom

→ Teacher Training -

→ merit pay - Sit and be happy, not good

- regarding state contribution  
still needs to be p-ssed  
even if different programs

- achieve rate - no  
field experience

- something else - phantasm  
w/ teeth in it

- Public misconception about how  
teachers are placed

Summary

- Rooming - vacant w/ little knowledge + experience

- low pay/mult

- 2 info. going out

- Several systems continue to hire people with no qualifications + not for subject area

- All state - fully certified teachers in most - performing schools

## HEA VS. ESEA RECRUITMENT

### **HEA, Title II, State Grants (45%):**

States receiving Title II state grants are required to use such funds to carry out one or more "allowable activities," which include but are not limited to:

#### **SEC. 202. (d).**

*"(3) Alternatives To Traditional Preparation For Teaching.—Providing prospective teachers with alternatives to traditional preparation for teaching through programs at colleges of arts and sciences or at nonprofit educational organizations.*

*"(4) Alternative Routes to State Certification.—Carrying out programs that—*

*(A) include support during the initial teaching experience; and*

*(B) establish, expand, or improve alternative routes to State certification of teachers for highly qualified individuals, including mid-career professionals from other occupations, paraprofessionals, former military personnel and recent college graduates with records of academic distinction.*

*"(5) Recruitment; Pay; Removal.—Developing and implementing effective mechanisms to ensure that local educational agencies and schools are able to effectively recruit highly qualified teachers, to financially reward those teachers and principals whose students have made significant progress toward high academic performance, such as through performance-based compensation systems and access to ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers and administrators, and to expeditiously remove incompetent or unqualified teachers consistent with procedures to ensure due process for the teachers...*

*"(7) Recruitment.—Activities described in section 204(d) [recruitment grants]."*

### **HEA, Title II, Partnership Grants (45%):**

After fulfilling required use of funds stipulations for partnership grants, partnerships are allowed to use such funds to carry out a number of activities, including:

#### **SEC. 203. (e)**

*"(4) Teacher Recruitment.—Activities described in section 204(d) [recruitment grants]."*

### **HEA, Title II, Teacher Recruitment Grants (10%):**

Ten percent of appropriated Title II funds are to be awarded to states or partnerships that qualify for other Title II awards, to be used for teacher recruitment. Application requirements for such funds include a needs assessment, description of the activities to be funded under the grant, and a plan for continuing such activities once Federal funds have ceased. Teacher recruitment funds may be used for:

**SEC. 204. (d). Uses of Funds.**—*Each eligible applicant receiving a grant under this section shall use the grant funds—*

*(1)(A) to award scholarships to help students pay the costs of tuition, room, board, and other expenses of completing a teacher preparation program;*<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> If a state or partnership opts to use recruitment funds to support scholarships: **SEC. 204. (e) Service Requirements.**—*The Secretary shall establish such requirements as the Secretary finds necessary to ensure that recipients of scholarships under this section who complete teacher education programs subsequently teach in a high-need local educational agency, for a period of time equivalent to the period for which the*

- (B) *to provide support services, if needed to enable scholarship recipients to complete postsecondary education programs; and*
- (C) *for followup services provided to former scholarship recipients during the recipient's first 3 years of teaching; or*
- (2) *to develop and implement effective mechanisms to ensure that high need local educational agencies and schools are able to effectively recruit highly qualified teachers."*

Given these grant specifications...

- What is the size of the Title II appropriation? \$75 million (plus maybe \$2.2m from the Minority Teacher Recruitment piece).
- What districts are excluded through eligibility requirements? Given a competitive grant process, states with less well-established recruitment efforts will not receive federal funding, and thus federal guidance, in initiating recruitment reforms.
- Have requirements committing scholarship recipients to teach in high-need LEAs been written? To what degree of stringency will they be written?

Given these answers...

- Is the size of Title II teacher recruitment funds commensurate with the size of impact we want to have? Are we satisfied with teacher recruitment grants being voluntary funds? Does the Title II level of flexibility ensure reasonable progress toward our goals, or could further funds through ESEA further alleviate the teacher shortage?
- Do the matching requirements prevent high-need districts (whose resources may limit opportunities to forge partnerships with IHEs) from gaining eligibility for Title II recruitment funds? In other words, does the funding method penalize high-poverty districts whose state agencies have not mobilized on funds?
- If scholarships tied to a high-need LEA commitment are an *allowable* use of funds under HEA, is ESEA an opportunity to more specifically target high-need LEAs through a *required* use of funds?

How could some version of Teacher Corps (or Teach for America) or a national recruitment piece effectively build off [without overlapping or politically crowding out] Title II of HEA?

How can treatment of emergency credentials exercise caution in allowing effective alternative routes? How does Title II of HEA already support alternative routes? Do the unrestricted alternative route funds ultimately support some forms of emergency licensure? In other words, can Title II funds as written under HEA be channeled to ineffective alternative route programs that we would rather not support? As it stands, the state grants are the only portion which make statutory mention of alternative routes; the only necessary program feature thus far is "support during the initial teaching experience." Development of application content requirements and priorities for state grants

Does ESEA provide the opportunity to narrow the kind of alternative route programs we support with federal funding? How?

***What particular kinds of alternative routes do we want to support?***

Research-based methods of alternative routes to teacher certification are found to magnify some of the effective features of traditional teacher preparation programs:

- **Sustained support.** Induction is critical, particularly for alternative routes that target high-poverty schools. An abbreviated teacher preparation program necessarily requires a greater emphasis on effective induction practices in the first 1-3 years. Some existing alternative

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*recipients receive scholarship assistance, or repay the amount of the scholarship. The Secretary shall use any such repayments to carry out additional activities under this section."*

route programs have seen favorably low rates of attrition; in particular, it is known that induction leads to greater retention and these particular programs emphasized a sustained, structured support system for incoming alternative route teachers.

- **Structure in-class training.** First-year alternative route teachers may have exceptional content knowledge, but the most effective existing programs supplement that with a [preferably supervised] period of formal in-class training. Some exposure to pedagogy, if not emphasized in the pre-entry training segment, can be learned first-hand in a structured internship-like experience.
- **Performance-based assessment of incoming alternative route teachers.** Unfavorable alternative route programs depend on in-class training while de-emphasizing pre-entry training. Some standard of measure (although this may play out as only a formality) would raise the bar and ensure at least a minimum floor of quality.

***What particular kinds do we want to eliminate?***

This takes some careful definition of terms. Alternative teacher certification, in its true and most favorable form, is known as a process that “includes holding a bachelors degree in the subject to be taught; achieving a passing score on a certification test; undergoing brief, intensive teacher training; and completing a supervised teaching internship, after which certification is recommended by the employing school district. It generally is a process designed to certify candidates who have subject-matter competencies, without going through formal teacher preparation.”<sup>2</sup>

Many programs are misidentified as “alternative routes” but do not provide the rigor of training and induction that contributes to positive routes.

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<sup>2</sup> Otuy, Ebo. Alternative Teacher Certification—An Update. ERIC Digest, Nov 92.

## **ALTERNATE ROUTES to TEACHER CERTIFICATION**

### ***What are they?***

There are currently 41 states with alternative certification policies, and more than 300 alternative teacher-recruitment and training programs in the country. It was estimated that more than 50,000 people had been licensed through alternative programs by 1996. Programs governed by these state ACP (Alternative Certification Program) policies may be run by states, local school districts, intermediate state units, or private companies, but the vast majority are found in colleges and universities, often conducted in partnership with local schools.

Many programs serve different populations, i.e., strategies successful in one setting may not be applicable to all potentially targeted recruitment pools. Existing programs focus efforts on service-oriented bachelors' degree holders, ex-military personnel, paraprofessionals, mid-career professionals,

Ongoing support of alternative routes by ED should be founded on thorough knowledge of what makes a high-quality versus a low-quality alternative route to certification. In collecting information across programs, terminology is an issue for these programs. It is understood that effective "alternative routes" are not emergency credential procedures; a number of states/districts, however, have labeled emergency licensure as such to gain legitimacy. In some cases, there exists the need to issue "provisional," "temporary," or "emergency" credentials as a step toward legitimate alternative certification. Clear and careful definition of terms and awareness of differing circumstances will prevent ED policies from barring positive programs in an effort to eliminate emergency credentials.

### ***Opinions***

On the political side, criticism of alternative routes to teacher certification is concentrated in the higher education and union communities. Averse to the threats that widespread alternate routes might pose to these interests, leaders such as Linda Darling-Hammond question the legitimacy and quality of training, preparation, and retention components of alternative route programs. Darling-Hammond advocates more rigorous teacher certification standards, applicable to both traditional and alternative routes. (*check on this*)

Supporters point to the teacher shortage, and to the ability of non-traditional programs to recruit teachers whose areas of expertise, subject area interest, minority status, and/or other characteristics serve to fill areas of high demand in the teaching force. Answering to charges of low-quality preparation and low retention rates, alternative route proponents look to in-class "internship-style" training and induction/support systems as solutions to the early shortcomings of existing alternative routes.

### ***Research***

Research on TC versus AC outcomes is weak. "The fact that most assessments comparing AC to TC are seriously flawed is not surprising given the political context in which AC has come about, the inherent difficulties of evaluating program outcomes, and low levels of investment in research

on AC.”<sup>1</sup> One relatively reliable study of outcomes was supplied by Penny Early of AACTE, constructed by Jianping Shen at Western Michigan University, from SASS data:

Shen, 1997. TC versus AC outcomes: “The findings support some of the arguments for AC, such as alleviating teacher shortages in mathematics and science and in urban schools and diversifying the teaching force by recruiting more people of minorities into teaching. However, the findings also raised serious concerns regarding the impact of AC policy: (a) AC teachers appeared to have lower academic qualifications than did TC teachers; (b) AC policy failed to recruit a significant number of experienced personnel from other occupations, and a large number of fresh college graduates took advantage of AC policy to circumvent the traditional teacher education program; (c) A lower percentage of AC teachers treated teaching as a lifelong career than did TC teachers; and (d) A high percentage of AC teacher working in inner-city schools raised the important issue of educational equity.”<sup>2</sup>

### ***Strategy***

A strategy exercising caution in terms of a balance between widely-used certification standards and adequate preparation/induction components may serve to appease polarized opinions and rally necessary political support. *What would be our optimal strategy versus what can be achieved and implemented with maximum success?*

### ***Current Practices***

It would be informative to look further into state legislation regarding alternative certification programs, as well as recruitment programs operating independent of state funding. What follows is a brief look at some of the more prominent policies and programs, and what lessons can be learned from their outcomes so far (including positive effects as well as points of criticism).

#### **1. Teach for America**

*Brief profile:* Recruits undergraduates to a two-year commitment to serving in high-need schools (inner city, high poverty, outlying rural). Recruits nationally; exercises a rigorous initial selection process; provides summer-long training including an intensive, 5-week, in-class teaching experience; provides ongoing professional development. Founded 1990, has recruited ~500 undergraduates yearly, 4147 total as of 7/98. Roughly 1 out of 5 applicants is accepted. Roughly 85% of participants fulfill the two-year commitment. XX% remain in teaching positions after the two-year period has passed.

#### *Successes:*

- Minority recruitment population compared to whole teaching population = 34% vs. 10%.<sup>3</sup>
- Math/science recruitment population compared to whole teaching population = 19% vs. X%.
- Recruits commit to teaching in a high-need area; directive approach exceeds the capacity of traditional teaching routes in channeling teachers to high-need schools.
- Number of applicants is 5x the number of participants (selection process rules out many prospectives).

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<sup>1</sup> Hawley, William D., ed. *The Alternative Certification of Teachers*, p.7.

<sup>2</sup> Shen, Jianping. “Has the Alternative Certification Policy Materialized its Promise? A Comparison Between Traditionally and Alternatively Certified Teachers in Public Schools.” Fall 1997, p.276.

<sup>3</sup> Teach for America website, NCEI *Profile of Troops to Teachers*, respectively.

- Recruitment can be targeted toward concentrated pools of potential applicants—energy level is young, outreach is word-of-mouth and web-site based, opportunity is offered to “lifelong advocates of equity among children.” Strong links of communication between headquarters and regional offices contribute to even broader, smoother success. Circumstances are unique to Teach for America’s mission and population of Corps members; i.e., recruitment strategies are somewhat but not completely transferable to other targeted pools of recruits (e.g., mid-career professionals).

*Criticisms:*

- LDH: “We don’t need them if they’re not interested in staying and don’t want to be prepared for it. This is not about providing some kind of feel-good activity for college students who haven’t figured out what they want to do with their lives.”<sup>4</sup> Teach for America doesn’t include enough training, and is robbing at-risk students of quality teachers.<sup>5</sup>
- Commitment requirement is only two years. Attrition rates directly following the two-year commitment are high (); short-term solutions to the teacher shortage may waste resources (hiring and re-hiring) and jeopardize overall retention rates.
- Summer-long training in content/pedagogy drops off once teaching begins. Some degree of professional development is provided on an ongoing basis (closer look needed). Program lacks the induction/mentorship qualities that are known to provide a more solid, structured support system for incoming teachers in high-need areas.

## **2. Troops to Teachers**

Brief Profile: Program acts as a clearinghouse by providing web-based job banks through twenty state program offices, a stipend for training, information resources for recruits, and salary supplement to districts hiring retired military personnel. Operations performed mostly through 20 state program offices. Recruits are not required to commit to any length of time in teaching. Participant total: >2000.

*Successes:*

- 29% of TTT teachers are teaching mathematics, compared to 13% of all teachers.
- 29% of TTT teachers are from a minority or ethnic group, compared to 10% of the general public school teaching force.
- 24% of TTT teachers are teaching in an inner-city school, compared to 16% of all public school teachers.
- 90% of TTT teachers are male, compared to 26% of all public school teachers.
- 85% of TTT teachers starting in 1994 are still in the classroom.

*Criticisms:*

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<sup>4</sup> AP: “Teacher Corps Fills Tough Jobs in Schools.” *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*, 1/11/98.

<sup>5</sup> Chaddock, Gail Russell. “Where Will We Find Tomorrow’s Teachers.” *Christian Science Monitor*, 3/17/98.

### **3. Dewitt-Wallace/Readers' Digest Fund: Pathways to Teaching Careers Program.**

**Brief Profile:** Provides funding to 27 sites who operate career ladder programs for instructional aides and returning Peace Corps members who seek full teacher certification. Participant total: nearly 2000.

*Successes:*

- Attracts a diverse pool of teachers, by gender and by race.
- Taps into a community-rooted population, with likely high rates of retention.

*Criticisms:*

- Risks negative implications of any paraprofessional program.

### **4. Texas**

*Successes:*

*Criticisms:*

### **5. California's internship program.**

*Successes:*

*Criticisms:*

### **6. New Jersey's Provisional Certificate program.**

The first state on the scene, New Jersey, opened up opportunities for alternative routes in direct response to the proliferation of emergency licenses (particularly for individuals who did not hold the equivalent of a bachelors degree). Further inquiry will reveal the outcomes of the state's chosen strategy. *Does NJ financially support recruitment efforts or just regulate the intake and certification process?*

*Successes:*

*Criticisms:*

*What are useful lessons to be learned from the experiences of these programs?*



HARVARD UNIVERSITY  
Graduate School of Education

Monroe C. Gutman Library, Appian Way  
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138-3704

Programs in Administration,  
Planning, and Social Policy

October 22, 1998

Ms. Ann O'Leary  
U.S. Department of Education  
Room 6223  
600 Independence Ave., S.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20202

Dear Ann (if I may):

Please find enclosed the materials that I indicated I would send to you. They include:

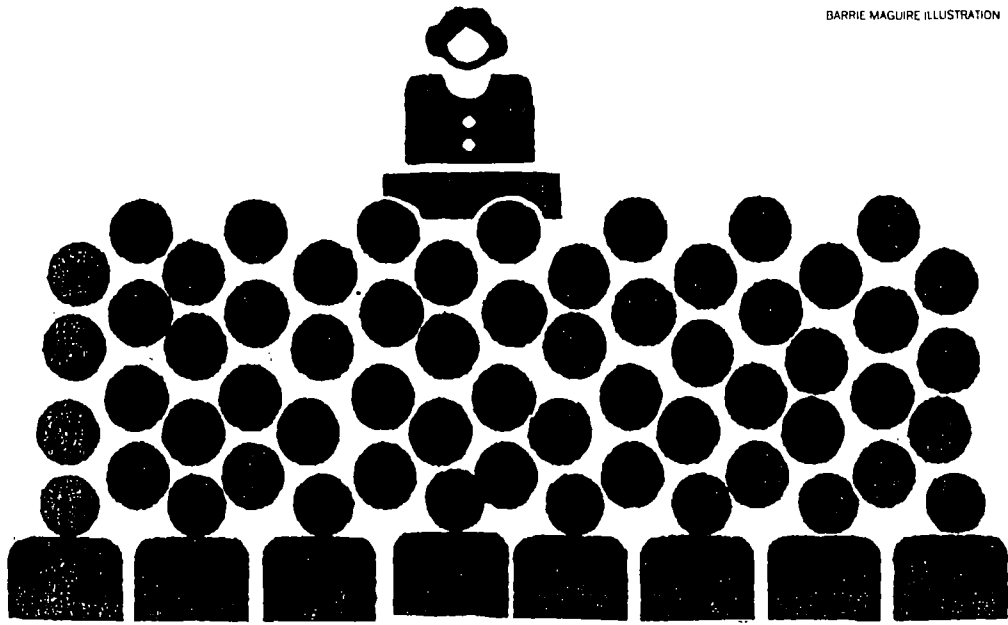
1. the Johnson-Kardos paper on teacher labor unions;
2. an article by Kitty Boles on creative professional development;
3. a paper I wrote for *Phi Delta Kappan* based on my colleagues' and my book, *Who Will Teach?* (Chapter 7 of that book provides a more detailed rendition of the argument with more evidence.);
- 4 a recent paper by Emiliana Vegas and myself that emphasizes the importance of working with young students of color if the goal is to have an academically talented, racially diverse teaching force.

Best wishes,

Richard J. Murnane

# The Boston Globe

THURSDAY, MARCH 5, 1998



BARRIE MAGUIRE ILLUSTRATION

## To upgrade schools, upgrade teachers

**VIVIAN TROEN  
and KATHERINE BOLES**

**A**s classroom teachers, we applaud the president's commitment to spend \$12 billion on education. However, his hope to hire more teachers is off the mark; what our schools most desperately need is better teachers. Listen to our case.

It is no secret that teachers are held in low regard — not only in the field of education, where higher status is enjoyed by principals, college professors, and school superintendents, but in our society. Hence the comment we and our colleagues so often hear: "Are you still teaching? But you're so smart!"

In other words, why haven't we found something better, or why aren't we improving our professional standing by becoming, at the very least, principals?

Funny, no one asks a surgeon why she isn't trying to become the head of the hospital. Perhaps because it is understood that the practice of medicine requires years of training, immense technical knowledge, and intellectual rigor. The stereotype of teaching is that it merely requires skill in handling children. What remains unacknowledged is that teaching also requires years of training, immense technical knowledge, and intellectual rigor. But there is a gap between how teaching ought to be practiced and how it is practiced in reality.

Contempt for teachers permeates our society and subverts any attempt to improve our schools. How much of it is actually deserved? Here are three painful facts of life.

■ **Teachers are poorly treated and undervalued.** Teaching is one of the most difficult and complex of all human endeavors. Its practice demands a rare combination of human skills and technical knowledge required in no other profession. Yet no one thinks that teaching school is an intellectual activity. Teachers are portrayed as caring individuals whose primary tasks are to keep order in the classroom, teach the three R's, collect lunch money, supervise recess, and, in some schools, clean tables in the cafeteria.

In a Massachusetts Teachers Association article, a principal praises the MTA's Teacher of the Year as having "exceptional teaching instincts . . . enabling and empathetic, sympathetic and caring, creative and progressive." In an obituary, a teacher is remembered as having been a teacher for 26 years "before being elevated to teaching specialist." The message is clear: To improve your status, you have to leave the classroom. Too often, the better teachers leave.

■ **The standards of teacher education are dismally low.** In the 19th century, medical practice in the United States was largely unregulated, and any citizen could call himself a "doctor." To promote licensing laws, the Carnegie Foundation commissioned Abraham Flexner (not a doctor but an educator) to examine the nation's medical schools and make recommendations for their improvement. His damning report in 1910 sparked a revolution in American medical education.

In many ways, the education of today's teachers is almost as weak as it was for doctors in 1910. What's wrong?

First, it is too easy to become a teacher. When teaching was one of the few career choices open to educated women and minorities, the quality of those entering the profession was demonstrably higher than it is now. Today, with more

options, fewer of the best candidates are choosing to become teachers — especially those with high scores in math and science. Consequently, entrance requirements to graduate schools of education slide lower to accommodate the market. No college or university can afford classrooms with 75 percent of the seats unfilled. This is a disturbing echo of the conditions that prevailed in the medical schools of 1910, which Flexner found to be profit-driven institutions lacking adequate standards for students, curriculums, and facilities.

Second, while regulations for teacher certification do exist, they are less stringent than for opticians, veterinarians, and plumbers. And regulations are not consistently enforced. According to a report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, "more than 40 states allow school districts to hire teachers on emergency licenses who have not met basic requirements," and "in many states, standards are simply waived whenever school districts want to hire teachers who cannot make the grade." It is estimated that 50,000 more people annually enter classrooms unqualified.

■ **Teachers are kept at the bottom of the power structure.** American schools embody a structure that denies teachers decision-making power. Decisions that directly affect a teacher's work — textbooks and curriculum, assessment, scheduling, class placement, assignment of specialists, allocation of budgets and materials — are made by "experts" at higher levels.

An impediment to teacher leadership is the notion that as professionals all teachers are equal. This is a handy peer-pressure device for keeping teachers in their place, and it is deftly exploited by principals and administrators to dampen initiative and prevent teachers from coalescing around issues affecting the larger domains of the school outside the classroom. So it is inside the classroom that teachers silently exert what little power they have — by resisting change.

All the immense efforts of thousands of committed people, fueled by the hundreds of millions of dollars being spent on education, won't raise the quality of our schools. School reform in any configuration will merely end at the classroom door if it is not developed by, understood by, and embraced by empowered, highly professional, well-trained teachers.

The only way to get from here to there is by improving the work force. Society must respect and value the work that teachers do. This will happen only when society demands that teachers be better trained, refuses to let underqualified teachers into the classroom, and provides the incentives to keep the best in the classroom where they belong.

As a nation, we must require that entry into the practice of teaching be at least as uncompromising as the bar exam for lawyers or the certification exam for CPAs. And we must support national teaching standards. We do not have to create them from scratch. They have already been written by the National Board for the Professionalization of Teaching Standards. What is required is the resolve to accept and implement them nationwide.

If you want to get the most bang for our bucks, Mr. President, this is a good place to start.

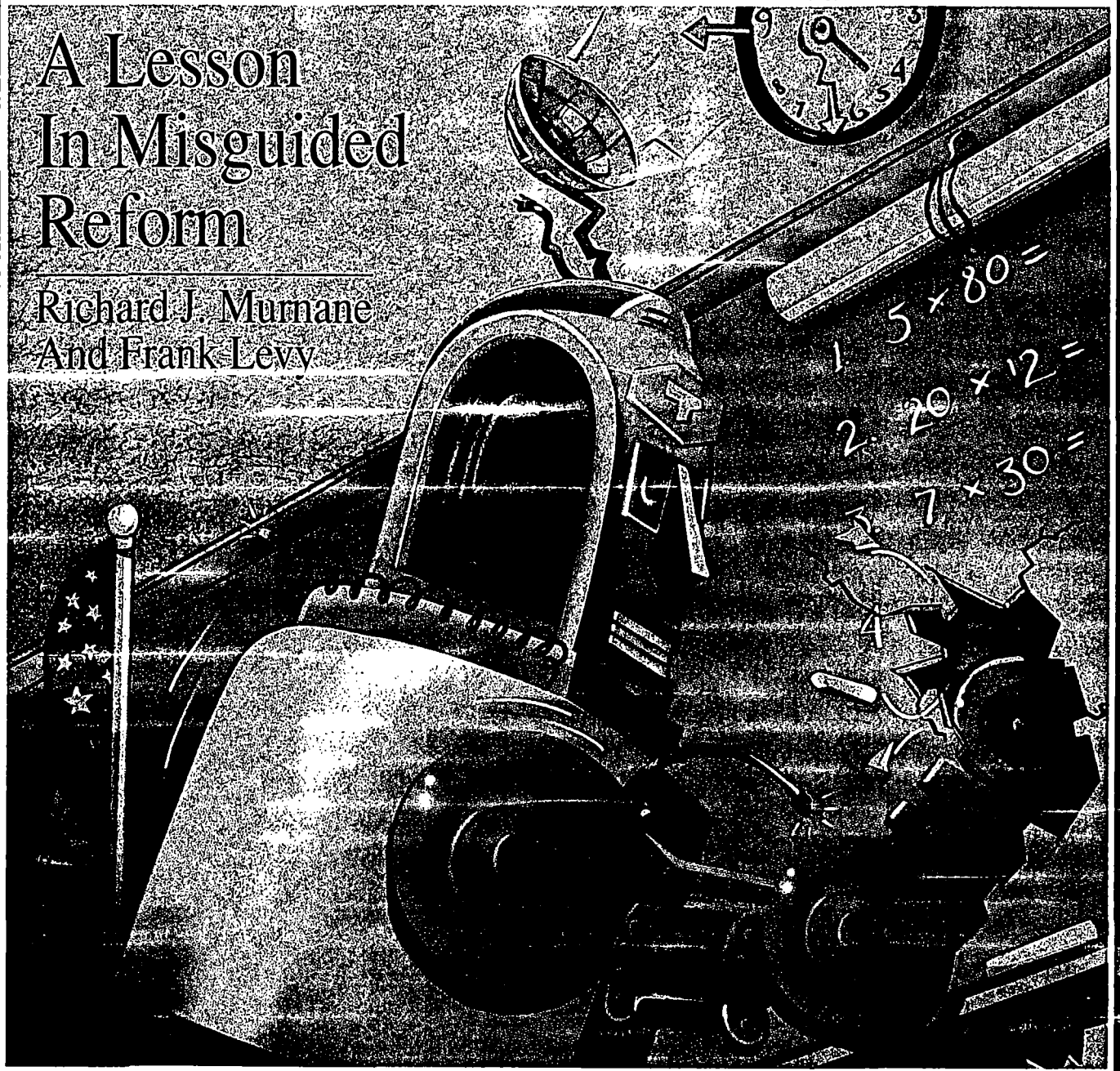
*Vivian Troen and Katherine Boles co-teach fourth grade at the Edward Devotion School in Brookline. Troen also teaches at the graduate school of Wheelock College; Boles is a lecturer at the Harvard Graduate School of Education.*

**They need  
better training,  
more incentives.**

# KAPPAN

## A Lesson In Misguided Reform

Richard J. Murnane  
And Frank Levy



# KAPPAN

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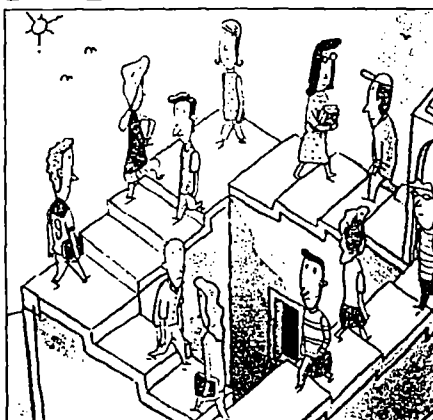
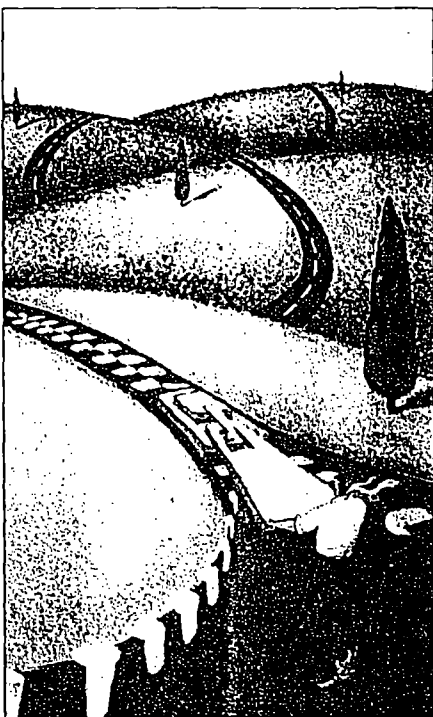
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Cover Art by Brenda Grannan



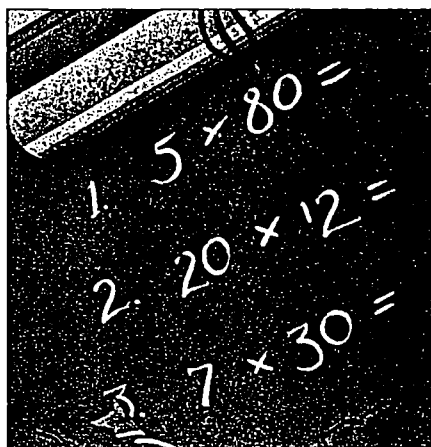
# What General Motors Can Teach U.S. Schools About the Proper Role Of Markets in Education Reform

BY RICHARD J. MURNANE AND FRANK LEVY

*It is human nature to search for "magic bullets" that promise to improve performance without painstaking effort — but choice plans, charter school programs, and school-based management initiatives are not magic bullets, Messrs. Murnane and Levy warn. These approaches will contribute to better schooling only if they stimulate change based on the Five Principles discussed below.*

**M**ARKET-BASED initiatives have been among the most durable types of reforms to be proposed for improving American education. Over the last 25 years public school choice, tuition tax credits, and vouchers that families could use to pay for education at private schools have all been advanced as ways to raise student achievement. More recently, school-based management and charter schools have emerged as strategies both to stimulate initiative and to hold schools accountable.

All these proposals are based on a single underlying theory: if schools were free to design their programs and to market these programs to families, U.S. education would improve. In this article, we argue that the theory is neither right nor wrong, but incomplete. Well-designed market-based initiatives can be one-half of effective education reform. But without the other half of reform, even well-designed initiatives will



accomplish little. And under any circumstances, badly designed initiatives can do great damage. The argument begins with a 15-year-old episode from a surprising source, General Motors.

## The Lessons of Hamtramck

In the early 1980s General Motors was in trouble. Production costs were high. Product quality was low. Consumers increasingly were choosing competitors' products, and General Motors' market share was declining. The market was sending a clear signal: GM had to change the way it was doing business. But what kind of change? Much of GM's labor force worked with dated equipment and had only minimal skills. The workers were further limited by the web of rules written into union contracts. Many General Motors plants had

more than 75 job classifications, each with strictly defined duties.

Confronting these problems was like confronting the Gordian knot: renegotiating work rules, upgrading training, reorganizing management, unraveling a history of weak productivity. But if bureaucracy and work rules were GM's weaknesses, money was its strength. And so GM evolved a strategy to spend its way out of problems by investing in robotics. Robots — robots that Ford and Chrysler could not afford — would be the sword to sever the knot. Problems in specific areas would not be solved; they would simply be bypassed by computerized machines.

The showcase for these ideas was to be GM's Hamtramck plant, a newly built Cadillac plant outside Detroit.<sup>1</sup> At Hamtramck 260 robots would handle assembly, welding, and painting operations. Parts would be moved from place to place by 50 automatic vehicles. Laser beams and cameras would be used to monitor quality. Since the point of the equipment was to bypass organizational problems, most of those problems were not addressed. Front-line workers received minimal new training. Management structures were left unchanged. Production plans were based on the expectation that the new equipment would work right the first time.

Hamtramck was a disaster. Robots failed to install parts or apply paints properly. Occasionally they destroyed the car on which they were working. Because ex-

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expectations had been so high, backup systems were weak. Getting the right people to fix the robots often required several hours, during which the assembly line was idle. Employees were both frustrated and scared. The cars themselves were awful. Hamtramck was giving the rest of the world lessons in what not to do.

For every manager — a CEO, a school principal — the Hamtramck experience holds two lessons. First, consumer choice can signal an organization when change is needed — no small accomplishment. But consumer choice cannot tell an organization *how* to change. Second, it is human nature to search for magic bullets — the new technology or set of rules that will painlessly solve problems — but this search distracts attention and saps energy from the real work that successful change requires.

### GM and the Schools

General Motors' problem in the early 1980s was not that its cars were worse than those the company had produced a decade earlier. Rather, GM's cars had improved slowly while the competition had improved more quickly, and so GM cars of the early 1980s were not good enough. American public schools today face a similar problem. The education American schools provide to students today is not worse than it was in the early 1980s. Indeed, average math scores from the National Assessment of Educational Progress were a little higher in 1992 than they were a decade earlier, and reading scores were about the same.<sup>2</sup> The problem is that education that was good enough to obtain a middle-class job in 1979 is not good enough in the economy of today.

During the past 15 years, the skills required to succeed in the American economy have changed radically, but the skills taught in most schools have changed very little. As a result of a growing mismatch between the skills of most graduates and the skills required by high-wage employers, a U.S. high school diploma is no longer a ticket to the U.S. middle class.

As late as 1979, a 30-year-old man with a U.S. high school diploma earned a yearly average of about \$28,300 (all income figures are in 1994 dollars). That income, combined with a wife's earnings from a part-time job, secured the family a solid place in the middle class. Then, almost

without warning, the economy changed. By 1983 U.S. manufacturing, threatened by imports, was rapidly downsizing, and a 30-year-old man with a high school diploma earned an average of \$23,300 a year. By 1993, with computers transforming both U.S. manufacturing and U.S. services, a 30-year-old man with a high school diploma earned an average of \$20,500. The significance of this decline in earnings becomes all the greater when we realize that in 1994 nearly half of all 30-year-old men had not gone beyond high school.

Improving a school's performance is at least as hard as improving the performance of a GM plant or of most other organizations. It requires enlisting the energies and knowledge of frontline workers — the people who do the work each day. This is hard enough in a business where all the frontline workers are on the payroll. In a school, frontline workers include the teachers, who are on the payroll, but also students and parents, who are not.

In such organizations, simple top-down commands don't work. Rather, best-practice organizations (both schools and private sector firms) have learned to manage through a set of five basic ideas — Five Principles — to elicit the frontline effort that improved performance requires. At first glance, the Five Principles appear to be simple common sense:

- Ensure that all frontline workers understand the problem.
- Design jobs so that all frontline workers have both incentives and opportunities to contribute to solutions.
- Provide all frontline workers with the training needed to pursue solutions effectively.
- Measure progress on a regular basis.
- Persevere and learn from mistakes; there are no magic bullets.

Putting the principles into practice is a different story. Building parental understanding of the need for higher student achievement, designing teacher training programs that change behavior in the classroom — this is the hard and dirty work of education reform. It is human nature to try to avoid this wrenching work and instead to search for "magic bullets" that promise to improve performance without painstaking effort.

For GM, the magic bullet was robotics. And, of course, robots had their place: they could weld and paint and do other physically demanding jobs very well. The

bad idea was seeing the introduction of robotics as a substitute for the hard work of retraining workers, improving incentives, and redesigning jobs.

In a similar way, choice plans, school-based management proposals, and charter schools have their place. When they are well designed — an issue we return to below — they contribute to school improvement by providing strong signals of the need to change. These market-based initiatives can also make change easier by shifting decisions about resource allocation from centralized bureaucracies to school-based teams.

At the same time, these initiatives raise two dangers. The first is that they will be seen as a complete answer to the nation's educational problems — a foolproof path to educating children for tomorrow's jobs. This is simple hype. Just as the market could not tell GM Hamtramck how to change, market-based initiatives cannot tell schools how to accomplish the work embodied in the Five Principles. Believing otherwise wastes crucial time and sets the stage for failed expectations.

The second, more subtle danger involves the design issues noted above. The nation's schools and GM both produce a product. But, continuing the analogy, they operate in different markets using different technologies. In terms of technology, GM faces a clean separation between production and demand. The quality of GM cars depends on activities in the plant — not on who the customers are — and so GM can focus on selling cars to anyone who wants to buy them. A school's technology is quite different. Classroom learning depends on the quality of the teachers but also on the nature of the students. Student "consumers" are part of the production process, not only for themselves but for their classmates as well. Some students are assets to their classmates; others are liabilities. From a school's perspective, finding ways to exclude the liabilities is a powerful means of improving performance.

Turn next to the market, where GM is judged by the level of its profits. No one assumes that GM should provide cars to families that cannot afford its prices. Schools operate under different rules. Under the constitution of virtually every state, every child is entitled to a good public education — a very different regime.

Taken together, the differences in technologies and markets suggest that an ap-

appropriate standard for judging a school's performance is the extent to which it provides a good education to its students without making it harder for other schools to do the same. A market-based initiative that enables some schools to improve their performance by selecting only students who are assets to their classmates and leaving to schools of last resort students who are perceived as liabilities does not contribute to the goal of providing all students with a good education.

Well-designed market-based education initiatives have much to recommend them. But as we show below, these two issues — design details and providing the "other half" of school reform — will determine whether the initiatives will actually improve U.S. education, will be just another political fad, or will reduce the quality of education provided to some children.

## School Choice

To begin to get a feeling for the Five Principles in action, consider the case of school choice. The most enthusiastic advocates of school choice are convinced that "Choice is a panacea." Even those

with less enthusiasm argue that, if schools had to compete for students, they would be forced to provide what parents want. And because parents want their children to achieve, the market will force schools to place greater emphasis on improving student skills. If these assertions were true, the first and fifth principles would be wrong. If parents really understood the problem, well-designed school choice would be a magic bullet.

But what does the evidence say? The assertions rest on an important assumption: that parents find their children's current achievement wanting. Attitudes are beginning to move in this direction, but they have a long way to go. Consider these facts:

- In the 1996 Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll, 66% of parents gave their oldest child's school a grade of A or B.<sup>4</sup>

- In 1992 almost half of the nation's 17-year-olds could not compute with fractions, decimals, and percentages; recognize geometric figures; and solve simple equations.

- In 1992 more than half of the nation's 17-year-olds did not read well enough to find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated information, and al-

most two-thirds could not respond to queries by writing complete statements that contained sufficient information.<sup>5</sup>

These math and reading skills that almost half of our 17-year-olds lack are some of the critical skills that labor market entrants — males and females, blacks, Hispanics, and Anglos — need in order to obtain and keep a middle-class job today.<sup>6</sup>

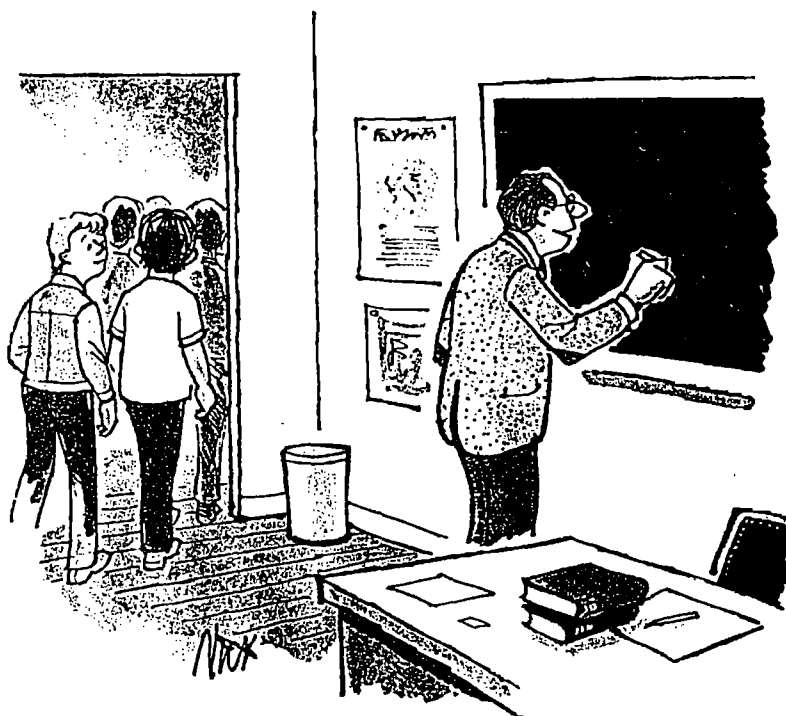
These facts should not surprise us, since evaluating a child's education is much more difficult than evaluating a car. When parents visit a school, certain things stand out — the safety, the discipline, the teachers' enthusiasm, the size of the classes. The school's ability to prepare students for the job market is much harder to judge. What parents do see is the fact alluded to above — that today's schools are teaching to slightly higher standards than the schools of 20 years ago. What parents cannot see is that the labor market has changed far faster than schools have improved. In this kind of market, it is easy to picture how choice can lead to safer and more pleasant schools — no small accomplishment. It is harder to picture how choice automatically raises student skills.

The picture is confirmed by an experiment now under way in Milwaukee. In the spring of 1990 the Wisconsin legislature enacted the Milwaukee Parental Choice Program, a voucher program aimed at low-income children in the Milwaukee public schools. The program is restricted to children in families with incomes less than 1.75 times the poverty line (about \$20,000 for a family of four). The students can use the state payment, \$2,987 in 1993-94, to attend private, nonreligious schools. The private schools accept the state payment in lieu of tuition.<sup>7</sup>

Has the program worked? The Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction commissioned an evaluation team headed by John Witte, a political scientist from the University of Wisconsin. Supporters of school choice have criticized the evaluation, calling Witte a "hired gun" whose mission is to discredit the program.<sup>8</sup> Despite the vitriol, Witte and his critics agree on four main results:

1. The participating children tend to be children who were not doing well in the Milwaukee public schools.

2. Parents of participating children are more satisfied with their children's private schools than they were with the Milwaukee public schools that their chil-



*"Education literally means 'leading out.'"*

dren had previously attended.

3. The participating private schools have lower average per-pupil expenditures than the Milwaukee public schools do.

4. Children in the choice program do not have higher reading and mathematics achievement than low-income students attending the Milwaukee public schools.<sup>9</sup>

For those with an open mind, these are important findings. The evaluation shows that choice in Milwaukee has given options to students not doing well in public schools, not just to high-achieving students who want to flee the system. Equally important, the plan has increased parents' satisfaction with their children's schools. But to this point, the plan shows no sign of raising student skills.

As always, there are caveats. Catholic schools, traditionally strong in educating low-income students, cannot participate.<sup>10</sup> The private schools that do participate work with less money per student than the Milwaukee public schools. The Milwaukee plan has been operating for only five years.<sup>11</sup> Nevertheless, the results are consistent with our expectation: choice (or any other broad reform) can complement a detailed program to raise student skills, but it is no magic bullet. There is no avoiding the dirty work embodied in the Five Principles.

The successes of the Milwaukee plan also highlight the importance of design details. Choice in Milwaukee satisfied the parents of low-income students because the Wisconsin legislature designed the plan with these families in mind. But other choice plans distribute benefits in other ways. California's Proposition 174, a 1993 ballot initiative, is a case in point.

Jack Coons is a law professor at the University of California, Berkeley, with a 30-year passion for improving the education of low-income children. Coons led the challenge in the 1960s against tying public school funding to local property taxes. Fifteen years later, he concluded that school finance reform had not done much for poor children's achievement. The way to make schools responsive to low-income parents, Coons decided, was to move to a system of vouchers and school choice.

In 1991 Coons and his longtime collaborator, fellow University of California, Berkeley, law professor Stephen Sugarman, initiated a petition drive to get school vouchers on the California ballot. They designed a plan for all California students that in-

cluded protections for low-income children. But to get the needed signatures, they had to bargain with groups that had other priorities. As the petition deadline neared, Coons and Sugarman found that they no longer had control of their coalition. Groups that wanted school choice without protections for the poor rewrote the plan to the point that Proposition 174, the voucher initiative that appeared on the California ballot in November 1993, bore little resemblance to the professors' original version.

In the Coons-Sugarman plan, for example, a participating school had to select a certain fraction of its students by lottery, and the \$5,000 state voucher had to be accepted in lieu of tuition. Together, these requirements meant that low-income students would have expanded options. The revised plan dropped both conditions: a school could select whichever students it chose, and it could impose additional tuition on top of a \$2,600 state voucher. What began as a universal choice plan with protections for the poor became a program directed at the well-to-do.<sup>12</sup>

Coons and Sugarman, angered by the changes, withdrew their support. In their view, no choice was better than a choice plan that didn't help the poor. They were relieved when Proposition 174 was defeated. They have since regrouped and continue to advocate a voucher plan aimed at improving education for poor children. Now as before, the level of support for such plans is unclear.

This evidence makes a simple point: school choice is no panacea. To begin with, the impact of any choice plan — including who wins and who loses — is determined by its details. Talking about "choice" in broad terms is not useful.<sup>13</sup> But even a fair choice plan, by itself, has limited power to boost student achievement. A fair choice plan will stimulate school change. But as in all market systems, the nature of change will be driven in large part by schools' attempts to satisfy consumers. Families that value skills will seek out schools that have organized around the teaching of skills — schools that embrace the Five Principles. Families that are satisfied with



*"May I remind counsel that court is still in recess."*

their children's skills will seek out other kinds of schools, and achievement levels will not rise. Choice by itself is only part of a solution to the nation's school problem.

## Charter Schools and School-Based Management

The logic that applies to school choice — the importance of design details and the "other half" of school reform — applies with equal force to school-based management and charter schools.

Advocates of school-based management argue that constructive school-based initiatives are hampered by school district bureaucracies. In their view, schools would be more effective if program decisions and resource allocations were made by the adults involved in a given school — principals, teachers, and parents. School boards would hold schools accountable not by checking compliance with rules but by monitoring student achievement levels.

On paper, there are many experiments that test these ideas. In reality, the ideas have rarely been tried. One-fourth of the nation's public schools instituted some nominal form of school-based management during the 1980s. But in the vast majority of cases the central office retained control of crucial decisions.<sup>14</sup> In many cases, decision-making authority was also constrained by collective bargaining agreements. The result was many "non-events," and it is not surprising that most attempts at "school-based management" have not led to improved student achievement.<sup>15</sup>

But even in a proper experiment, a move to school-based management would only begin the process. A school that wanted to raise student skills would still have to begin by getting agreement that this was the paramount goal — important enough for parents to back up increased demands for homework. It would have to seriously investigate changes in the curriculum, find strategies for providing teachers with the skills to teach that curriculum, and find ways to measure student progress — in short, the work embodied in the Five Principles. Under school-based management the school would have more freedom to undertake this work. But the school could also use its freedom to go in quite different directions.

In the years just ahead, we will learn

more about decentralized management from the new wave of charter schools. As reported in the September *Kappan*, 25 states have enacted charter school legislation that permits groups of teachers, community agencies, or profit-seeking firms to contract with a school board to operate one or more schools.<sup>16</sup> Charter schools are a promising innovation because they may actually provide the autonomy missing from many school-based management programs. This makes it easier for the school's faculty and parents to agree on a small set of goals, including, if they choose, that all students should master critical skills. Because they stand as distinct entities, charter schools may also have more staying power than a typical school-based management program in which authority is constantly renegotiated. Will charter schools increase mastery of critical skills among the nation's students? The concept is too new to have a track record, but observers should keep their eyes on how individual charter schools answer four questions.

- Does the charter school commit itself to a goal, such as mastery of critical skills for all its students, or will it emphasize other goals?

- Does the charter school commit itself to serve a fair share of the most difficult-to-educate children, and does it have a strategy for attracting such children — or will it discourage applications from such children?

- Does the charter school's contract with the school district provide enough time and enough financial support for the school to persevere and learn from the mistakes that are inevitable in any ambitious new venture?

- Does the charter school commit itself to providing information about student achievement that will allow parents to make sound judgments about the quality of the education their children are receiving?

Individual charter schools will answer these questions differently. Those that do commit themselves to providing all students with critical skills can be a positive force for improving American education, but they will still need the Five Principles to live up to their commitments.

## When to Persevere

General Motors eventually learned at Hamtramck that large investments in ro-

botics were no substitute for the hard work of redesigning jobs, improving incentives, and retraining the work force. The misguided attempt to sidestep those processes resulted in financial losses and alienated customers — significant costs, but ones that caused no permanent damage.

In schools, however, innovations that are bad ideas can have larger consequences: children who pass through the schools without learning critical skills needed to prosper in a difficult, increasingly demanding labor market. The high cost of school failure poses a difficult dilemma for school officials charged with monitoring choice, school-based management, and charter school initiatives: when to persevere on a new initiative and when to give up or to change course. The question is difficult because, without perseverance, no initiative that has potential for real improvement will succeed. At the same time, some ideas are hopelessly flawed, and it is important to end these initiatives before children experience serious losses in achievement. Two tests provide guidance about when to persevere and when to end an initiative.

*The first test.* Within a school, any plan worthy of long-term support must ultimately embrace all of the first four principles. Thus the first test of a program is to determine whether it is trying to establish consensus among teachers, students, and parents with regard to goals; to provide all parties with appropriate training and incentives; and to develop measures of progress. While the test sounds simple, it is one that many programs fail. It is all too common to hear advocates argue for such reforms as school-based management or school choice as ends in themselves. Forcing advocates to explain how a reform will improve student achievement is a powerful aid to clear thinking.

*The second test.* Even with a sensible plan, it may be several years before it is known whether or not an innovation has improved student achievement. During this time, many people will ask whether the plan is on course or whether dramatic mid-course corrections are needed. Under these circumstances, the second test should be applied. Ask whether the plan is changing the daily activities of teachers and students. Unless the daily work of teachers and students changes, student achievement cannot improve.<sup>17</sup>

As a thought experiment, consider ap-

People must see  
themselves as  
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worth at any time.

plying the tests to a new charter school. Does the school have clear goals? Are there professional development opportunities for teachers that are tied to the pursuit of clearly defined goals? Are there incentives for teachers to participate in professional development and to change the way they teach? Is there an agreed-upon strategy for measuring progress in student achievement? Does the classroom work here differ from the work in other schools? Only charter schools that provide affirmative answers to these questions will contribute to the goal of providing all children with the skills needed to thrive in today's demanding economy.

### Schools for Tomorrow

There is every likelihood that the economy will continue to change rapidly. The good jobs — the ones that pay enough to support a family — continue to become more complex and to require employees with greater levels of skill. And so economic change hits hardest at the least educated. As long as our education remains unchanged, these trends will not reverse.

But as the newspaper tells you, economic change now affects more than high school graduates. White-collar jobs at General Electric and Citibank can end in a moment. People with more than a high school diploma have to resell themselves four and five times during their careers. As long-

term commitments fade, strong education and skills become important for these workers too.

Together, these facts make up one-half of the future. They say that people must see themselves as economic free agents, prepared to prove their market worth at any time. It is a world where you go to war every day, and, short of being a millionaire, a very good education is your best armor.

The other half of the future will be created by our response to these facts. Many of today's schools continue to educate children for an economy that no longer exists, and many of today's parents are just beginning to recognize the problem. Improving our schools requires a long-term commitment to change based on the Five Principles: setting clear goals, improving incentives and redesigning jobs, continually retraining the teaching force, monitoring progress on a regular basis, and persevering in the face of adversity. The experiences of schools and private sector firms that have successfully improved show that this strategy works.

The promise of well-designed choice plans, charter school programs, and school-based management initiatives is that they can signal the need for change and can make it easier to bring about change. The danger of these initiatives is that they will be viewed as magic bullets — as the educational equivalent of robotics at Hamtramck. This danger is particularly great this election year, when candidates for public office seek to attract voters with sound bites. Choice and charter schools lend themselves to sound bites. The details — the differences between Proposition 174 and the Coons/Sugarman voucher plan, for example — do not. Moreover, the central message, that market-based initiatives will contribute to better schooling only if they stimulate change based on the Five Principles, is too complicated for electoral speeches. The crucial question now is whether America is ready to hear the hard truth, taught by GM's experience, that there is no substitute for the difficult work of restructuring.

1. The description of the experience at Hamtramck is based on Maryann Keller, *Rude Awakening: The Rise, Fall, and Struggle for Recovery of General Motors* (New York: William Morrow, 1989).

2. See Ina V. S. Mullis et al., *Report in Brief: NAEP 1992 Trends in Academic Progress* (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, July

1994), pp. 12-13.

3. John E. Chubb and Terry M. Moe, "Choice Is a Panacea," *Brookings Review*, Summer 1990, pp. 4-12.

4. Stanley M. Elam, Lowell C. Rose, and Alec M. Gallup, "The 28th Annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, September 1996, p. 46.

5. Mullis et al., pp. 12-14.

6. For a detailed discussion of critical skills, see Richard J. Murnane and Frank Levy, *Teaching the New Basic Skills: Principles for Educating Children to Thrive in a Changing Economy* (New York: Free Press, 1996).

7. John F. Witte, Andrea B. Bailey, and Christopher A. Thom, *Third-Year Report: Milwaukee Parental Choice Program* (Madison: Department of Political Science and Robert La Follette Institute of Public Affairs, University of Wisconsin, December 1993); and John F. Witte et al., *Fourth-Year Report: Milwaukee Parental Choice Program* (Madison: Department of Political Science and Robert La Follette Institute of Public Affairs, University of Wisconsin, December 1994). As currently operated, the program is limited to 1.5% of students in the Milwaukee public schools.

8. Daniel McGroarty, "School Choice Slandered," *The Public Interest*, Fall 1994, pp. 94-111.

9. Witte, Bailey, and Thom, pp. 22-23.

10. Anthony S. Bryk, Valerie E. Lee, and Peter B. Holland, *Catholic Schools and the Common Good* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1993).

11. The most recent evaluation of the Milwaukee choice program describes outcomes in the fourth year of the program.

12. The descriptions of the Coons and Sugarman voucher initiative and Proposition 174 come from the following sources: John E. Coons and Stephen D. Sugarman, *Scholarships for Children* (Berkeley, Calif.: Institute of Governmental Studies Press, 1992); and "Education Vouchers. Initiative Constitutional Amendment," from California ballot pamphlet, analysis by the legislative analyst (Sacramento: Secretary of State, State of California, November 1993), pp. 32-35.

13. For a thoughtful discussion of the conditions under which choice may promote improvements in an organization's performance, see Albert O. Hirschman, *Exit, Voice, and Loyalty* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1970).

14. Joan First et al., *The Good Common School* (Boston: National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1991), pp. 29-31.

15. See Anita A. Summers and Amy W. Johnson, "Review of the Evidence on the Effects of School Based Management Plans," paper presented at the Conference on Improving the Performance of America's Schools: Economic Choices, National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 12-13 October 199 and Bruce Bimber, *The Decentralization Mirage: Comparing Decision-Making Arrangements in Four High Schools* (Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND Corporation, 1994).

16. Joe Nathan, "Possibilities, Problems, and Progress: Early Lessons from the Charter Movement," *Phi Delta Kappan*, September 1996, pp. 15-23.

17. For a rich description of this perspective, see Edward Pauly, *The Classroom Crucible: What Really Works, What Doesn't, and Why* (New York: Basic Books, 1991).

## From High School to Teaching: Many Steps. Who Makes It?

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Over the next 10 years, the nation's teaching force will change dramatically as almost two million new teachers replace the large number of teachers currently nearing retirement age. What will the teaching force look like in the years ahead? Will it be racially and ethnically diverse? Will it consist of academically talented college graduates? Insights into the answers to these questions come from analyzing which high school students from the 1980s completed the long path into teaching. Steps along this path include high school graduation, college entry, college graduation, and, finally, entry into teaching.

In this paper, we focus on the role of race and ethnicity in predicting who becomes a teacher because we believe that in our increasingly heterogeneous society, children need to observe that adults from different ethnic backgrounds can effectively hold leadership positions in our society. Moreover, particularly for students of color, effective teachers of diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds may provide the inspiration and role models needed to succeed in school.

We focus on the impact of academic skills on entry into teaching because teaching well is a complex cognitive challenge requiring the ability to think and reason clearly. The positive correlations between teachers' scores on standardized tests and the test scores or test score gains of their students found in a number of studies support the notion that standardized test scores are an indicator of relevant academic skills for teachers (Coleman *et al.* 1966, Hanushek 1972, Summers & Wolfe, 1977, Ferguson 1990, Strauss & Sawyer 1990). This is why we believe it is important to attract academically talented college graduates to teaching. At the same time, we do not equate the test scores of potential teachers with their teaching effectiveness. Effective teaching requires many skills not measured by scores on multiple choice tests of reading and mathematics.

Most studies of the characteristics of entrants into teaching have focused on the occupational decisions of college graduates (for example: Vance and Schlechty 1982, Murnane *et al.* 1991, Hanushek and Pace 1995).<sup>1</sup> These studies show that college graduates who enter teaching tend to have lower academic skills (as measured by test scores) than graduates entering other professions. However, the occupational decisions of college graduates are their last in a series of steps that determines who becomes a teacher. In this paper, we examine the role that race/ethnicity and academic skills play in explaining students' success in completing each of these steps.

We show that the challenge of creating a racially and ethnically diverse teaching force is not primarily one of influencing the occupational decisions of Black, Hispanic, and Native American college graduates. Instead, the critical challenge is to increase the high school

graduation, college enrollment, and college graduation rates of Black, Hispanic, and Native-American youth. We also show that low academic skills in high school are a critical factor explaining why relatively low percentages of Black, Hispanic, and Native American students complete both high school and college.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section I, we discuss our data and empirical strategy. In Section II, we present the findings of our analysis of who succeeds at each step of the path into teaching. Finally, in Section III, we present a discussion of our findings.

## **Research Design**

### *Dataset and Sample*

The sample consists of the sophomore cohort of High School and Beyond (HSB), a longitudinal survey that interviewed participants in 1980, 1982, 1984, 1986, and 1992. The last round of interviews in 1992 provides information on the initial career decisions of individuals in the sample.

### *Measures*

We use four dichotomous outcome variables, one for each of the key steps along the path into teaching. These outcome variables represent: (1) graduation from high school; (2) entry into college; (3) graduation from college; and (4) entry into teaching.

The predictors of interest include indicators of racial and ethnic background and of tenth-grade academic skills. In all our analyses, we also control for gender and for important interactions among our predictors. The indicators of racial and ethnic background are a set of dummy variables representing: African American, Asian American, Hispanic, and Native American. The omitted group is White, non-Hispanic (to which, for ease of presentation, we will refer as simply White).

Our measure of tenth-grade academic skills is a composite of the scores that 1980 high school sophomores obtained in a battery of tests in science, math, reading, vocabulary, and writing. For each individual, we created a composite index of scores on the five tests using principal components analysis (see Appendix 2).

A detailed description of our measures is presented in Appendix 1, along with relevant descriptive statistics.

### *Statistical Analyses*

In our analyses, we explore high school sophomores' career transitions along each step of the path into teaching. We analyze who graduates from high school, who enters college, who graduates from college, and, finally, who becomes a teacher. At each step of the path into teaching, we ask: (1) whether the probability of moving to the next step differs among

individuals of different racial or ethnic origin, (2) whether the probability of moving to the next step is predicted by tenth-grade academic skills, and (3) whether individuals of different racial or ethnic origin *but with the same level of tenth-grade academic skills* have different probabilities of completing each step of the path into teaching.<sup>2</sup>

To answer the first question, we present a table displaying the percentage of each racial/ethnic group by gender that achieved each step.

To answer the second question, we use logistic regression analyses to examine whether succeeding in each step along the path into teaching is predicted by tenth-grade academic skills, controlling for gender and race/ethnicity. As part of this analysis, we explore whether the role of academic skills in predicting success at each step varies by gender and by racial/ethnic group.

To answer the third question, we use the fitted logistic regression models to construct plots displaying the probability of completing each step for substantively-interesting “prototypical” people. Given that teaching is a primarily female profession and because of limited space, we present these prototypical fitted plots of the probability of completing each step of the path into teaching for females by race/ethnic group. However, we note one instance where the fitted probabilities are significantly different for males – the fitted probability of entering teaching conditional on having graduated from college. Each prototypical plot extends between the 10<sup>th</sup> and 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles of test scores for females of each racial or ethnic group.<sup>3</sup> By examining these prototypical fitted plots, we can assess the extent to which differences by race and ethnicity in the probabilities of completing each step of the path into teaching stem from differences in tenth-grade academic skills.

## Findings

Our initial sample consisted of 11,816 high school sophomores in 1980. Of these, 62% were White, 21% were Hispanic, 13% were African American, 3% were Asian American, 2% were of Native American descent. A total of 434 individuals, or 3.7 percent of the original sample, became teachers in the period between 1986 and 1992. The percentages by racial/ethnic group vary considerably. The highest percentage is for African-American sophomores, 4.4% of whom became teachers. The percentage of White high school sophomores who became teachers is the same as the percentage of Native-American sophomores who did so, 3.7 percent. The percentages of Hispanic sophomores and Asian-American sophomores who became teachers are 3.3 and 2.9, respectively. These percentages, while interesting, mask enormous differences in the percentages of sophomores of each racial/ethnic group who succeed at each of the steps of the path into teaching. Understanding these differences is critical to targeting interventions aimed at increasing the number of students from particular racial/ethnic groups who enter teaching. It is to these individual steps that we now turn.

## *Who Graduates from High School?*

Table 1 presents the percentages of high school sophomores in the sample who graduated from high school, by gender, race, and ethnicity. The figures presented in Table 1 show that females have slightly higher rates of high school graduation than males. They also show that Native-American, Black, and Hispanic high school sophomores are less likely to obtain high school diplomas than are White and Asian-American sophomores.

### **Insert Table 1 about here**

To what extent are the differences in high school graduation rates by race/ethnicity explained by differences in academic skills as measured by 10<sup>th</sup> grade test scores? As explained above, logistic regression analysis helps to answer this question. The prototypical fitted curves in Figure 1 illustrate the contents of our final fitted logistic regression models (which are presented in Appendix 3, Table A3.1). Each of the curves in Figure 1 presents the fitted relationship between tenth-grade test score and probability of high school graduation for females of a particular racial/ethnic group. The positive slopes of all the curves in Figure 1 illustrate that among students in every racial-ethnic group, those with higher tenth grade test scores were more likely to graduate from high school.

### **Insert Figure 1 about here**

If differences in high school graduation rates by race/ethnicity were explained entirely by differences in average tenth-grade test scores, there would be only one curve in Figure 1. The vertical distances between the curves corresponding to different racial/ethnic groups illustrate that there are differences in high school graduation rates by racial/ethnic group for high school sophomores with the same 10<sup>th</sup> grade test scores. In particular, Asian-American students (the top curve in Figure 1) are more likely to graduate than are students from other racial/ethnic groups who have the same 10<sup>th</sup> grade test scores. In contrast, throughout most of the test score range, Native-American students (the bottom curve for most of Figure 1) are less likely to graduate than are students from other racial/ethnic groups with the same tenth grade scores. The curves for White, African-American, and Hispanic students in Figure 1 are quite close, illustrating that students from these groups who had the same tenth grade test scores had about the same probability of graduating from high school.

Yet as we know from Table 1, Black and Hispanic students (as well as Native-American students) were less likely to graduate from high school than were Whites. Much of the explanation for these differences lies in heterogeneity in tenth grade test scores. Black, Hispanic, and Native-American children in our society are much more likely to grow up in low-income families than are White, non-Hispanic children. They are also much more likely to attend low-quality schools than are White youth. One critical way in which these handicaps manifest themselves is in weak academic skills – skills that are of great importance in acquiring educational credentials.

Each solid circle in Figure 1 illustrates the predicted high school graduation rate for a female with the average tenth-grade test score for females in her racial/ethnic group. The fact that the circles for African-American, Hispanic, and Native-American students lie to the left of

those for White and Asian-American students illustrates that the average tenth grade test scores of the former groups are considerably lower than those of the latter groups. The dashed lines connecting the solid circles to the vertical axis illustrate that the lower high school graduation rates of Black students and Hispanic students (as shown in Table 1 and by the vertical ranking of the horizontal lines in Figure 1) can be explained by differences in tenth grade test scores. In fact, throughout most of the test score range, African-American females were more likely to graduate from high school than were White females with the same test scores.

Differences in the ranges of tenth-grade academic skills by race and ethnicity are worth highlighting. Whites and Asian-American high school sophomores tend to have higher tenth-grade academic skills than Hispanics, African-Americans, and Native Americans. This implies that if we were to choose an African-American, Native-American, or Hispanic person at random from the population, the probability s/he is a high school graduate will be lower than if the person were White or Asian American because of the existing differences in ranges of tenth-grade academic skills by race/ethnicity. But if we were to select two individuals with the *same* tenth-grade academic skills level but different race and ethnicity, the probability that the person is a high school graduate is higher for African Americans and Hispanics than for Whites (and Native Americans). Thus, tenth-grade academic skills account for most of the variation by race/ethnicity in the probability of high school graduation.

#### *Who Enters College?*

Patterns of college entry are different from those of high school graduation. Table 2 shows that, among Black, Hispanic, and Native-American high school graduates, *females* are more likely to enter college than males. In contrast, among high school graduates of White or Asian-American backgrounds, *males* are more likely to enter college.

#### **Insert Table 2 about here.**

As in the case of high school graduation, there are considerable differences in the probability of college entry by race and ethnicity. Asian-American high school graduates have the highest rate of college entry (80.6% for males and 78.4% for females). But African-American high school graduates have the second-highest rate, with about 69% female and 67% male of high school graduates in this race group entering college. About 64% of White female and 67% of White male high school graduates in the sample entered college. As in the case of high school graduation, Hispanic and Native American high school graduates' college entry rates lag behind those of Whites and Asian Americans.

Figure 2 presents prototypical fitted curves of the probability of entering college for female high school graduates in each race and ethnic group by tenth-grade academic skills (see Appendix 3, Table A3.2 for the fitted models). The positive slopes of the curves in Figure 2 illustrate that, in all racial/ethnic groups, those high school graduates with strong academic skills, as measured by tenth grade test scores, were more likely to enroll in college than graduates with lower academic skills.

### **Insert Figure 2 about here**

Figure 2 also shows that, among female high school graduates with the same tenth-grade academic skills, African-Americans have the highest estimated probability of entering college, closely followed by Asian-Americans. Next in line are Hispanic students, then White students. Among high school graduates with the same tenth-grade test scores, Native-Americans have the lowest probability of enrolling in college.

How important are tenth grade academic skills in explaining differences in college enrollment rates by racial/ethnic group? Figure 2 illustrates that the answer varies by racial/ethnic group. If the average 10<sup>th</sup> grade test score of African-American female high school graduates were as high as the average tenth grade score of Asian-American female graduates, their predicted college enrollment rate would be just as high—in fact, slightly higher. The figure illustrates that most African-American high school graduates with solid academic skills do enroll in college. The problem is that many African-American high school graduates have relatively weak academic skills, as measured by 10<sup>th</sup> grade test scores.

In contrast, low tenth grade test scores cannot explain the low college enrollment rate of Native-American high school graduates. In fact, the average tenth grade score for Native-American female high school graduates is only slightly lower than the average 10<sup>th</sup> grade score for Asian-American female graduates. Yet the college enrollment rate of Native-American high school graduates is not much more than half that of Asian-American high school graduates.

### ***Who Obtains a Bachelor's Degree?***

Among students who enroll in college, Asian-Americans have the highest graduation rate, followed by Whites. The graduation rates of Hispanic and Black students are considerably lower, and that of Native-Americans is by far the lowest (See Table 3).

### **Insert Table 3 about here.**

How much of the differences can be explained by differences in the quality of students' preparation for college, as measured by tenth-grade academic skills? Figure 3 illustrates the answer (see Appendix 3, Table A3.3 for the fitted models). In all racial/ethnic groups, college students with relatively high tenth grade test scores were more likely to graduate than students with low tenth grade scores. But the vertical distances between the curves illustrate that there are important differences among racial/ethnic groups in the graduation rates of college students with the same tenth grade academic skills.

Among college enrollees with the same tenth-grade academic skills, Asian-Americans are the most likely to graduate. The graduation rates of White, Black, and Native-American college enrollees with the same tenth-grade academic skills are about the same, lower than that of Asian-American college students, but considerably higher than that of Native-American college students. An implication of this pattern is that increasing the quality of Black and Hispanic students' preparation for college would significantly reduce the gap between their college graduation rates and that of White college students. Among Native-American college enrollees, those with strong high school academic skills are more likely to graduate from college than those with relatively weak high school academic skills.

However, even among those Native-American students with relatively strong academic skills, the estimated graduation rate is much lower than the estimated graduation rate for students from other racial/ethnic groups with the same level of tenth-grade academic skills. Once again, this suggests that improving academic preparation is not enough to close the gap between the educational attainments of Native-American college students and those of White college students.

**Insert Figure 3 about here**

### *Who Enters Teaching?*

Table 4 presents the percentages of college graduates by gender in each racial/ethnic group who entered teaching.<sup>4</sup> Female college graduates of all racial and ethnic groups were more likely to enter teaching than their male counterparts. Among college graduates in the sample, Native Americans, African Americans, and Hispanics have the highest percentages of teacher entry (58%, 29%, and 24% respectively for females; and 7.1%, 10.6%, and 10.4% respectively for males). About 18% of White female college graduates in the sample entered teaching, whereas only about 5% of White male college graduates did so. The group with the lowest rate of teacher entry in the sample is Asian-American college graduates, with 9% of females and 3% of males in the sample having chosen to become teachers.

**Insert Table 4 about here.**

The prototypical fitted plots in the first panel of Figure 4 (see Appendix 3, Table A3.4 for the fitted models) illustrate that for every racial/ethnic group, female college graduates with strong academic skills as measured by tenth grade test scores were less likely to become teachers than were graduates with weaker academic skills. This pattern, which has been reported in other studies (for example: Murnane *et al.* 1991, Hanushek and Pace 1995), is not difficult to explain. Teaching is a relatively low-status, low paying occupation, and one in which there are few financial rewards for excellence. Academically talented college graduates are drawn to occupations with greater prestige and compensation.

**Insert Figure 4 about here**

In fact, what is of greater surprise than the downward slopes of the fitted curves in panel (a) of Figure 4 is the relative flatness of the curves for Whites, African Americans, and Asian Americans. The flatness indicates that for these groups, there is not a large difference between the probability that academically talented college graduates enter teaching and the probability that less talented graduates become teachers. For example, the predicted probability of becoming a teacher for a White female college graduate whose tenth-grade test score was at the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for her group is 0.15, compared to 0.12 for a White female college graduate with a score at the corresponding 10<sup>th</sup> percentile. The corresponding figures for African-American female college graduates are 0.19 and 0.16. These patterns indicate that in the late 1980s and early 1990s it was by no means the case that among African-American, White, and Asian-American female college graduates, only those with weak academic skills became teachers.

In contrast, this claim is much more true for Hispanic female college graduates. Only one in ten Hispanic female college graduates with test scores at the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile for their group

is predicted to enter teaching compared to one in four Hispanic female graduates with test scores at the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile for the group. This is a disturbing pattern. Hispanics are the most rapidly growing group in the U.S. student population. If the country is to have a teaching force demographically similar to its student population, schools will need to hire a great many Hispanic teachers in the years ahead. These new teachers must not be the least academically talented Hispanic college graduates.

Though not surprising, it is noteworthy that the fitted probability of entering teaching for male college graduates are significantly lower than those for female college graduates at all levels of tenth-grade academic skills, as illustrated in panel (b) of Figure 4. In addition, the slopes of the prototypical fitted curves for African-American, White, and Asian-American male college graduates are slightly upward sloping. This suggests that, in contrast to our findings for females, males of these racial/ethnic groups with high tenth-grade academic skills have a *higher* estimated probability of entering teaching than males with low tenth-grade academic skills. However, this is not the case among Hispanic male college graduates, for whom the prototypical fitted curve has a flat slope, indicating that there are no differences in the fitted probability of entering teaching by tenth-grade academic skills for males of this ethnic group.

Figure 4 helps to better understand the patterns of teacher entry by race displayed in Table 4. Comparing females with the same tenth-grade academic skills, African-American college graduates were more likely to become teachers than were White and Asian-American college graduates. This may reflect barriers that Black females face in gaining entry into other professions. The significant vertical distances between the curves in Figure 4 illustrate that differences in the probability that college graduates of different races and ethnic backgrounds enter teaching does not stem primarily from differences in average tenth grade test scores. In fact, for every group except Hispanics, test scores play only a modest role in explaining differences by race/ethnicity in the percentages that female college graduates become teachers.

## Discussion

In this paper, we have shown that there are important differences among racial/ethnic groups in the rates of success at each step along the path into teaching. The early steps in the path into teaching – high school graduation, college entry, and college graduation – are critical in explaining racial and ethnic differences in who becomes a teacher. Weak academic skills relative to those of Whites and Asian Americans play a key role in limiting Black students' and Hispanic students' opportunities of succeeding at each of these early steps.

Our analyses suggest that improving the academic preparation of African-American and Hispanic high school students would close the gaps between their success rates relative to those of White students in achieving high school graduation, college enrollment, and college graduation. Raising the average academic skills of Native-American high school students would also contribute markedly to the educational attainment of Native-American students. However, unlike the case for Black students and Hispanic students, raising the average academic preparation of Native American high school students to that of White high school students would not eliminate the gaps between these groups' high school graduation, college enrollment, and

college graduation rates. Native-American students appear to face particular difficulties in acquiring the educational credentials that are increasingly valued in today's labor market (Gottschalk, 1997) and are necessary steps along the path into teaching and other professions.

In summary, this paper has shown that focusing only on the occupational decisions of college graduates misses critical obstacles to developing a racially and ethnically diverse, academically talented teaching force. Increasing the number of Black and Hispanic students who graduate from high school, enroll in college and graduate from college is the key to increasing the representation of these groups in the teaching force. In fact, Black college graduates are much more likely to enter teaching than are White college graduates, and this is just as true for graduates with very strong academic skills as it is for graduates with weaker academic skills. The problem is that there are not enough Black college graduates and Hispanic college graduates. Only 21% of African-American, 17% of Hispanic, and 12% of Native-American high school sophomores in 1980 graduated from college by 1992, compared to 50% of Asian Americans and 32% of Whites. Weak academic skills are an important part of the explanation of these gaps, especially for African Americans and Hispanics.

We began this paper by asking what the nation's teaching force will look like in the years ahead. In particular, we asked whether it will be a racially diverse, academically talented teaching force. We have shown that the answer to these questions will depend to a great extent on the nation's success in improving the quality of education provided in the nation's elementary and secondary schools. A strikingly high percentage of American students with strong academic skills graduate from high school, enroll in college, and graduate from college. The problem is that too many students, especially African-American, Hispanic, and Native-American students, reach tenth grade without strong academic skills. Progress in solving this problem is the key to creating a racially and ethnically diverse, academically talented teaching force in the future.

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**Appendix 1:**  
**Description of Variables**

Insert Table A1 about here.

Insert Table A2 about here.

**Appendix 2:**  
**Principal Components Analysis of Tenth-grade Academic Skills**

The results of a principal components analysis of the five IRT tests -- vocabulary, reading, math, science, and writing -- are presented in Table A2.1.

Insert Table A2.1 about here.

In the second column, we display the eigenvalues for each measure. The first principal component has a much higher eigenvalue than the other four (3.72) and accounts for 74% of the total variance. A scree plot of eigenvalues against the component numbers indicates that the first component is the most important, suggesting that the five scores can be effectively composited into a single indicator.

Examining the eigenvectors (or loadings) of each test of the first principal component, one can see that the five tests contribute almost equally. To score high on this component, an individual would have to score high in all five IRT tests. This suggests that this principal component measures overall student achievement.

**Appendix 3:**  
**Fitted Logistic Regression Models at Each Step of the Path into Teaching**

Insert Table A3.1 about here.

Insert Table A3.2 about here.

Insert Table A3.3 about here.

Insert Table A3.4 about here.

**Table 1: Percentages of High School Sophomores Graduating from High School, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender**

|                  | Males | Females |
|------------------|-------|---------|
| African American | 78.5  | 82.6    |
| Asian American   | 91.4  | 94.4    |
| Hispanic         | 79.6  | 80.7    |
| Native American  | 77.2  | 81.7    |
| White            | 85.2  | 89.4    |

**Table 2: Percentages of High School Graduates Entering College, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender**

|                  | Males | Females |
|------------------|-------|---------|
| African American | 66.7  | 68.6    |
| Asian American   | 80.6  | 78.4    |
| Hispanic         | 53.8  | 58.4    |
| Native American  | 44.3  | 52.9    |
| White            | 67.0  | 64.4    |

**Table 3: Percentages of College Entrants Obtaining a Bachelor's Degree by Race/Ethnicity and Gender**

|                  | Males | Females |
|------------------|-------|---------|
| African American | 40.3  | 37.7    |
| Asian American   | 67.9  | 67.5    |
| Hispanic         | 39.8  | 42.3    |
| Native American  | 35.9  | 26.7    |
| White            | 56.0  | 54.5    |

**Table 4: Sample Percentages of College Graduates Entering Teaching, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender**

|                  | Males | Females |
|------------------|-------|---------|
| African American | 10.6  | 28.7    |
| Asian American   | 2.6   | 8.6     |
| Hispanic         | 10.4  | 24.1    |
| Native American  | 7.1   | 58.3    |
| White            | 5.4   | 17.5    |

**Figure 1: Fitted Probability of the High School Graduation of Females as a Function of Tenth-Grade Academic Skills, by Race/Ethnicity**

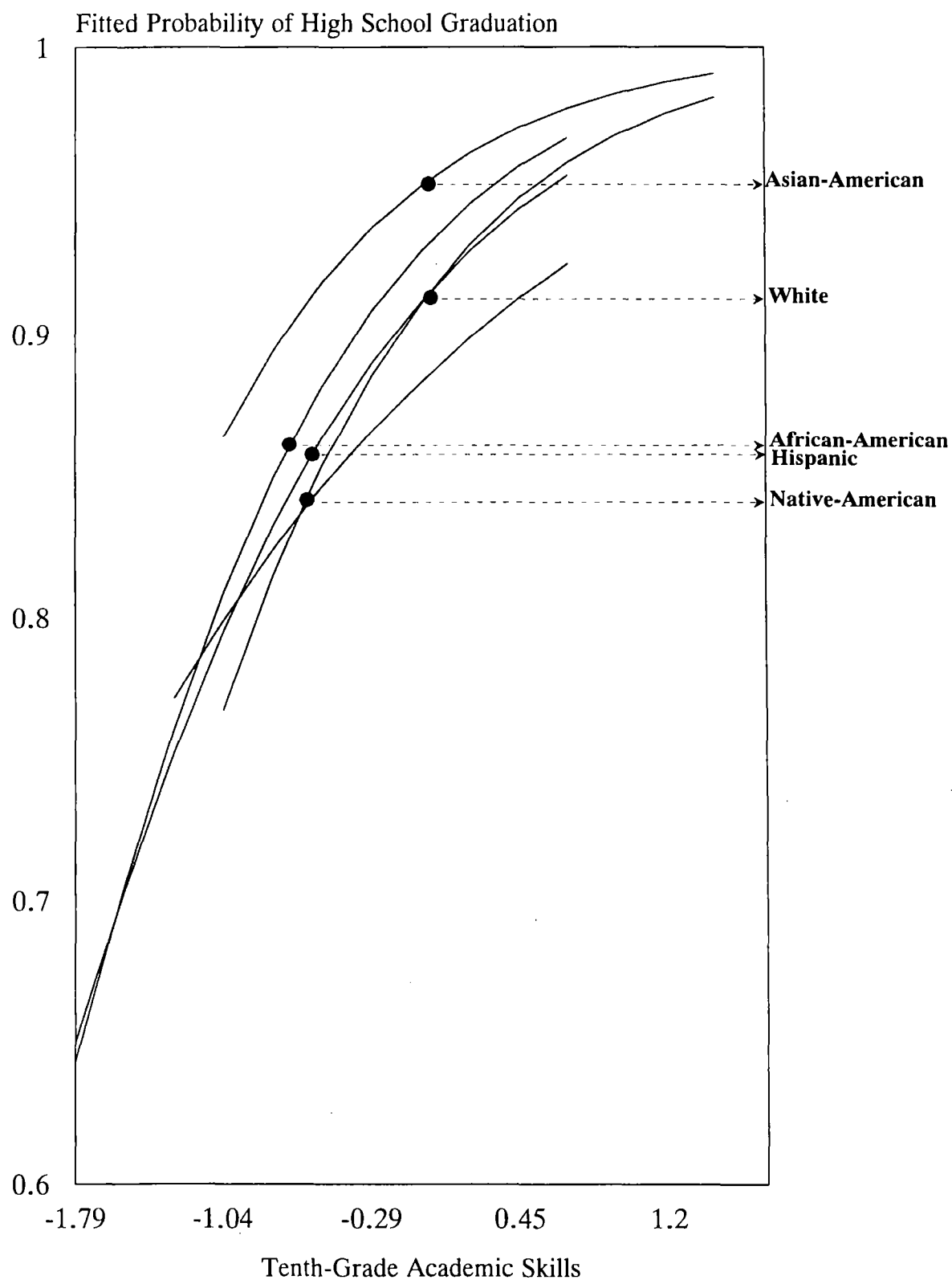


**Figure 2: Fitted Probability of the College Entry of Females as a Function of Tenth-Grade Academic Skills, by Race/Ethnicity**

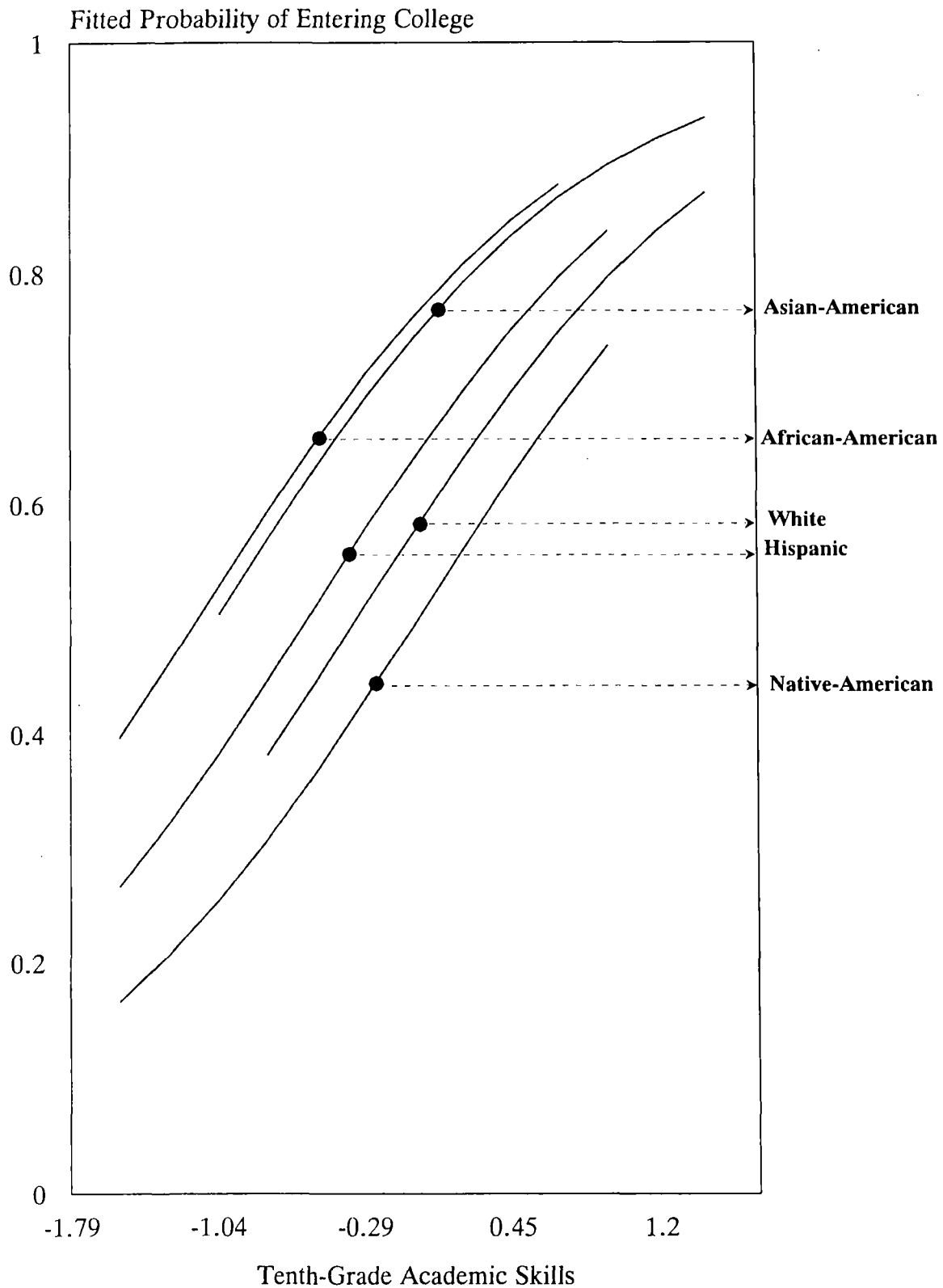


**Figure 3: Fitted Probability of the College Graduation of Females as a Function of Tenth-Grade Academic Skills, by Race/Ethnicity**

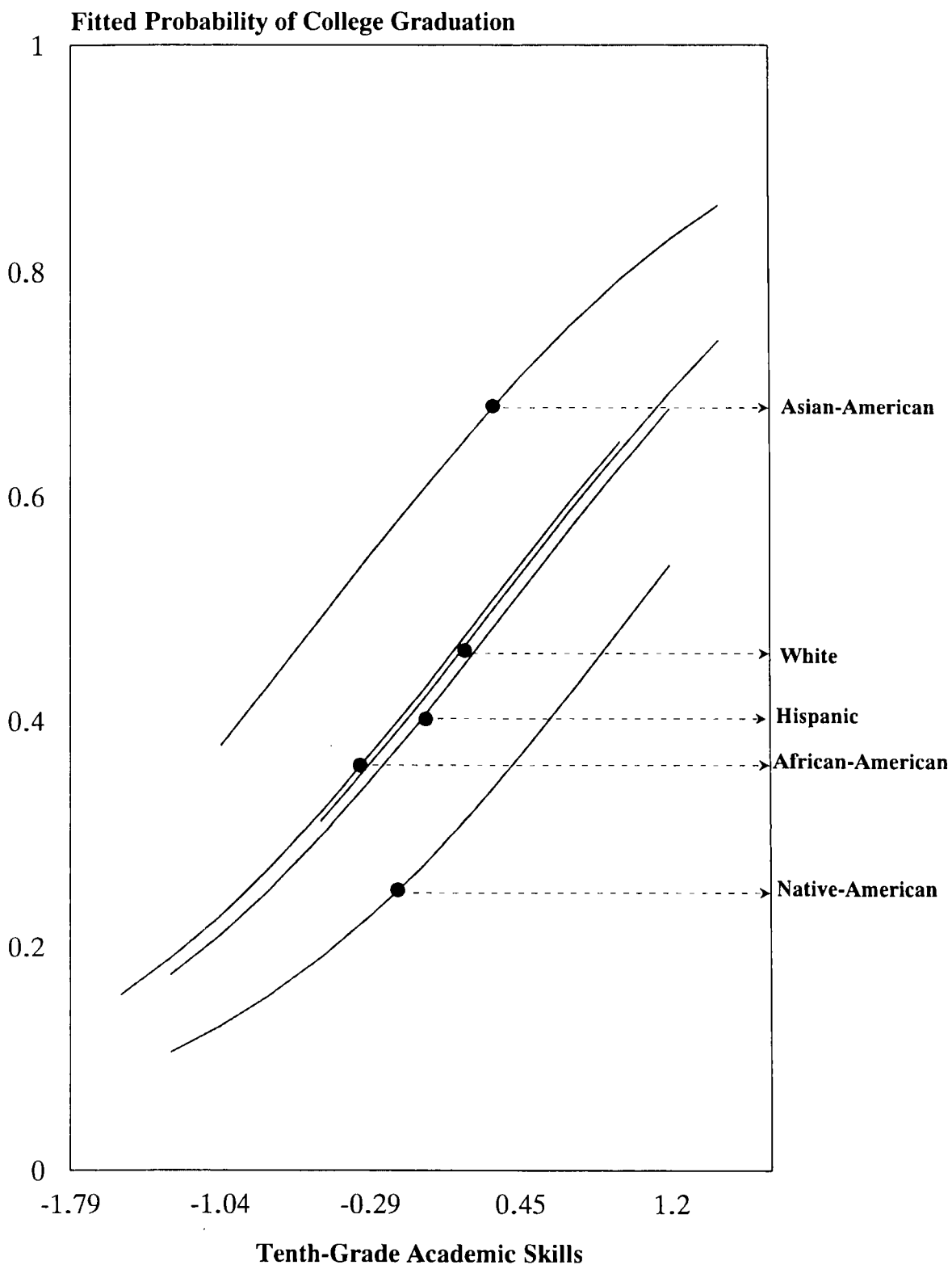
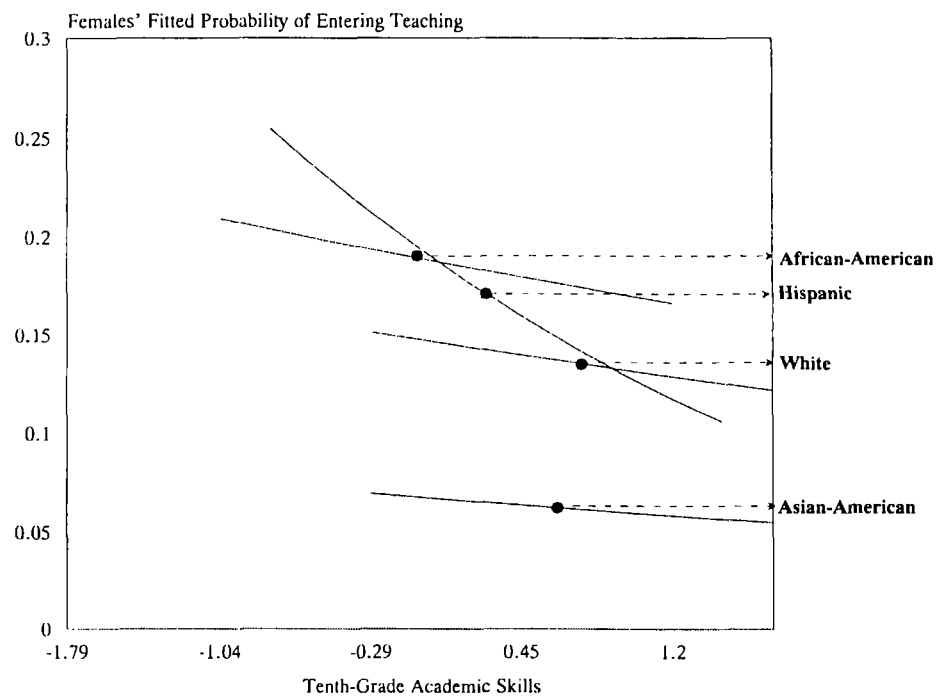
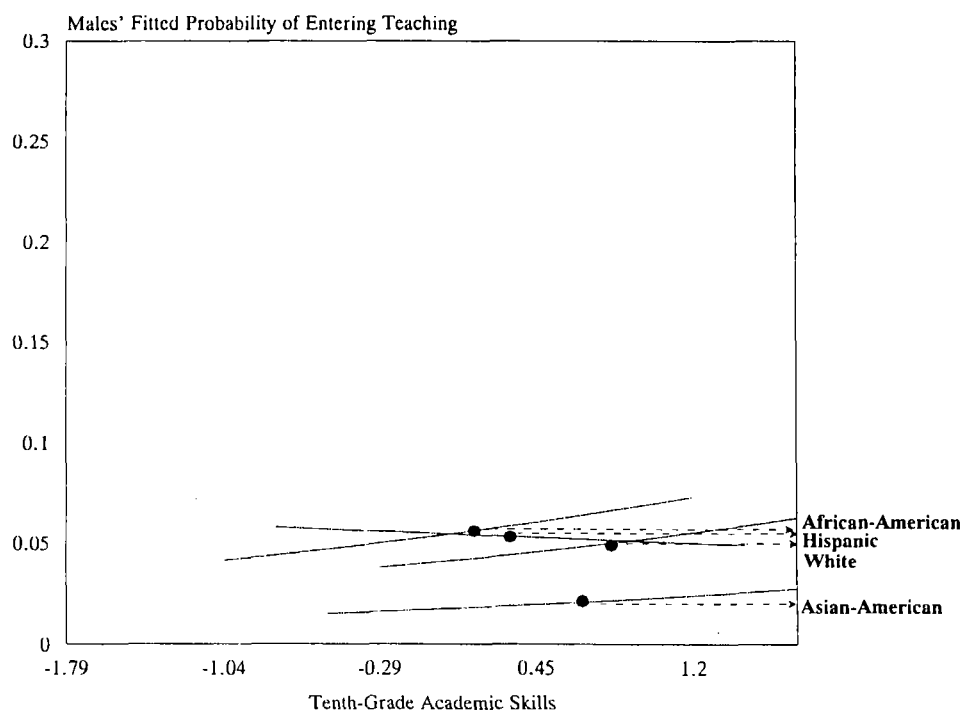


**Figure 4: Fitted Probability of the Teacher Entry of Females and Males as a Function of Tenth-Grade Academic Skills, by Race/Ethnicity**



(a)



(b)

**Table A1.1: Variable Definitions**

| Variable Name    | Definition                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
|------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| HSGRAD           | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is a high school graduate and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                          |
| ENTCOL           | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual entered a 2- or 4-year college and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                     |
| BAGRAD           | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is a 4-year college graduate and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                       |
| TEACHER          | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual ever declared to be a teacher as his/her occupation and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                |
| HISPANIC         | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is of Hispanic origin and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                              |
| NATIVE           | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is of Native-American origin and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                       |
| ASIAN            | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is of Asian-American origin and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                        |
| BLACK            | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is of African-American origin and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                      |
| WHITE            | a dichotomous variable that takes on the value 1 if the individual is of White origin and 0 otherwise.                                                                                                                                 |
| IRT FACTOR SCORE | a continuous variable that contains a composite of the individual's scores on a battery of IRT tests in 1980, including reading, writing, vocabulary, math, and science. See Appendix 2 for details on how this composite was created. |

**Table A1.2: Summary Statistics**

| Variable         | Mean  | Std. Dev. | Min    | Max   |
|------------------|-------|-----------|--------|-------|
| HSGRAD           | 0.862 |           |        |       |
| ENTCOL           | 0.560 |           |        |       |
| BAGRAD           | 0.289 |           |        |       |
| TEACHER          | 0.038 |           |        |       |
| HISPANIC         | 0.199 |           |        |       |
| INDIAN           | 0.019 |           |        |       |
| ASIAN            | 0.026 |           |        |       |
| BLACK            | 0.117 |           |        |       |
| WHITE            | 0.640 |           |        |       |
| IRT FACTOR SCORE | 0.004 | 1.928     | -4.298 | 4.980 |

**Table A2.1: Principal Components Analysis**

| <b>Component</b> | <b>Eigenvalue</b> | <b>Variable</b> | <b>Eigenvector</b> |
|------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1                | 3.72              | IRT vocabulary  | 0.45               |
| 2                | 0.40              | IRT reading     | 0.46               |
| 3                | 0.36              | IRT math        | 0.45               |
| 4                | 0.27              | IRT science     | 0.45               |
| 5                | 0.26              | IRT writing     | 0.43               |

**Table A3.1: Fitted Logistic Regression Analyses of the Probability of High School Graduation by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenth-Grade Academic Skills (n=10584)**

|                             | Model              |                    |                    |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|                             | A                  | B                  | C                  |
| Intercept                   | 2.165*<br>(0.048)  | 2.393*<br>(0.062)  | 2.377*<br>(0.061)  |
| Male                        | -0.290*<br>(0.057) | -0.442*<br>(0.076) | -0.442*<br>(0.076) |
| Hispanic                    | -0.526*<br>(0.068) | -0.017<br>(0.102)  | -0.001<br>(0.101)  |
| Native American             | -0.568*<br>(0.185) | -0.339<br>(0.259)  | -0.323<br>(0.245)  |
| Asian American              | 0.522~<br>(0.235)  | 0.435<br>(0.253)   | 0.655*<br>(0.245)  |
| African American            | -0.498*<br>(0.084) | 0.108<br>(0.138)   | 0.247*<br>(0.092)  |
| Standardized IRT Score      |                    | 1.180*<br>(0.064)  | 1.138*<br>(0.060)  |
| Std. IRT * Male             |                    | -0.176~<br>(0.071) | -0.172~<br>(0.071) |
| Std. IRT * Hispanic         |                    | -0.194~<br>(0.089) | -0.156<br>(0.086)  |
| Std. IRT * Native American  |                    | -0.527~<br>(0.227) | -0.489~<br>(0.226) |
| Std. IRT * Asian American   |                    | -0.462<br>(0.244)  |                    |
| Std. IRT * African American |                    | -0.159<br>(0.115)  |                    |
| Pseudo- R <sup>2</sup>      | 0.014              | 0.119              | 0.119              |

Notes: (1) Standard errors in parentheses with  $p < 0.05 = \sim$ ,  $p < 0.01 = *$ .

(2) General Linear Hypothesis tests were conducted of the joint effects of race, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with male, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with each race group, and the joint effects of all the interactions of standardized IRT score with each race group. In all of these tests, the null hypothesis that the coefficients are zero in the population can be rejected at the 5% level.

**Table A3.2: Fitted Logistic Regression Analyses of the Probability of Entering College by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenth-Grade Academic Skills (n=9125)**

|                             | Model              |                    |                    |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|                             | A                  | B                  | C                  |
| Intercept                   | 0.547*<br>(0.034)  | 0.354*<br>(0.037)  | 0.358*<br>(0.037)  |
| Male                        | 0.017*<br>(0.043)  | -0.056*<br>(0.048) | -0.057*<br>(0.048) |
| Hispanic                    | -0.426*<br>(0.055) | 0.264*<br>(0.069)  | 0.268*<br>(0.064)  |
| Native American             | -0.987*<br>(0.164) | -0.358<br>(0.196)  | -0.331<br>(0.184)  |
| Asian American              | 0.528*<br>(0.147)  | 0.758*<br>(0.165)  | 0.765*<br>(0.163)  |
| African American            | -0.005*<br>(0.070) | 0.795*<br>(0.099)  | 0.863*<br>(0.081)  |
| Standardized IRT Score      |                    | 1.093*<br>(0.047)  | 1.065*<br>(0.041)  |
| Std. IRT * Male             |                    | 0.077~<br>(0.056)  | 0.077~<br>(0.056)  |
| Std. IRT * Hispanic         |                    | -0.042~<br>(0.076) | -0.156<br>(0.086)  |
| Std. IRT * Native American  |                    | -0.113~<br>(0.213) | -0.489~<br>(0.226) |
| Std. IRT * Asian American   |                    | -0.083<br>(0.184)  |                    |
| Std. IRT * African American |                    | -0.130<br>(0.098)  |                    |
| Pseudo- R <sup>2</sup>      | 0.009              | 0.147              | 0.147              |

Notes: (1) Standard errors in parentheses with  $p < 0.05 = \sim$ ,  $p < 0.01 = *$ .

(2) General Linear Hypothesis tests were conducted of the joint effects of race, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with male, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with each race group, and the joint effects of all the interactions of standardized IRT score with each race group. The null hypothesis that the coefficients are zero in the population can be rejected at the 5% level in all the tests except for the test of the joint effects of all the interactions between standardized IRT score and race/ethnicity. In this test, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that all the coefficients are simultaneously zero in the population.

**Table A3.3: Fitted Logistic Regression Analyses of the Probability of Obtaining a B.A. Degree by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenth-Grade Academic Skills (n=5924)**

|                             | Model              |                    |                    |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|                             | A                  | B                  | C                  |
| Intercept                   | 0.148*<br>(0.040)  | -0.296*<br>(0.050) | -0.295*<br>(0.048) |
| Male                        | 0.052*<br>(0.053)  | 0.005*<br>(0.061)  | 0.005*<br>(0.061)  |
| Hispanic                    | -0.513*<br>(0.072) | -0.063~<br>(0.081) | -0.065*<br>(0.079) |
| Native American             | -1.079*<br>(0.261) | -0.663~<br>(0.285) | -0.658~<br>(0.276) |
| Asian American              | 0.550*<br>(0.153)  | 0.750*<br>(0.171)  | 0.760*<br>(0.164)  |
| African American            | -0.596*<br>(0.083) | 0.033*<br>(0.093)  | 0.035*<br>(0.092)  |
| Standardized IRT Score      |                    | 0.929*<br>(0.057)  | 0.926*<br>(0.049)  |
| Std. IRT * Male             |                    | -0.157~<br>(0.068) | -0.156~<br>(0.067) |
| Std. IRT * Hispanic         |                    | -0.004~<br>(0.094) | -0.156<br>(0.086)  |
| Std. IRT * Native American  |                    | 0.034~<br>(0.322)  | -0.489~<br>(0.226) |
| Std. IRT * Asian American   |                    | 0.050<br>(0.191)   |                    |
| Std. IRT * African American |                    | -0.032<br>(0.106)  |                    |
| Pseudo- R <sup>2</sup>      | 0.016              | 0.096              | 0.096              |

Notes: (1) Standard errors in parentheses with  $p < 0.05 = \sim$ ,  $p < 0.01 = *$ .

(2) General Linear Hypothesis tests were conducted of the joint effects of race, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with male, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with each race group, and the joint effects of all the interactions of standardized IRT score with each race group. The null hypothesis that the coefficients are zero in the population can be rejected at the 5% level in all the tests except for the test of the joint effects of all the interactions between standardized IRT score and race/ethnicity. In this test, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that all the coefficients are simultaneously zero in the population.

**Table A3.4: Fitted Logistic Regression Analyses of the Probability of Becoming a Teacher by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Tenth-Grade Academic Skills (n=3037)**

|                             | Model              |                    |                    |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|                             | A                  | B                  | C                  |
| Intercept                   | -1.834*<br>(0.082) | -1.689*<br>(0.112) | -1.760*<br>(0.109) |
| Male                        | -1.140*<br>(0.140) | -1.416*<br>(0.194) | -1.404*<br>(0.193) |
| Hispanic                    | 0.258*<br>(0.170)  | 0.244*<br>(0.189)  | 0.313*<br>(0.187)  |
| Asian American              | -0.871~<br>(0.426) | -1.825~<br>(0.831) | -0.872~<br>(0.426) |
| African American            | 0.332*<br>(0.193)  | 0.192*<br>(0.213)  | 0.298*<br>(0.204)  |
| Standardized IRT Score      |                    | -0.216*<br>(0.111) | -0.126*<br>(0.101) |
| Std. IRT * Male             |                    | 0.402~<br>(0.176)  | 0.395~<br>(0.174)  |
| Std. IRT * Hispanic         |                    | -0.259~<br>(0.212) | -0.348<br>(0.207)  |
| Std. IRT * Asian American   |                    | 1.043<br>(0.620)   |                    |
| Std. IRT * African American |                    | 0.343<br>(0.228)   |                    |
| Pseudo- R <sup>2</sup>      | 0.044              | 0.052              | 0.049              |

**Notes:** (1) Standard errors in parentheses with  $p < 0.05 = \sim$ ,  $p < 0.01 = *$ .

(2) General Linear Hypothesis tests were conducted of the joint effects of race, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with male, the joint effect of standardized IRT score and its interaction with each race group, and the joint effects of all the interactions of standardized IRT score with each race group. The null hypothesis that the coefficients are zero in the population can be rejected at the 5% level in all the tests except for the test of the joint effects of all the interactions between standardized IRT score and race/ethnicity. In this test, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that all the coefficients are simultaneously zero in the population.



**AnnMOLeary@aol.com**

11/22/99 02:18:44 PM

Record Type: Record

To: Ann O'Leary/OPD/EOP

cc:

Subject: RE: teacher recruitment

---

In a message dated Mon, 22 Nov 1999 10:33:17 AM Eastern Standard Time, "Moore, Heather" <Heather\_Moore@ed.gov> writes:

> Ann--  
> Just a clarification -- under the Title II HEA Teacher Quality Enhancement  
> Grants, the 45-45-10% funding split that I mention below is legislated. We  
> fought for a greater percentage to go to the Teacher Recruitment grants, but  
> did not win on that issue. Our FY2000 request had called for an overall  
> increase from \$75 million to \$115 million -- and we wanted the bulk of the  
> increase to go to Teacher Recruitment (from \$9 million up to \$35 million).  
> Congress gave us \$98 million but did not change the percentages, so Teacher  
> Recruitment will still get the smallest share of funding.  
>  
> Also, there is some disagreement in the program office about whether our  
> estimate for the number of teachers recruited by the Teacher Recruitment  
> grants should be 2,500 or 3,000 (and thus whether the estimate for Teacher  
> Quality grants overall -- all three programs -- should be 5,000 or 5,500).  
> I will let you know as soon as they clarify for me.  
>  
> Heather  
>  
> > -----Original Message-----  
> > From: AnnMOLeary@aol.com [SMTP:AnnMOLeary@aol.com]  
> > Sent: Saturday, November 20, 1999 5:10 AM  
> > To: Heather\_Moore@ed.gov  
> > Subject: RE: teacher recruitment  
> >  
> > Heather!  
> >  
> > You ROCK! Thank you very much. I'm rushing now, but just printed this  
> > out and will call you when I return from Italy. Thanks again - you are  
> > the best!  
> >  
> > -Ann  
> >  
> > In a message dated Fri, 19 Nov 1999 6:18:44 PM Eastern Standard Time,  
> > "Moore, Heather" <Heather\_Moore@ed.gov> writes:  
> >  
> > > This message is a multi-part MIME message and will be saved with the  
> > default filename teacherr.mim

## **Teacher Quality Enhancement Grants (HEA Title II)**

The Teacher Quality Enhancement Grant programs are designed to increase student achievement through comprehensive approaches to improving teacher quality.

### ***Funding levels***

- Funding level for fiscal year 1999: \$77 million
- Administration request for fiscal year 2000: \$115 million
- Actual funding level for fiscal year 2000: \$98 million

### ***Overview of Current Grantees***

Three types of competitive grants were awarded to a total of 77 grantees in 1999.

- 24 *State Grants* to support comprehensive statewide reforms to improve teacher quality;
- 25 *Partnership Grants* to bring about fundamental change and improvement in traditional teacher education programs; and
- 28 *Teacher Recruitment Grants* to reduce shortages of qualified teachers in high-need school districts.

### ***Number and types of partners involved in the 1999 grant cycle:***

- 145 four-year institutions of higher education
- 37 two-year colleges
- 309 high-need school districts
- 55 businesses
- 90 state agencies
- 29 professional associations
- 34 partners of other types

### ***Impact of the 1999 grants over the grant period (3-5 years):***

- Partnerships Grants will improve the preparation of over 17,000 new teachers
- Recruitment Grants will recruit and prepare over 2,500 new teachers
- State Grants will have an impact on virtually all new teachers in these states

In all, the 1999 grantees will recruit and prepare over 5,000 new teachers.

### ***Year 2000 grant cycle***

\$23 million will be available to make new awards.

- Applications Available: Jan. 31, 2000 (estimated)
- Application Deadline: March 30, 2000 (estimated)
- Workshop Dates: Jan. 2000 (exact dates and locations to be determined)

### ***Contact Information:***

Program Director: Ed Crowe

Phone number: (202) 502-7762

Fax number: (202) 502-7699

Key staff person: Lou Venuto

Phone number: (202) 502-7763

> > > Ann,  
> > > I'm going to send you a few things. I hope this is helpful.  
> > >  
> > > One, an overview of the 1999 HEA Title II grantees and their impact  
> > > (approximately 5,000 teachers recruited over the life of the 3-5 year  
> > > grants  
> > > -- this includes all three types of grants. We expect that the  
> > > recruitment  
> > > grantees will recruit 2,500 teachers at least, and that the partnerships  
> > > and  
> > > state grants will also do some recruiting, totaling another 2,500).  
> > > Since  
> > > the 2000 appropriation for the TQ programs is \$98 million, we will have  
> > > \$23  
> > > million to use to award new grants. This funding will be split like  
> > > this:  
> > > 45% of the funding for partnerships, 45% for state grants, and 10% for  
> > > recruitment grants. (This overview that I'm attaching needs to be  
> > > okayed by  
> > > the program office, but I think it's just about final.)  
> > > <<overview of grantees - one page.doc>>  
> > >  
> > > Second, here is some information from our speaker's kit on the  
> > > recruitment  
> > > issue:  
> > >  
> > > Painfully Slipshod Teacher Recruitment and Hiring Practices  
> > >  
> > > The United States has no comprehensive strategy to attract the kinds of  
> > > individuals we want into teaching. Furthermore, while there is no  
> > > universal  
> > > shortage of teachers nationwide (and some school districts have many  
> > > qualified applicants for every open position), teachers are not always  
> > > in  
> > > the communities and fields where they are needed. We face specific  
> > > types of  
> > > shortages.  
> > >  
> > > \* Shortages of qualified teachers in high-poverty communities.  
> > > High-poverty urban and rural schools face the greatest challenges in  
> > > recruiting, supporting, and retaining new teachers.  
> > >  
> > > \* Shortages of teachers in certain subject areas and specialties.  
> > > Nationwide teacher shortages\*which are most severe in high-poverty  
> > > schools\*are found in specific fields such as math, science, special  
> > > education, bilingual education, and foreign languages.  
> > >  
> > > \* Shortages of teachers in certain regions. Regions of the country  
> > > where student enrollment is increasing rapidly face shortages of  
> > > qualified  
> > > teachers, even as other states have a surplus of individuals who are  
> > > qualified to teach. National and state class size reduction efforts  
> > > also  
> > > increase the demand for teachers.

>>>

>>> \* Shortages of teachers of color. Our nation's teaching force does  
>>> not reflect the diversity that is transforming our nation's classrooms.  
>>>

>>> -- Minority students comprise 36 percent of our nation's student  
>>> population, but only 13 percent of our teachers are minorities. This  
>>> discrepancy has been growing.  
>>>

>>> -- Over 40 percent of public schools do not have a single minority  
>>> faculty member.  
>>>

>>> -- Nearly all large, urban school districts (92 percent) cite an  
>>> immediate demand for teachers of color.  
>>>

>>> Reducing the Demand for New Teachers  
>>>

>>> The challenge of ensuring enough qualified teachers is not simply to  
>>> increase the numbers of new teachers that we recruit. The challenge is  
>>> also  
>>> to reduce the demand for new teachers by eliminating the many factors  
>>> that  
>>> drive teachers from the profession and by removing the barriers that  
>>> prevent  
>>> the many qualified individuals who are not teaching from doing so. The  
>>> barriers to retaining and attracting teachers are:  
>>>

>>> \* Cumbersome procedures. The NCTAF report found that "many districts  
>>> do not hire the best-qualified applicants for teaching positions because  
>>> their own procedures keep them from doing so." Problems include  
>>> cumbersome  
>>> screening processes and hiring decisions delayed until the school year  
>>> starts.  
>>>

>>> \* Lack of portability. The lack of portability of credentials,  
>>> pensions, and credited years of experience among states and districts  
>>> discourages teachers from teaching where they are most needed.  
>>>

>>> \* Poor working conditions. Poor school leadership, run-down  
>>> facilities, large class sizes, and lack of books and supplies are  
>>> factors  
>>> that cause many talented teachers to leave the profession prematurely.  
>>>

>>> \* Low salaries. The salaries of new and experienced teachers create  
>>> recruitment and retention problems. Despite the fact that 78 percent of  
>>> the  
>>> public favor raising teacher salaries in order to meet the nation's  
>>> recruitment challenges, the average salary for beginning public school  
>>> teachers (\$25,735) and the average overall teacher salary (\$39,347) are  
>>> significantly lower than those for most other professions.  
>>>

>>> While confronting the challenges that we currently face in ensuring good  
>>> teaching, the United States must prepare for even greater challenges  
>>> that  
>>> lie ahead\*challenges of quantity, quality, and equity.

> > >

> > > Quantity

> > >

> > > Over the next ten years, the nation will face a tremendous demand for  
> > > additional teachers.

> > >

> > > \* Over 2 million teachers needed. The nation's schools will need to  
> > > hire an estimated 2.2 million public school teachers (including both  
> > > beginning teachers and those returning to the classroom) in the next  
> > > decade  
> > > to serve the growing enrollment of students and to fill a record number  
> > > of  
> > > vacancies as the first "baby boomers" begin to retire.

> > >

> > > \* Many beginning teachers needed. One-half to two-thirds of these  
> > > newly hired teachers will be beginning teachers, if hiring patterns  
> > > remain  
> > > the same.

> > >

> > > \* Teachers for high-poverty schools. Current rates of attrition  
> > > suggest that high-poverty school districts will need to hire over  
> > > 700,000  
> > > teachers in the next ten years.

> > >

> > > \* Turnover in the teaching force. This turnover\*over one million  
> > > beginning teachers in ten years\*is significant, given that there are  
> > > currently about 3 million teachers nationwide.

> > >

> > > Quality

> > >

> > > While the quantity of teachers will increase in the coming years, so  
> > > will  
> > > the need to improve the quality of teaching in our classrooms in order  
> > > to  
> > > meet the nation's education goals. Teachers need to know and do more  
> > > than  
> > > ever before. They need content mastery and strong teaching skills, and  
> > > they  
> > > need to effectively address an array of daunting challenges such as the  
> > > following:

> > >

> > > \* Greater racial, ethnic, cultural, and religious diversity;

> > >

> > > \* Increased expectations for educating students with learning  
> > > disabilities, physical impairments, and other special needs, in regular  
> > > education classrooms;

> > >

> > > \* Greater numbers of students who lack basic proficiency in English;

> > >

> > > \* Greater numbers of students at risk or in crisis because of  
> > > violence, inadequate nutrition, housing, health and medical care, and  
> > > other

> > > adverse conditions in their homes and communities;

> > >

> > \* Increased use of technology; and  
> >  
> > \* Greater responsibility on the part of teachers to assume more  
> > leadership in schools.  
> >  
> > Equity  
> > Our nation's high-poverty communities have the most difficulty  
> > attracting  
> > and retaining qualified teachers. Therefore, students in high-poverty  
> > urban  
> > and rural schools\*the very students who need the best teachers because  
> > of  
> > the challenges that poverty brings to the classroom\*often have teachers  
> > who  
> > are the least qualified.  
> >  
> > \* Unequal student access to effective teachers. A study in Tennessee  
> > found that African American students are much less likely to have  
> > effective  
> > teachers than their white counterparts.  
> >  
> > This is a fundamental issue of equity. When any students receive  
> > instruction from unqualified teachers, we are denying them access to a  
> > quality education.  
> >  
> > If poor and minority children had teachers of the same  
> > quality as other children, a large part of the achievement gap would  
> > disappear.... In the hands of our best teachers, the effects of poverty  
> > and  
> > institutional racism melt away, allowing these students to soar to the  
> > same  
> > heights as young Americans from more advantaged homes. But if they  
> > remain in  
> > the hands of underqualified teachers, poor and minority students will  
> > continue to fulfill society's limited expectations of them.  
> > Education Trust, Good Teaching Matters  
> >  
> > Our Challenge for the 21st Century  
> > As a nation, can we commit to high standards for all students, and thus  
> > for  
> > all teachers?  
> > Whether we meet this challenge will determine the strength and  
> > prosperity of  
> > our democracy.  
> >  
> >  
> > Third, Ann, here is an issue brief on teacher supply and demand prepared  
> > by  
> > PES:  
> > <<Teacher Supply and Demand.doc>>  
> >  
> > Fourth, here is a one-pager on the issue of recruitment:  
> > Teacher Recruitment: Recruiting Talented Americans of All Ages into  
> > Teaching

> > >  
> > > The Problem: The nation's schools will need to hire 2.2 million teachers  
> > in  
> > > the next ten years. Approximately one-half to two-thirds of those 2.2  
> > > million teachers hired will be first-time teachers.  
> > >  
> > > \* The teacher shortages faced by our nation's schools are shortages of  
> > > qualified teachers. When faced with shortages, schools usually hire  
> > less  
> > > qualified individuals and people who have not met state standards.  
> > Shortages  
> > > of qualified teachers are greatest in our nation's high-poverty  
> > communities.  
> > >  
> > > \* There are nationwide shortages of math, science, special education,  
> > > bilingual, and minority teachers. Minority students make up 30% of our  
> > > nation's student population, but only 13% of our teachers are  
> > minorities.  
> > >  
> > > \* Recruiting high-quality teachers is made more difficult by teacher  
> > > salaries that are not competitive, the perception that schools are not  
> > > attractive places in which to work, and teaching's low status among the  
> > > professions.  
> > >  
> > > Controversial Issues. Some critics charge that there is no teacher  
> > shortage  
> > > in the U.S. because (1) the education bureaucracy prevents knowledgeable  
> > > people who aren't certified to teach from entering teaching; and (2)  
> > there  
> > > are plenty of people who have the credentials to teach but are not  
> > teaching.  
> > > However, shortages are indeed serious because many of the nation's  
> > > credentialed teachers have decided not to teach or are not in the  
> > subject  
> > > areas, communities, or regions with shortages; and because while strong  
> > > content knowledge is critical, it is not sufficient to be an effective  
> > > teacher.  
> > >  
> > > Promising Practices.  
> > > \* Connecticut spent more than \$300 million in 1986 to raise standards  
> > > for teacher education and licensing while increasing teacher salaries to  
> > the  
> > > highest in the nation -- a "balanced equation" of high salaries and high  
> > > standards. Teacher shortages were eliminated across the state, even in  
> > the  
> > > cities.  
> > >  
> > > Administration Initiatives. The new Higher Education Act builds upon  
> > the  
> > > Administration's proposals to improve teacher quality, training, and  
> > > recruitment. A three-pronged initiative would improve teacher  
> > preparation,  
> > > recruit additional teachers for high-need areas, and support state-level  
> > > efforts to improve teacher quality through State Teacher Quality

> > Enhancement  
> > > grants. The HEA also includes loan forgiveness for teachers who teach  
> > for 5  
> > > years in low-income communities.  
> > >  
> > > Challenges to America. We challenge:  
> > > \* States to develop *flexible yet demanding teacher certification*  
> > > processes.  
> > > \* States and districts to develop and implement comprehensive plans to  
> > > recruit talented, diverse individuals into the profession - including  
> > > raising salaries and standards and increasing the portability of  
> > pensions,  
> > > years' experience, and credentials.  
> > > Americans of all ages to consider teaching as a profession.  
> > >  
> > > Fifth, here is a list of important things the administration is doing  
> > to  
> > > address the problem:  
> > > Teacher Quality Enhancement Grant programs (authorized under Title  
> > > II of the Higher Education Act) support comprehensive reforms in state  
> > > policies; partnerships among higher education institutions, schools of  
> > arts  
> > > and sciences, and high-need school districts to improve teacher  
> > education  
> > > programs; and state and local efforts to recruit qualified teachers for  
> > > high-need schools.  
> > >  
> > > A National Job Bank and Clearinghouse on Teacher Recruitment will  
> > > link teachers with the schools that need them and provide information on  
> > > successful teacher recruitment programs and policies.  
> > >  
> > > Loan forgiveness opportunities are available for new teachers in  
> > > high-need areas through the Federal Family Education Loan, Direct Loan,  
> > and  
> > > Perkins Loan programs.  
> > >  
> > > A proposed Transition to Teaching program would recruit retired  
> > > military personnel and other mid-career professionals into teaching.  
> > >  
> > > >  
> >

Summer 6/17/547-6127  
Summerhead.ist Attorney & Kelly O'Leary Eakins

Teacher Corp

TEACHER SHORTAGE

phj@midway.com

LD TEACHER CORPS

What has been  
there to make  
the proposal  
more than a  
phone number?

Call Anne/  
Amy Smith

CURRENT PICTURE

PROBLEM

CURRENT SOLUTION

CORRE PROPOSAL

Why so if  
Wm frozen  
Sundays  
+ standard

TEACHER CORPS

high quality  
the best teachers to be schools?

\* Committed to teach 4 years (return higher in yrs 1-3)  
in "serve the state graduate" (hard to find)

Not enough  
money

to keep "low-paying"?

Why  
oppose  
+ teacher  
corps

\* 14,000 scholarships (enough money, as last year)

\* Also - mid-career \$10,000 bonuses

\* Required (more so for all times?)

WHAT ELSE???

- Deregulated call for higher salaries  
better working conditions & facilities, role in  
decision making  
(attempt to deal w/ seniors retention problems)  
- mentors, professional support
- Rewarding good teachers

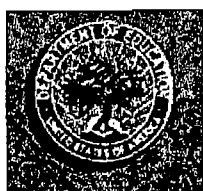
Budget → 1-800-527-0700

Ans → 1-800-331-1212

2# 118-05 > \$152.33 > \$17703940002

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91  
12  
126



# I. Recruiting Talented Americans into the Teaching Profession

Over the next decade, the Nation's schools will need to hire 2.2 million teachers, over half of whom will be first-time teachers. Many schools already face shortages of qualified teachers, especially in high-poverty communities and in subjects such as math and science. We must do more to attract talented Americans of all ages into teaching.

- **Teacher Quality Enhancement Grants**

Three discretionary grant programs designed to increase student achievement through comprehensive approaches to improving teacher quality:

- ***Teacher Recruitment Grants* to reduce shortages of qualified teachers in high-need school districts**
- ***State Grants* to support comprehensive statewide reforms to improve teacher quality**
- ***Partnership Grants* to bring about fundamental change and improvement in teacher education**

- **The Glenn Commission**

A national commission, chaired by former astronaut and Senator John Glenn, that will focus attention on the challenges of math and science teacher recruitment, preparation, retention, and professional growth. In the fall of 2000, the Commission will produce a report describing specific action steps that policymakers can take to address these challenges.

- **Contextual Teaching and Learning**

A national teacher education project to identify, study and disseminate the characteristics of preservice programs that prepare teachers to use contextual teaching and learning strategies to improve student achievement.

- **Loan Forgiveness**

A possibility to cancel or defer student loans for teachers serving in low-income or subject-matter shortage areas.

- **Pell Grants**

Awarded only to undergraduate students who have not earned bachelors or professional degrees. Unlike federal loans, these grants do not have to be repaid.

[Recruiting](#) | [So You Want To Be a Teacher?](#) | [Preparing New Teachers](#) | [Raising New Standards for Teachers](#) | [Professional Development](#) | [Research and Dissemination](#) | [Teachers Share Their Wisdom](#) | [Speeches and Studies](#) | [Classroom Resources](#) | [Funding](#)

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This page last modified August 31, 1999 (mhm)

*The Presidents' Summit on Teacher Quality*

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**Remarks as prepared for delivery by  
U. S. Secretary of Education Richard W. Riley**

**Presidents' Conference on Teacher Quality**

**Washington, D. C.**

Thank you, Terry, and good afternoon to you all. I want to begin by thanking each of you for taking time away from your colleges, universities, foundations, and associations to be with us. You honor us with your presence.

I also want to express appreciation to the folks at BellSouth. They are supporting this Summit, as well as initiatives to improve education throughout the Southeast region and the nation.

I am also delighted that Lee Fritschler, former President of Dickinson College and my new nominee for Assistant Secretary for Postsecondary Education, is here as well. He is from the ranks of college presidents and is familiar with the challenges that today's higher education leaders face.

On an occasion like this, I remember the words of E. B. White, who once remarked, "When I arise in the morning, I am torn by the twin desires to reform the world and enjoy the world. This makes it hard to plan the day."

Well today, we don't have to be torn, and it's easy to plan. We are here to reform the world by improving teacher education and preparation.

I am usually not given to bold, sweeping statements, but I am going to make a couple right now. *I believe that this Summit can be one of the most important events in American education this decade. Because you can leave here the leaders of a movement that can change the face of teacher education in the 21st century.*

We begin with this premise: Improving the quality of teacher education may be the most important factor in improving American education in the years ahead.

America is blessed with many teachers who are experts in their fields, have strong pedagogical skills, and care deeply about the well being of children. They are the products of America's schools of education—many attended your institutions. We are indebted to you and your teacher educators for these teachers. But the truth is, a number of classrooms in our nation aren't blessed with the skilled teachers needed for these times. There are many reasons for that, and it is time to courageously make the changes that we need to make.

One of the challenges we face is the changing nature of teaching itself. The demands we are placing on teachers today are greater than ever before. We are asking them to help students meet high standards. We expect them to be computer whizzes. We expect them to deal with some of the most diverse student bodies in our history, and teach children who

come to school without breakfast and return to broken homes. And they must sometimes do it in schools that are overcrowded or where the ceilings are crumbling.

It is not surprising that many teachers do not feel up to these historic new challenges. A recent national survey found that only 36% of all teachers said they are "very well prepared" to teach to the new challenging standards in K-12 schools. And new and veteran teachers alike do not feel very well prepared to teach students with special needs and from different backgrounds.

In addition, many teachers are overwhelmed by the sheer number of students in our nation's classrooms. If I could boil down the biggest challenge to K-12 education into one sentence, it would be this: *We've got a lot of children to teach, and a shortage of qualified teachers.*

There is a record number of students in our schools this year—53.2 million. At the same time, many school districts across the nation are reporting the worst shortages of qualified teachers in memory. In the next 10 years, 2.2 million teachers will have to be hired to meet swelling enrollments and teacher retirements. The squeeze has gotten so tight that some schools have been forced to put any warm body in front of a classroom. It has been estimated that 250,000 teachers are working without proper preparation in course content, or without any kind of training in how to teach.

And even well prepared teachers are being forced to teach "out of field." Nationally, this applies to 28% of all teachers. You wouldn't want a podiatrist operating on you if you needed brain surgery. And you wouldn't want a brain surgeon working on your bunions. Yet we have physical education majors teaching math.

We have come to this pass because the system of recruiting, supporting, and retaining teachers has left much to be desired. Our recruiting efforts have been painfully slipshod. We lose many good teachers because of a certification process that often judges how well prospective teachers can do paperwork rather than how well they can teach. We lose many other good new teachers because they are left to "sink or swim" without good induction or mentoring programs -- even new morticians get such support. Good professional development opportunities are few, and teacher pay often cannot match what the private sector offers. Good teaching requires the best and the brightest students, and let's not kid ourselves—we won't be able to recruit or keep good teachers if we don't pay them what they're worth.

Our college and university teacher education systems have also frequently fallen short. Our colleges of education can no longer be university backwaters, as some have been allowed to become. They must have the support of the entire university, and enjoy much stronger links with the colleges of arts and science. Education students must achieve competence in the subject matter they will teach. They must combine theory and practice. And they must be better prepared for diverse, real-world classrooms—the school settings they will encounter on the job.

Those are some of the problems. The good news is, with millions of new teachers to prepare in the next decade, we've got a wonderful opportunity to get things right—if we begin right now to improve the education of our next generation of teachers.

Here's an example of what of what can be done. Just a few days ago, I was in Union City,  
<http://www.ed.gov/ints/teachers/conferences/rwraddress.html>

11/18/1999

California, and saw the excitement of new and experienced teachers in the public schools working with students and faculty from the Teacher Education Department at nearby California State-Hayward. This partnership has received a federal grant to help teacher candidates learn to use technology in the classroom. This shows that a real commitment to partnership can help solve many of the problems that we face.

That is why we have called you to this Summit—to work together to move teacher education into the 21st century. We want to take a hard look at the structure of our current system of educating teachers and modernize it. With your help and leadership, we can succeed in seeing this process through.

In the coming months, we will engage many others who can develop solutions—K-12 teachers; federal, state, and local policy makers; union leaders; school superintendents; teacher licensing officials; and college faculty members, deans, and provosts. We will create a true national partnership.

But we have begun with you—our nation's college and university presidents—because only you can provide the overall leadership to make things happen. Improving teacher education will require the attention of your entire institution, and greater coordination between your schools of education, your arts and sciences faculties, and K-12 schools. Only you have the prestige and clout to press successfully for breakthroughs across traditional boundaries.

That is why I am asking you today to put teacher education at the very top of your personal and institutional agendas. Real change will be impossible without your full involvement and the sense of purpose and urgency that only you, as distinguished and respected college presidents, can provide.

In the next day and a half, you will have the opportunity to meet with your colleagues in small groups to discuss a wide range of issues and to develop suggested action steps. For now, I would like to offer a number of questions that you might consider. This isn't an exhaustive list by any means, but it does include some of the key issues, in my view.

- Do your Departments of Arts & Sciences and other faculties collaborate with your College of Education? Integration is necessary to give new teachers a solid "content" background. If it takes a village to raise a child, it takes an entire college or university to educate a new teacher.
- Your tenure and promotion policies reward research, but do they also reward faculty for participating in local schools? In some cases, faculty may even be penalized for their participation.
- Have you developed partnerships with K-12 schools to design good teacher education programs, to provide new teachers with valuable clinical experience, and to keep your faculty well versed in the emerging, tougher standards for K-12 students?
- Are students in your colleges of education given enough chances to gain field experience working with master K-12 teachers?
- Do you have a plan to recruit talented, diverse individuals into teaching? Do you work with middle and high schools to encourage adolescents to think about teaching as a

career?

- When it comes to accountability, are your graduates able to pass rigorous, performance-based assessments for initial licensing? Do schools find your graduates successful when they're on the job? How do you ensure that teaching candidates have both content knowledge and strong teaching skills?

I know that accountability is a critically important issue. It is here, and we shouldn't be afraid of it. Instead, let us use it as a lever to promote positive change and to find more appropriate ways to measure the knowledge and skills that your pre-service teachers have gained through your programs.

- Finally, what about the teachers who teach the teachers? Are they in touch with the realities of today's classroom? Let me give you an example. Terry's husband, Mark, recently began teaching at a school near Richmond, Virginia where students come from Bosnia, Russia, Yugoslavia, Vietnam, and Cambodia. One-third of these are ESL students.

Yet Mark is expected to teach these students World History and ensure that they pass Virginia's rigorous Standards of Learning exams. I know he will figure it out because he is a seasoned veteran. But the question is -- How many of your education faculty realize that this is the challenge many of their students will face when they leave the "groves of academe" and go to work?

I would also challenge you to provide leadership in areas that are not strictly within your purview, but important nonetheless. For example, if state licensing standards for new teachers are too low and prospective teachers get only a "pass-fail grade" perhaps we need new standards. One good idea being discussed in the Mid-Atlantic region is to create new levels of licensing test grades, such as "exemplary" and "advanced." "Advanced" teachers could receive higher salaries, enjoy portability of credentials, and other benefits. This is one good way to promote teacher quality.

I also want to take a moment to praise the American Council on Education and its task force on teacher education for preparing an action agenda for presidents. I have read the draft of the proposal, and it is an excellent blueprint for action. I recommend that you all read it when it is published—and then act on it.

Finally, I want to put a human face on what I've been talking about to really illustrate the power you have to bring change to American education. Let's think for a moment about the impact each qualified teacher you produce has on children. There is an incredible multiplier effect at work—a multiplier effect that no chain letter can match. Let me describe for you the power of just two qualified teachers to make the future better. I visited their classrooms two weeks ago.

In Penn Grove, California, I sat in on the 1st and 2nd-grade classrooms of Ms. Schlee. The visual organization and spirit alone in that classroom made children want to learn to read. Colorful round disks of key words hung from the ceiling.

Each year, Ms. Schlee helps 20 students learn to read. Over 30 years, she will produce 600 new readers. If your college or community produced 200 Ms. Schlees, you would put

120,000 children on the right track. That's a return on investment that would get Warren Buffet's attention.

In South Carolina, I visited Ms. Dockery's calculus class in Fort Mill High School. Each year, almost 98% of her students test out at 3 or higher on the AP test. Again, think about her impact on the future -- she produces 40 AP calculus graduates a year. If she teaches for 30 years, she'll dramatically improve the lives of 1,200 young people. Think how many young lives you can improve by producing many more Ms. Dockerys every year.

Henry Adams wrote in 1907, "A teacher affects eternity." Today, I am asking each of you to affect eternity by making dramatic changes in teacher education in America. I know that it will not be easy. I know that it will take some courage. But you don't get the chance to affect eternity every day. You have the chance right now. I know that you will seize it. Thank you very much.

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## What States Are Doing to Improve The Quality of Teaching A Brief Review of Current Patterns and Trends

By Eric Hirsch, Julia E. Köppich, and Michael S. Knapp

A CTP Working Paper  
December, 1998

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### Summary

This working paper is designed to serve two primary purposes: (1) provide background information for the U.S. Department of Education's first ever report to the nation on teacher quality; and (2) inform the ongoing work on state policy contexts for the improvement of teaching, undertaken by the Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy (CTP), based at the University of Washington. The paper's main goal is to describe and illustrate the range of state-initiated actions aimed at improving the quality of teaching. This paper does not offer an evaluation of these actions.

The five questions which this working paper seeks to address are the following:

1. What are states doing to develop and project visions of good teaching and learning?
2. What are states doing to attract, reward, and retain capable people in teaching?
3. What are states doing to improve the initial preparation and induction of teachers?
4. What are states doing to motivate and support teachers' ongoing professional learning?
5. What are states doing to enhance the school workplace environment?

The focus of this paper is state policy. This is not to suggest that federal and district-level policies have not played a significant role in reform. They have, and no comprehensive assessment of contemporary school change efforts would be complete without consideration of policies at these levels. But this paper focuses on state-level policy changes and the role these can play in efforts to improve teacher quality.

The nation is currently in what might be called a "third wave" of the contemporary education reform movement set in motion during the early 1980s. In the earlier periods, reform efforts centered on intensifying student academic requirements, bolstering the structure of the teaching occupation, and restructuring schools. In this third wave, the policy focus is on improving the *quality* of teaching through, for example, better teacher preparation and higher quality, more relevant professional development.

States have played a crucial role in all three waves of education reform. This reform movement, perhaps more than any other in our nation's history, has been state-propelled and state-led. During the nearly two decades during which this movement has been in existence, state policies have done much to give shape and substance to local efforts to improve public schools.

While states enact a number of education policies, it is important for our purposes to distinguish between policies and a *policy strategy*. States may enact individual, separately conceived *statutes or initiatives*, each designed to create a specific instructional program or address a particular facet of the teacher quality challenge. Alternatively, states may create at one time, or evolve over time, a *policy strategy*, that is, a "package" of actions designed to address many facets of the policy problem, thereby resulting in cohesive, coherent, and sustainable public support for high-quality teaching. The extent to which state policies on improving teacher quality reflect such strategic thinking can be a

[http://depts.washington.edu/ctpmail/states\\_summary.html](http://depts.washington.edu/ctpmail/states_summary.html) 11/18/1999

measure of a state's ability to bring about important and consequential change.

***What are states doing to develop and project visions of good teaching and learning?***

The simple answer to this question is: establishing standards for student learning and standards for teaching. Central features of contemporary state education reform efforts include developing and implementing higher and more rigorous academic standards for students, and creating assessments designed to gauge the extent to which students are meeting, or making progress toward, these standards. The development of statewide academic standards—and 49 states now have them—and accompanying assessments have focused state and local education policy on programs and ancillary policies designed to ensure that all students have opportunities to achieve at high levels. Through these means, states are attempting to articulate visions of what students should be learning and, consequently, what teachers should be doing to promote that learning.

While virtually all states have adopted standards for students, legislatures have been slower to consider standards for teaching. States are just beginning to think through and develop policies designed to ensure that teachers have the requisite knowledge and skills to help all students achieve at high levels. Clear expectations for what students should know and be able to do are key. An essential policy corollary is articulating what *teachers* should know and be able to do. Increasingly, state policy makers are realizing that teacher education programs often underprepare individuals for the classroom, state certification and licensing procedures are not sufficiently comprehensive, and ongoing professional development is not often linked to improving teaching practice. A number of states have begun to tackle some of these deficiencies, primarily by altering their certification and licensure policies (see below), and in some instances by seeking to bolster professional development.

***What are states doing to attract, reward, and retain capable people in teaching?***

The U.S. Department of Education estimates that two million new teachers will be needed in America's public school classrooms over the next decade. Recruiting adequate numbers of qualified teachers is now a priority for schools, districts, and states. States have taken steps to recruit mid-career professionals into teaching. Some have also enacted targeted efforts to persuade more minorities to enter teaching, largely through the use of scholarship grants and programs aimed at preparing teacher aides for teaching careers. Finally, a number of states have developed streamlined license reciprocity agreements to make teaching credentials more portable and make it easier for teachers to move to geographic areas where they are needed.

Ensuring that teachers are capable is a related policy challenge. Assessing teaching quality is difficult at best. One of the most popular means of assessment is through teacher examinations, both prior to entry into teacher preparation programs and prior to attaining certification. The principal virtue of these examinations, which generally focus on basic skill competencies or specific subject matter knowledge rather than teaching ability, is that they ensure at least that teachers possess minimal knowledge and skills. Yet even these tests remain controversial, with many arguing that the knowledge or skills assessed are not indicators of potential teaching success.

Teacher salaries have been viewed by many as a prime deterrent to attracting a larger number of quality teachers. Teaching pays less than other professions requiring similar levels of education. Those who consider a career in teaching must weigh intrinsic rewards against lower salaries and often difficult working conditions. The average teacher salary in 1997 was \$38,436, a 2.2 percent increase over the previous year. This increase represents a slowdown from the more substantial salary increases teachers enjoyed throughout the 1980s.

States play varying roles in determining the compensation level of educators. While 23 states have implemented some form of a statewide salary schedule, salaries are generally determined through locally negotiated collective bargaining agreements. Some states have instituted financial rewards for group or school level performance, or for teachers who acquire and demonstrate particular knowledge and skills. Efforts to provide additional career-long compensation incentives are designed to encourage people to become teachers as well as to remain in the profession. In addition, a number of states and local districts are implementing new teacher pay schedules which revolve around assessments of teacher knowledge and skill, such as the achievement of certification through the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

States have focused not only on recruiting quality teachers into the profession, but also on teacher dismissal policies. Many states, for example, have reexamined teacher tenure policies, considering reforms ranging from abolition of tenure to extending teacher probationary periods to streamlining dismissal timelines. It is unclear, however, what effects these policies may have on the recruitment and retention of high quality teachers. Abolishing tenure laws, for example, can easily lead to the dismissal of good teachers (on personal or political grounds), as well as poor ones.

While teacher dismissal has been a state policy concern, less attention has been paid to the larger issue &ndash; developing and implementing more comprehensive teacher evaluation policies and procedures. Assessing teacher quality is more than a matter of identifying and eliminating teachers whose performance is so egregious that they should not be in a classroom. For the vast majority of teachers, whose teaching performance is not critically in question, developing policies and procedures that assess their particular areas of strength or weakness and support further developmental work is of critical importance.

In most states, teacher evaluation is subject to the district-level collective bargaining agreement. Some districts are adopting new, more comprehensive, and often controversial teacher evaluation programs. Among those that have received the most attention are peer review programs, in which teachers assess the professional performance of their colleagues and assist them in developing greater competence. To date, evidence about these programs is only anecdotal; but even this evidence suggests that peer review programs can be thorough and rigorous. They serve the dual purpose of "saving" more beginning teachers than traditional evaluation formats &ndash; ensuring that they do not leave within the first two or three years of their careers &ndash; and improving or removing from classrooms larger numbers of poorly performing teachers.

### ***What are states doing to improve the initial preparation and induction of teachers?***

Among state actions to enhance and expand teacher preparation are the development of program

standards and systems of accountability, the design of alternative routes to certification (some of which offer strong preparation for teaching, others only minimal preparation), and the creation or expansion of beginning teacher induction programs. With the policy focus of teacher education now shifting from "inputs" such as course requirements, to "outcomes" which demonstrate teaching competence, many colleges and universities have undertaken major reforms of their education programs, adding fifth years of study, extending the length of internships, and participating in professional development schools. And there is increasing emphasis on subject matter preparation as well. States are also working toward using certification assessments to hold schools of teacher education accountable for preparing qualified teachers.

Alternative routes to achieving teacher certification have grown in popularity in recent years. A combination of teacher shortages (regionally and in particular subject areas), the need for preparation models other than four-year undergraduate programs for those who want to enter teaching later in their careers, and criticism of traditional teacher preparation programs have made a variety of alternative routes a more attractive option for policy makers. Most of these are graduate level programs that offer a certificate and, often, a Master's degree to post-baccalaureate recruits to teaching. Some, however, are programs offering only a few weeks of training before placing recruits in classrooms as teachers of record. Because the standards are so variable, alternative certification remains controversial. There is likely to be a decline in quality with the increased speed of moving teachers into classrooms.

Among the most common policies at the state-level are those that offer some kind of formal induction support for beginning teachers. While these programs vary considerably from state to state, and even among districts within a state, there is widespread support among state policy makers, at least rhetorically, for doing something to enhance teachers' introduction to teaching.

### ***What are states doing to motivate and support teachers' ongoing professional learning?***

Although nearly all public school teachers participate in some sort of professional development activity each year, very few educators receive the types of opportunities that have been demonstrated to be effective. District-sponsored professional development remains the norm. School- or local district-sponsored workshops and inservice programs tend to be of the one-shot, and generally brief, variety, precisely what the research describes as ineffective professional development. And state professional development requirements for teachers to renew certification may contribute more to the problem than the solution because most requirements are for "clock hours" of staff development, with few regulations guiding the quality and content of these offerings.

Despite these widespread patterns, a number of states are attempting to provide more guidance and financial support to school districts, in part to bolster statewide professional development infrastructures, and in part to stimulate particular kinds of professional development opportunities for teachers. In addition, many states are mandating that districts target specific areas for teachers' professional learning, as well as insisting that districts pay explicit attention to the professional development function in district accreditation, assessment, or goals. A few states have been attempting to remove one of the most critical barriers to enhanced professional development — the limited time allotted for teachers to take advantage of professional development opportunities.

***What are states doing to enhance the school workplace environment?***

For practicing teachers, various forces and conditions in the school are likely to contribute to their sense of a productive and supportive environment in which to work. These include a close knit community of colleagues, time to reflect and plan, supportive leadership, access to resources and advice, and a manageable load of classes, students, or other assignments.

States have been rather slow to become involved in education policy at the level of "workplace environment". Typically, legislatures have taken few actions that might be construed as imposing school level requirements on local districts. Local policies in the area of workplace environment generally are set by locally elected school boards, and many of these decisions are the result of district specific teacher collective bargaining contracts.

Despite their deference to local school boards, districts, and individual schools in matters related to the school improvement, states have undertaken initiatives of several kinds which treat the individual school as the target and relevant unit of change. In addressing the school program as a whole, these state actions have aimed at the quality of teaching in at least three ways, by:

- Encouraging mission development, planning, and collaboration among school staff. State legislative initiatives in several states, for example, specify that schools develop site-specific plans for improving the teaching and learning at the site.
- Making resources available for school-based professional development, along with guidance or sometimes requirements which encourage professional development to be tailored to the needs of the individual school.
- Designing policies that facilitate greater school-level autonomy and allowing individual schools to redesign the workplace environment, typically within fairly stringent guidelines. One of the principal ways states have made possible the devolution of control over the schools (and within them matters related to teaching) is through regulation waivers, though relatively few schools appear to have taken advantage of the flexibility such arrangements allow. More radical attempts to maximize school-level autonomy have also been undertaken through charter school legislation, once again affecting relatively few schools in the 33 states which have charter school laws.

***Unfinished Business and Unanswered Questions***

Policies regarding various aspects of the teacher quality agenda are evident in nearly every state. But to assert that states have policies that have as their goal improving teacher quality is still to beg the issue of policy versus policy strategy. How close do state policies come to being definable policy strategies? To what extent might state policies, in the aggregate, be viewed as legislative actions which are cohesive, coherent, and sustainable?

While nearly all states have embraced one or more components of a teacher quality agenda &ndash; developing and projecting visions of good teaching and learning; attracting, rewarding and retaining

capable individuals in teaching; improving the initial preparation and induction of teachers; motivating and supporting teachers' professional learning; enhancing the school workplace environment &endash; few have adopted the entire agenda as a policy priority. Thus state policies in the area of improving teaching often have an idiosyncratic and disjointed feel.

The challenge for state policy makers now has several dimensions. The first part of the challenge is to determine which are the appropriate *state* policy levers that, when pulled, can contribute to improving teaching. Second, state policy officials need to take steps to ensure that future policies are component parts of a cohesive set that, when fully enacted and implemented, will be sufficiently coherent to form a long-range and long-lasting policy strategy that will have the result of enhancing teacher quality.

Policy makers must also wrestle with difficult trade-offs in designing sustainable policy strategies aimed at teacher quality. Chief among these is the question of how to balance aggressive, centralized action at the state level with initiative exercised by schools, communities, districts, professional groups, and institutions of higher education. Policy makers must also develop appropriate data sources to determine whether and how the current array of teacher policies are achieving the ends for which they are designed. The range of policy initiatives described in this working paper are largely new and relatively untested.

# Promising Practices:

## New Ways to Improve Teacher Quality

September 1998

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## **Recruiting Talented and Diverse People Into the Teaching Profession**

The demographics of today's changing teaching force are stunning: one-third of today's teachers have more than 20 years of experience; and two-thirds are at least at mid-career. At the same time, K-12 enrollment is the highest it has ever been in the United States, surpassing the explosive enrollment of the baby-boom years.<sup>(7)</sup> The 52 million students expected by 1998 will stretch the capacity of the nation's schools for many years to come. Schools already unable to recruit enough talented teachers, particularly in fields such as math and science, shudder to contemplate how they will deal with that burden.

In the past, school districts often relied on recruiting back former teachers who had dropped out to raise families or to try other careers, but in recent years this strategy has yielded little. Currently, only about 7 percent of former teachers each year are returning to teaching.<sup>(8)</sup>

### **Shortage of Minority Teachers**

The gap between the diversity of students in the schools and the racial and ethnic characteristics of the teaching force has become another recruitment issue. About 86 percent of the teachers in public schools are non-Hispanic Caucasian, while more than 32 percent of the students in K-12 schools are minority.<sup>(9)</sup> This gap is growing larger. In 1995, 1.3 percent of bachelor's degrees in education were granted to Asian/Pacific Islanders, 6.27 percent were granted to African Americans, 3.2 percent were granted to Hispanics and .79 percent were granted to Native Americans.<sup>(10)</sup>

Furthermore, urban areas that have enrollment majorities of students of color and students from families whose home language is other than English, have the most difficulty recruiting new teachers.

These statistics indicate that the supply of minority teachers will continue to be far out of proportion in relationship to the percentages of minority students in classrooms unless great efforts are made to recruit more minority teachers.

### **Hiring Standards Must Remain High**

Fortunately, many of those involved in setting long-range policies and practices are emphasizing quality before quantity as they recruit new teachers. Until recently, little effort went into recruiting highly capable middle and high school students for teaching careers or into reaching out to special groups. But such initiatives are now happening, usually as a part of overall state policies to improve the quality of teaching or as foundation/institution projects to encourage the best to enter teaching.

The success of the rest of the continuum of teacher development depends on aggressive recruitment efforts. Recruitment should begin early with students who show interest in teaching. They should be

encouraged to tutor their peers and younger students as early as middle school, to be camp counselors in the summers, and to complete classes in education theory. They should be introduced to the option of teaching as a profession and exposed to role models. Efforts should also target professionals from other fields to encourage mid-career men and women to pursue a career in teaching.

Aggressive recruitment policies provide the foundation for a strong teaching profession but will take time to have an impact on quality instruction in classrooms. Recruiting and retaining talented and diverse candidates will require an ongoing consistent effort if quality teachers are to be available to all students.

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## Norfolk State University

### *The Pathways to Teaching Careers Program*

*"This project has provided a marvelous opportunity for teacher aides and other paraprofessionals to become certified teachers. For the school systems it has provided a pathway to increase minority teachers."*

Denise Littleton  
Director, DeWitt Wallace Pathways to Teaching Careers Program

The public school system in Norfolk, Virginia, is facing a growing disparity between the diversity of its student population and the diversity of the available teaching force. Approximately 61 percent of the students served by the Norfolk Public Schools (NPS) are African American, while only 37 percent of the available teaching force is African American. Furthermore, 1992-93 projections indicate that at least 166 African American teachers will be eligible for retirement by the year 2000. In response to this growing disparity, the Pathways project at Norfolk State University was initiated, in collaboration with Old Dominion University (ODU) and Norfolk Public Schools (NPS), "to enhance the educational opportunities and achievement of children in the Norfolk Public Schools." Funded by a grant from the DeWitt Wallace Reader's Digest Fund, this program focuses on recruiting teacher aides, substitute teachers, and other paraprofessionals--specifically targeting minority and male applicants--and returning them to the Norfolk Public Schools as well-prepared teachers.

Before admission to the program at Norfolk State, participants go through a careful screening and selection process. To ensure their ability to complete the program within the time frame of the grant, applicants must have more than 60 transferable credits toward completing the teacher education program and a minimum 2.3 grade point average. Applicants must already be employed by NPS and are expected to have strong recommendations; they also must complete a satisfactory personal interview with a selection committee representing school faculty and principals, community members, and NPS personnel. Most important, applicants must have a demonstrated commitment to children in urban areas, as well as an interest in primary education, special education or secondary education.

Once admitted, Pathways Scholars progress through a teacher education program specifically geared to meet their needs. One academic course, for example, assesses scholars' specific needs and

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weaknesses relative to the National Teachers Exam (NTE). Ongoing curricular development activities inspired a course on community volunteerism, as well as instructional modules on an array of urban education topics. Courses are available in the evenings and over the summer to accommodate participants' schedules. Finally, the program is structured to emphasize all cultures--with a specific focus on the urban student--and to build on the real-world experiences of the participants.

The program offers scholars both financial and academic support services. Scholars' financial needs are largely covered (80 percent) by the grant from DeWitt Wallace Readers Digest Fund. Academic supports include an initial orientation, special seminars, and workshops. Scholars also receive academic advising, tutoring, and counseling. In addition, family orientation and day care services are available. The program closely monitors grades, requires a supervised field experience (in addition to regular employment with NPS), and evaluates in-class performance at least twice per semester.

Upon program completion, graduates seek employment with NPS, fulfilling a pledge each scholar makes upon entry to the program. The employment process is facilitated by the fact that NPS is involved in the initial selection of Pathways Scholars; continued communication between program staff and NPS during the employment period is another facilitating factor. Once graduates have gained employment, Norfolk State continues to monitor them informally and offers special seminars and annual workshops.

The careful selection of participants and the comprehensive nature of the Pathways program at Norfolk State show very positive results thus far. To date, the Pathways program has enrolled 106 scholars. Only eight left the program before completion, and the retention rate is 92 percent. The Norfolk Pathways program graduated 87 percent of its scholars (92 of 106), 66 of whom are fully certified teachers. Many of those who are not yet certified are either waiting to take the National Teachers Exam or are awaiting results of the exam.

Finally, 69 graduates found placement in NPS; three of these are substituting regular teaching for their student teaching requirement, and are thus not yet certified. Most important, the program has provided a unique avenue to teaching for a pool of candidates with backgrounds and experiences that make them well suited to address specific teacher shortages in the Norfolk Public Schools.

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## **Colorado State University**

### ***Project Promise***

*"These participants...are not burn-outs from other careers, but rather individuals who have a strong and sincere desire to have a positive influence on young people."*

Founder, Project Promise

Until recent efforts to entice college graduates to switch from other careers to teaching, changing careers often meant starting over completely. Those who wanted to become teachers needed to take a sequence of expensive courses that often delayed them from teaching for several years even though they already held a college degree or even a graduate degree. When the enormity of the teacher shortage became known to state policy makers and others, many called for greater flexibility in

<http://www.ed.gov/pubs/PromPractice/chapter2.html> 11/18/1999

hiring practices, pushing through legislation that often allowed non-certified personnel from other academic fields to enter teaching immediately. Special recruitment campaigns targeted the military and/or recent college graduates.

Promised supervision of alternate-route teachers turned out to be less than desired, as did the teachers' knowledge of basic classroom practices. In order to retain the valuable contribution of alternate-route teachers, more recent initiatives have focused on better recruitment policies and more structured preparation for classroom teaching as well as continued supervision. More than 200 higher education institutions now participate in such programs.<sup>(11)</sup>

The founders of Project Promise at Colorado State University believe that candidate selection is a major factor in this program's success. Because the program is experimental, it serves a limited number of candidates even though its promotion stimulates more than 300 applicants a year drawn from such fields as law, engineering, medicine, and government service. One-third already have a master's degree or first professional degree.

### **Selection of Candidates**

A preliminary application given to applicants asks general questions: "Why do you want to enter teaching?" or "How would you describe an especially rewarding teaching experience you have had?" or "How could students be motivated to work harder?"

Finalists take part in interviews with several faculty members on campus that include simulations to assess the candidate's ability to be student centered and to handle power issues in the classroom. At the end of this process, 20 candidates become the Project Promise cohort for the year. They are eligible for limited scholarship assistance, either from the university or through donations from individuals and foundations. With the assistance of a Programs of Excellence grant from the state, the program distributed \$34,000 in scholarship aid for the 1996-97 school year.

Grade-point averages or test scores are not as important to the Project Promise staff as are a candidate's mission, empathy, involvement in voluntary service and experiences with young people. Data are kept on each incoming candidate's strengths and reviewed at the end of the program to see if the staff's original assessments were right.

The candidates enter into an intensive but compressed program lasting 10 and a half months under the supervision of the same faculty and graduate assistants throughout. They enroll in distinct student teaching placements--rural, urban, middle school and high school. Their total time as student teachers is about 22 weeks, but instead of an evaluation at the end of the process, those in Project Promise may receive up to 50 observations and specific feedback from university faculty. This feedback allows them to gain insight on the spot about their teaching.

Abstract theory, such as philosophy or foundations courses, usually given at the beginning of teacher preparation, come at the end of Project Promise. The staff reasons that older, experienced candidates are more focused on gaining experience in the classroom early than on learning theories.

The program faculty continue to work officially with the program graduates for two additional years, creating professional development plans cooperatively with the principals of the schools where Project Promise's graduates are placed.

The selection process and intensive performance-based preparation apparently account for the high placement and retention rate of Project Promise graduates. Over 90 percent of the graduates find teaching jobs each year (in 1996, all graduates signed contracts). Follow-up studies indicate that 80 percent stay in teaching for at least five years and that they are highly satisfied with the preparation and support they received. Furthermore, surveys indicate that hiring officials in school districts that employ these teachers have preference for Project Promise graduates over other candidates available to them.

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## **South Carolina Center For Teacher Recruitment Teacher Cadet Corps**

*"In part, the Teacher Cadet Program's success is found in providing students meaningful opportunities to learn about and engage in teaching."*

### **Research report on the Teacher Cadet Corps**

To ensure a qualified teaching force necessary for the comprehensive education reforms adopted in South Carolina, the state legislature and then-Governor Richard Riley established the South Carolina Center for Teacher Recruitment at Winthrop University in 1986. Starting with a blank slate, the center quickly filled and began a series of focused efforts to recruit highly qualified young people, especially minority students, into the teaching profession.

The center drew on the expertise of current teachers to design the recruitment efforts and to carry them out in high schools throughout the state. Its most well-known program, adapted by a dozen other states, is the Teacher Cadet Program.

At 148 high schools, teachers volunteer to conduct a yearlong course open to interested students with a high grade-point average. This is not a typical high school offering--it is a mixture of solid content (history of education, principles of learning, child development, current issues in education) and hands-on opportunities to observe, construct lessons plans, tutor younger students, and practice teaching. A 600-page handbook written and constantly modified by teachers serves as the core curriculum for all of the high school classes. It contains suggestions for course content as well as engaging assignments such as designing an ideal early childhood environment or presenting evidence at a school board meeting.

Almost 20 partner higher education institutions provide lecturers and, in some cases, college credit for the high school course. Also, several Teachers-In-Residence receive fellowships each year to supervise the program from the center and "ride circuit" among the participating high schools. One of these Teachers-In-Residence focuses exclusively on recruiting minority students for the center's programs.

### **Pro-Team Program**

A second initiative is the Pro-Team Program for middle school students. Through a course and club

activities, it recruits seventh- and eighth-graders in the top 40 percent of their classes, hoping to interest them in teaching before they get turned off to a teaching career. Through the 1997-98 school year, the Pro-Team Program had introduced more than 7,000 students to teaching; approximately 65 percent were from minority groups. One unique feature of this initiative is a teacher-developed curriculum for a workshop for parents of the Pro-Team students. Parents then have avenues for more involvement, such as supporting Pro-Team Clubs or accompanying students on college campus visits.

### **Measures of Success**

By the end of the 1997-98 school year, about 21,000 academically talented young people were graduates of the Teacher Cadet Program in South Carolina. About 35 percent of them are teaching or are in teacher preparation programs. In addition, South Carolina has become the only southeastern state with an increase in the number of minorities entering teaching, almost tripling the number between the 1988-89 and 1994-95 school years.

The success of the recruitment programs turns up in more than numbers. Outside evaluators have studied the program regularly, finding that former Cadets were more realistic about the conditions of teaching and entered college with a jump-start in the content of teacher education programs. Their knowledge has raised standards for their classmates, according to professors in teacher education. Those teaching also reported at a higher rate than beginning teachers nationally that they were likely to remain in the profession.<sup>(12)</sup>

After two years of working with 47 Pro-Team sites around the state, the 1995-97 Pro-Team Specialist Libby Ortmann was buoyed by the dedication of teachers to "growing their own" in South Carolina. She said the teachers who sponsor the Pro-Team and Teacher Cadet programs are "modeling every day what it will take to prepare the next generation of classroom teachers."<sup>(13)</sup>

The center's work has expanded to include a college hotline for prospective students, a job bank for school districts in the state, and a Teacher Forum intended to encourage leadership and retention among current teachers. The Forum brings together the teachers-of-the-year from school districts for conferences and other collaborative activities. More than 500 teachers are in the Forum now, and regional forums have been organized as well.

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## **Characteristics of Promising Teacher Recruitment Initiatives**

Successful recruitment efforts attract talented teachers who meet high standards and reflect the diversity of the students they will teach. Some recruitment goals follow:

- Recruitment of potential teachers begins early, often through organized groups and activities in the middle grades.
- Pre-collegiate recruitment programs provide substantial information about careers in teaching for candidates, balancing both the changes taking place and current realities that often dissuade

those with teacher preparation from actually entering the field.

- Current master teachers are directly involved in the recruitment and career counseling of potential teachers.
- Policies focus on recruiting future teachers from under-represented minority groups and from students with special interest in the fields where there are great shortages, such as math, science, bilingual education and special education; state and institutional policies provide incentives for undergraduates to teach in these fields for a specified time after college graduation.
- Programs that recruit potential teachers from other careers combine both course work and supervised classroom experiences, either before the recruits are placed in classrooms or during their first year or two of teaching. These mid-career candidates have access to financial aid.

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[\[Achieving Excellence In The Teaching Profession\]](#)



[\[Improving Teacher Preparation\]](#)

*A Talented, Dedicated, and Well-Prepared Teacher in Every Classroom: Information Kit - September 1999*

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## Why We Must Invest in Good Teaching

*"Never has our nation been confronted with the task of teaching so much to so many while reaching for new high standards."*

U.S. Secretary of Education Richard W. Riley

No success can come from efforts to increase student achievement without caring and competent teachers in our classrooms. Higher standards, stronger accountability systems, increased technology, and smaller classes—all rely on the presence of an excellent teaching corps.

Educators, policymakers, and legislators have become increasingly aware that our nation's goals for student learning depend on good teaching in all our schools.

- In 1997, President Clinton devoted an unprecedented one-quarter of his State of the Union address to education and issued a *Call to Action for American Education*, in which he set a number of ambitious goals for the nation. One of these goals was:

*There will be a talented, dedicated, and well-prepared teacher in every classroom.*

- States and local communities have focused recently on raising standards for students. Ensuring quality teaching is the necessary next step. If all children are to learn to high standards, then all educators need the capacity to teach to those high standards.

### ***Good Teaching Makes a Difference!***

We now have compelling evidence that confirms what parents have always known—the teacher makes a critical difference in a child's learning. Research has found that the quality of teaching in our classrooms is *the most important in-school factor* for improving student achievement.

- *Quality of teaching has major impact on student achievement.* Students whose initial achievement levels are comparable have "vastly different academic outcomes as a result of the sequence of teachers to which they are assigned." [1]

The following studies measured teachers' effectiveness over time based on gains in the achievement of their students. Students were tested every year, and a "value-added" approach was used to determine how much their achievement improved from year to year (regardless of their initial achievement level)—and thus, how effective their teachers were.

- A study in Tennessee found that students who have three effective teachers or three ineffective teachers in a row have vastly different achievement levels. Because of differences in teacher effectiveness, students whose achievement levels were similar in

mathematics at the beginning of third grade scored 50 percentile points apart on fifth grade achievement tests just three years later. <sup>[2]</sup> **(Overhead 1)**

- Similarly, in Dallas, Texas, students who started at similar achievement levels in reading and math at the beginning of third grade were 34-50 percentile points apart three years later, as a result of the difference in effectiveness of their teachers. <sup>[3]</sup> **(Overhead 2)**
- *Lasting effects of good—and bad—teaching.* Students assigned to ineffective teachers continue to show the effects of such teachers even when those students are subsequently assigned to very effective teachers. The residual effects of both very effective and ineffective teachers are measurable two years later, regardless of the effectiveness of teachers in later grades. <sup>[4]</sup>
- *Teacher quality's powerful influence on student learning.* Studies show that teachers' ability, experience, and education are clearly associated with increases in student achievement. Spending additional resources on teacher professional development is the most productive investment schools can make to raise student achievement. <sup>[5]</sup>

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[The Current State of Teaching in America]

*A Talented, Dedicated, and Well-Prepared Teacher in Every Classroom: Information Kit - September 1999*

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## **The Current State of Teaching in America: Five Barriers to Increasing Student Achievement**

It is difficult to measure directly the quality of teaching in our nation's classrooms, but a number of indicators demonstrate serious problems with the ways we recruit, prepare, license, and support teachers. The 1996 report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) identified five major barriers to successful education reform that relate directly to the quality of teaching in America. (**Overhead 3**)

### ***1. Painfully Slipshod Teacher Recruitment and Hiring Practices***

The United States has no comprehensive strategy to attract the kinds of individuals we want into teaching. Furthermore, while there is no universal shortage of teachers nationwide (and some school districts have many qualified applicants for every open position), teachers are not always in the communities and fields where they are needed. We face specific types of shortages. (**Overhead 4**)

- *Shortages of qualified teachers in high-poverty communities.* High-poverty urban and rural schools face the greatest challenges in recruiting, supporting, and retaining new teachers.
- *Shortages of teachers in certain subject areas and specialties.* Nationwide teacher shortages—which are most severe in high-poverty schools—are found in specific fields such as math, science, special education, bilingual education, and foreign languages. (**Overhead 5**)
- *Shortages of teachers in certain regions.* Regions of the country where student enrollment is increasing rapidly face shortages of qualified teachers, even as other states have a surplus of individuals who are qualified to teach. National and state class size reduction efforts also increase the demand for teachers.
- *Shortages of teachers of color.* Our nation's teaching force does not reflect the diversity that is transforming our nation's classrooms.
  - Minority students comprise 36 percent of our nation's student population,<sup>[6]</sup> but only 13 percent of our teachers are minorities.<sup>[7]</sup> This discrepancy has been growing. (**Overhead 6**)
  - Over 40 percent of public schools do not have a single minority faculty member.<sup>[8]</sup>
  - Nearly all large, urban school districts (92 percent) cite an immediate demand for teachers of color.<sup>[9]</sup>

## Reducing the Demand for New Teachers

The challenge of ensuring enough qualified teachers is not simply to *increase the numbers* of new teachers that we recruit. The challenge is also to *reduce the demand* for new teachers by eliminating the many factors that drive teachers from the profession and by removing the barriers that prevent the many qualified individuals who are not teaching from doing so. The barriers to retaining and attracting teachers are: **(Overhead 7)**

- *Cumbersome procedures.* The NCTAF report found that "many districts do not hire the best-qualified applicants for teaching positions because their own procedures keep them from doing so." Problems include cumbersome screening processes and hiring decisions delayed until the school year starts.<sup>[10]</sup>
- *Lack of portability.* The lack of portability of credentials, pensions, and credited years of experience among states and districts discourages teachers from teaching where they are most needed.
- *Poor working conditions.* Poor school leadership, run-down facilities, large class sizes, and lack of books and supplies are factors that cause many talented teachers to leave the profession prematurely.
- *Low salaries.* The salaries of new and experienced teachers create recruitment and retention problems. Despite the fact that 78 percent of the public favor raising teacher salaries in order to meet the nation's recruitment challenges,<sup>[11]</sup> the average salary for beginning public school teachers (\$25,735) and the average overall teacher salary (\$39,347)<sup>[12]</sup> are significantly lower than those for most other professions.<sup>[13]</sup> **(Overhead 8)**

## 2. Seriously Flawed Teacher Preparation

Teacher preparation programs are often underfunded and are too focused on theory, at the expense of classroom practice. They frequently are disconnected from the arts and sciences and from elementary and secondary schools.

- *Varying size and quality of preparation programs.* There are approximately 1,300 institutions that prepare teachers, and the number of teachers they produce each year can range from one to nearly 2,000. The teacher education programs also vary greatly in quality. Unlike other professions that require national accreditation of professional schools, less than one-half of teacher education institutions—only 501 institutions—are currently accredited by a national accrediting body.<sup>[14]</sup>
- *Long-standing problems.* The NCTAF report found "long-standing problems with traditional teacher education programs," including superficial curriculum and the teaching of theory separately from its applications.<sup>[15]</sup>
- *Feeling unprepared for the realities of today's classrooms.* A recent study asked teachers with three or fewer years of experience whether they were prepared to integrate technology; meet the needs of diverse students and those with limited English proficiency; address the needs of

special education students; and implement curriculum and performance standards. In each case, fewer than 30 percent of the new teachers reported feeling "very well prepared."<sup>[16]</sup>  
**(Overhead 9)**

- *Teacher educators lack current K-12 teaching experience.* More than 50 percent of teacher educators report that it has been more than 15 years since they were K-12 teachers.<sup>[17]</sup>

### 3. *Unenforced Standards for Teachers*

Standards for entry into the teaching profession are generally low, and required examinations seem designed to weed out the weakest candidates rather than to select the strong ones. Yet, despite this lack of rigor, states routinely waive their own standards and allow districts to hire unqualified individuals. Even when teachers are fully qualified, they are too often placed in out-of-field teaching situations.

- *Candidates not judged on performance.* Entering teaching usually requires passing a standardized test and earning a specified number of credits through teacher education programs. Most states do not base teacher licensing on classroom performance.
- *No exams required.* Seven states require no exams for licensure for either elementary or secondary school teaching.<sup>[18]</sup>
- *Lack of subject-area exams.* Forty-four states require candidates for licenses in secondary school teaching to take a test, but only 29 require them to take tests in the subject area they will teach.<sup>[19]</sup>
- *Exams not based on a body of knowledge.* Licensing tests are not based on whether a candidate has the body of knowledge needed to be an effective teacher. In some states, passing scores are set so low that candidates can pass a subject-matter exam by correctly answering as few as half the test items, and only 5 percent of the candidates fail the test.<sup>[20]</sup>
- *Standards routinely waived.* Even though state-set standards are generally low, states routinely waive them. More than 30 percent of newly hired teachers enter the profession without having fully met state standards for licensure.<sup>[21]</sup> **(Overhead 10)**
- *Out-of-field teaching.* Teachers are often asked to teach subjects in which they do not have a major or minor.
  - Thirteen percent of public school teachers of core academic subjects in grades 7-12 are teaching "out of field" in their main teaching assignment..<sup>[22]</sup>
  - In high-poverty schools (those with more than 60 percent of students receiving free or reduced-price lunch), teachers are twice as likely to be out of field than in low-poverty schools (22 percent vs. 11 percent).<sup>[23]</sup> **(Overhead 11)**

## A Complicated Picture

It is difficult to measure the extent of out-of-field teaching, and its causes are often misunderstood.

- *Statistics understate the problem.* Researchers agree that these out-of-field figures understate the problem, since they do not take into account part-time teachers and teachers' secondary assignment fields.
- *High school teachers have academic majors but are misassigned.* Many policymakers assume that teachers teach out-of-field because they do not have an academic major. However, most high school teachers (95 percent) have a major in either an academic field or in education in a specific subject area, as opposed to a major in general education.<sup>[24]</sup> When they are teaching out-of-field, it is because they have been assigned to do so. **(Overhead 12)**
- *Many middle school teachers lack academic majors.* Lack of academic majors, however, is a problem in middle schools when teachers are assigned to teach specific content. About 27 percent of middle school teachers majored in general education rather than in an academic area.<sup>[25]</sup>

### 4. Inadequate Support for Beginning Teachers

New teachers in America are often left to "sink or swim." They are given the toughest assignments—the classes that no one else wants to teach and the extracurricular activities that other teachers do not want to supervise. Many new teachers do not receive the extra support they need in order to succeed.

- *New teacher attrition.* About 22 percent of new public school teachers leave the profession in the first three years.<sup>[26]</sup>
- *Inadequate support.* Although more than 50 percent of first-year public school teachers participate in some type of induction program, the quality and scope of the programs range from comprehensive to cursory.<sup>[27]</sup>

### 5. Lack of Professional Development and Rewards for Knowledge and Skills

Teachers often have too few opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills, and their professional development opportunities are of low quality. Professional development remains largely short-term, non-collaborative, and unrelated to teachers' needs.

- *Feeling unprepared for the realities of today's classrooms.* Most teachers do not feel very well prepared for the realities of today's classrooms—addressing the needs of diverse students and those with special needs, integrating technology into instruction, and teaching to challenging standards.<sup>[28]</sup> **(Overhead 13)**
- *Inadequate time spent on professional development.* Teachers continue to be offered professional development opportunities that last fewer than 8 hours, despite the fact that

teachers report that professional development with a longer duration is more effective.<sup>[29]</sup>  
**(Overhead 14 and Overhead 15)**

- *Lack of collaboration.* Most professional development is not collaborative in nature, even though teachers and researchers say that collaborative professional development—such as common planning periods, team teaching, and regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers and administrators—is more effective than other forms.<sup>[30]</sup> **(Overhead 16)**
- *Lack of time within the school day.* American schools are not organized to provide teachers and administrators time within the school day to collaborate and to engage in meaningful professional development.
  - U.S. teachers devote more time (57.8 hours in a two-week period) to direct teacher-student academic instruction than do teachers in Japan (44 hours) and Germany (38.5 hours).<sup>[31]</sup>
- *Allocation of resources.* The nation's schools typically spend only 1 percent to 3 percent of their resources on teacher development, compared to significantly higher expenditures by both American corporations and schools in other countries.<sup>[32]</sup>
- *Lack of rewards.* Teachers are not rewarded for increasing their knowledge and skills.
  - Only 23 states provide salary supplements for teachers who have demonstrated their accomplished teaching by earning National Board certification.<sup>[33]</sup>
  - While most districts reward teachers for getting advanced degrees, these degrees often do not have to be related to a teacher's subject area or to improving instruction.

-###-

[Why We Must Invest in Good Teaching]



[The Coming Crisis]

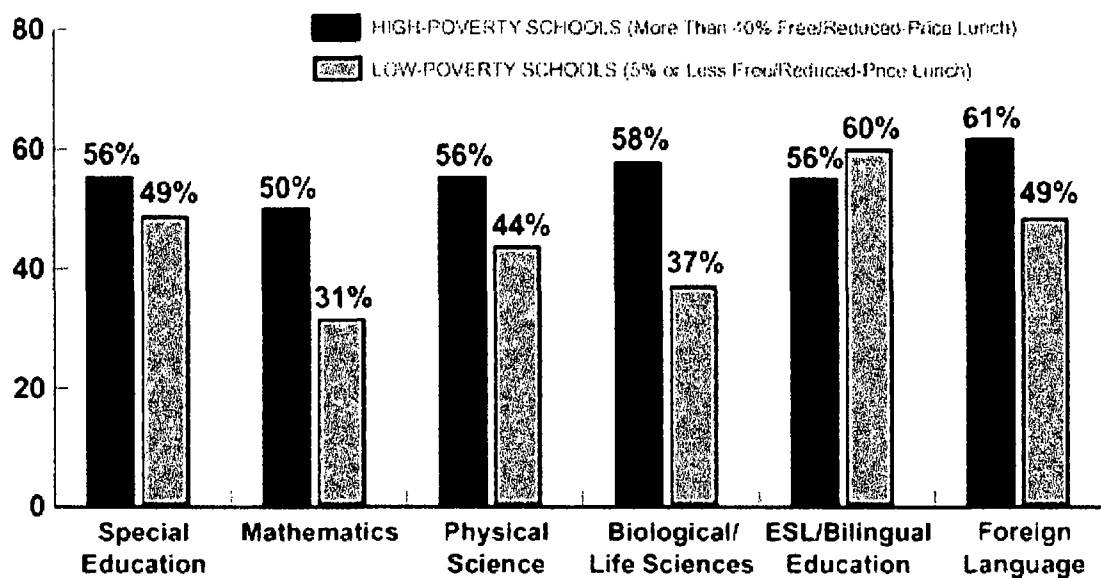
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## Overhead 5

# UNEQUAL IMPACT OF TEACHER SHORTAGES

Percentage of Schools With Vacancies in Certain Fields That Found Them Difficult to Fill



Source: NCES, "America's Teachers: Profile of a Profession, 1993-94" (1997).

-###-



[Return to The Current State of Teaching in America]

*A Talented, Dedicated, and Well-Prepared Teacher in Every Classroom: Information Kit - September 1999*

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## The Coming Crisis

While confronting the challenges that we currently face in ensuring good teaching, the United States must prepare for even greater challenges that lie ahead—challenges of quantity, quality, and equity. (**Overhead 17**)

### *Quantity*

Over the next ten years, the nation will face a tremendous demand for additional teachers.

- *Over 2 million teachers needed.* The nation's schools will need to hire an estimated 2.2 million public school teachers (including both beginning teachers and those returning to the classroom) in the next decade to serve the growing enrollment of students and to fill a record number of vacancies as the first "baby boomers" begin to retire.<sup>[34]</sup>
- *Many beginning teachers needed.* One-half to two-thirds of these newly hired teachers will be beginning teachers, if hiring patterns remain the same.<sup>[35]</sup>
- *Teachers for high-poverty schools.* Current rates of attrition suggest that high-poverty school districts will need to hire over 700,000 teachers in the next ten years.<sup>[36]</sup>
- *Turnover in the teaching force.* This turnover—over one million beginning teachers in ten years—is significant, given that there are currently about 3 million teachers nationwide.<sup>[37]</sup>

### *Quality*

While the quantity of teachers will increase in the coming years, so will the need to improve the quality of teaching in our classrooms in order to meet the nation's education goals. Teachers need to know and do more than ever before. They need content mastery and strong teaching skills, and they need to effectively address an array of daunting challenges such as the following: (**Overhead 18**)

- Greater racial, ethnic, cultural, and religious diversity;
- Increased expectations for educating students with learning disabilities, physical impairments, and other special needs, in regular education classrooms;
- Greater numbers of students who lack basic proficiency in English;
- Greater numbers of students at risk or in crisis because of violence, inadequate nutrition, housing, health and medical care, and other adverse conditions in their homes and communities;
- Increased use of technology; and

- Greater responsibility on the part of teachers to assume more leadership in schools.

## ***Equity***

Our nation's high-poverty communities have the most difficulty attracting and retaining qualified teachers. Therefore, students in high-poverty urban and rural schools—the very students who need the *best* teachers because of the challenges that poverty brings to the classroom—often have teachers who are the *least* qualified.

- *Unequal student access to effective teachers.* A study in Tennessee found that African American students are much less likely to have effective teachers than their white counterparts.

[38] **(Overhead 19)**

This is a fundamental issue of equity. When any students receive instruction from unqualified teachers, we are denying them access to a quality education.

*If poor and minority children had teachers of the same quality as other children, a large part of the achievement gap would disappear.... In the hands of our best teachers, the effects of poverty and institutional racism melt away, allowing these students to soar to the same heights as young Americans from more advantaged homes. But if they remain in the hands of underqualified teachers, poor and minority students will continue to fulfill society's limited expectations of them.* [39]

Education Trust, *Good Teaching Matters*

## ***Our Challenge for the 21st Century***

As a nation, can we commit to high standards for all students, *and thus for all teachers?*

Whether we meet this challenge will determine the strength and prosperity of our democracy.

-###-

[The Current State of Teaching in America]



[Challenges from the U.S. Secretary of Education]

## National Commission on Teaching & America's Future

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### **Recommendation 3: Fix Teacher Recruitment and Put Qualified Teachers in Every Classroom**

The Commission recommends that states and school districts pursue aggressive policies to put qualified teachers in every classroom by providing financial incentives to correct shortages, streamlining hiring procedures, and reducing barriers to teacher mobility.

States and districts should aggressively overhaul teacher recruitment by applying five principals:

- Increase the ability of financially disadvantaged districts to pay for qualified teachers and insist that school districts hire only qualified teachers.
- Redesign and streamline hiring at the district level, principally by creating a central "electronic hiring hall" for all qualified candidates and establishing cooperative relationships with universities to encourage early hiring of teachers.
- Eliminate barriers to teacher mobility by promoting reciprocal interstate licensing and by working with states to develop portable pensions.
- Provide incentives (including scholarships and premium pay) to recruit teachers for high-need subjects and locations.
- Develop high-quality pathways to teaching for recent graduates, midcareer changers, paraprofessionals already in the classroom, and military and government retirees.

#### **State Policy**

- Connecticut Education Enhancement Act (1986) addressed teacher recruitment.
- Indiana House Enrolled Act 1611 (1997) addressed teacher mobility.
- North Carolina Excellent Schools Act (1997) addressed teacher mobility.

#### **Model Programs**

- The California Mathematics and Science Teacher Corps
- The Crystal City Secondary Teacher Education
- Golden Apple Scholars of Illinois

- Navajo Nation/Ford Foundation Teacher Education Program
- North Carolina Teaching Fellows Program
- Project Promise
- South Carolina Teacher Cadet Program

- already hold a "provisional educator certificate";
- earn 30 credits beyond the baccalaureate degree, in courses that relate directly to the subject area(s) or grade level(s) taught;
- earn the above credits in at least three and at most eight years after the provisional certificate is issued; and
- renew the Professional Educator Certificate every five years by completing at least nine (9) continuing education credits or their equivalent in professional development activities (equivalencies to be determined by the State Board of Education).

Source text [Further Information Return to Sample Policy Menu](#)

a "beginning teacher support and assessment program" to train and assist beginning teachers and to train mentors who will work with these beginning teachers. **All holders of the "initial educator certificate" (i.e. new teachers) must participate in a "beginning educator program"**

Source text

[Further Information Return to Sample Policy Menu](#)

- providing "professional development opportunities for faculty members with teacher preparation responsibilities;"
- developing "summer programs of classroom management and instructional methodology;"

Source text

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- The minimum salary was set at \$20,000 in the 1986-87 academic year (or \$21,500 for selected towns in which average household income is at least 175% of the state average household income)
- For the eight school districts with starting salaries already above \$20,000, a minimum salary was set slightly above their existing base salary, according to a detailed formula.

- Provided grants (in the 1986-87, 1987-88, and 1988-89 academic years) to districts with base salaries below \$20,000 (or \$21,500 if applicable as above) to cover the district's increased costs of bringing salaries up to the minimum mark. The amount of the grant was based on a detailed allocation formula. Districts with exceptionally low base salaries (i.e. \$16,000 or less) were to be given additional grants if they voluntarily increase based pay to the State-defined minimum prior to 1988.

- Provided grants (in the 1986-87, 1987-88, and 1988-89 academic years) to districts to increase the salaries of experienced teachers, based on a detailed formula using average teacher salaries as a yardstick.
- Provided grants (in the 1986-87, 1987-88, and 1988-89 academic years) to eligible districts for the purpose of reducing pupil to staff ratios. A detailed eligibility and allocation formula was employed for this purpose.

Source text

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<http://www.tc.columbia.edu/~teachcomm/POL-INFO/conn-h.htm>

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students who:

- are Connecticut residents;
  - are attending or have been accepted into **graduate** level teacher education programs on a full-time basis at **accredited** colleges or universities in Connecticut;
  - intend to teach in Connecticut public schools or Board-approved non-public schools; and
  - have graduated from a baccalaureate degree program with a GPA of 3.1 or higher (or have scored at least 1800 on the GRE general test).
- Considers affirmative action and equal opportunity goals in selecting loan recipients.
  - Provides a graduated scale of loan forgiveness to recipients who attain initial certification and teach in the state of Connecticut, with **accelerated** forgiveness for those who teach in "priority" school districts (as designated by the state Department of Education)--
    - 30% loan forgiveness provided after one year of teaching completed, or 40% if in a priority area; and
    - 60% loan forgiveness provided after two years of teaching completed, or 100% if in a priority area;
    - 100% loan forgiveness provided after three years of teaching completed.

Source text

#### Further Information Return to Sample Policy Menu

- disseminate information about career incentives to local districts;
  - adopt regulations to "provide guidance" in the formation of career incentives by local districts:
- Authorized (up to the spring of 1988) the formation of local or regional panels on "career incentive development" (collaboration across districts possible) by school districts that wished to institute a career incentive and evaluation plan-- plans were then subject to the approval of the local or regional school board(s) and the Commission described above:
  - Grants (equal to five dollars per student in "average daily membership" for the first 500 students, & three dollars for each additional student), were made available to districts or regions with approved plans;
    - plans could result in compensation being provided to teachers for reasons other than level of seniority or advanced degree;
    - each plan had to include provisions for mentoring beginning teachers;
    - each plan could include compensation for professional development, curriculum development, peer assessment, peer counseling, "master" teaching, or career advancement "ladder:"
  - Established a "career incentive fund," to be used in perpetuity, from which to pay the grants mentioned above.

Source text

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# National Commission on Teaching & America's Future

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## Recommendation 4: Encourage and Reward

### Teacher Knowledge and Skill

The Commission recommends that school districts, states, unions, and professional associations cooperate to make teaching a true profession, with a career continuum that places teaching at the top and rewards teachers for their knowledge and skills.

To address these issues, the Commission recommends that states and local agencies:

- **Develop a career continuum** linked to assessments and compensation systems that reward knowledge and skill. These include the ability to teach expertly in two or more subjects, as demonstrated by performance-based licensing, as well as the ability to pass examinations of teaching skill, such as those offered by INTASC and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS).
- **Remove incompetent teachers** through peer assistance and review programs that provide necessary supports and due process.
- **Set goals and enact incentives for National Board Certification** in every district, with the aim of certifying 105,000 teachers—one for every school in the nation—during the next ten years.

### State Policy

- Arkansas House Bills 1447, 402, and 1795 (1997) addressed teacher compensation and provided incentives for National Board Certification.
- Connecticut Education Enhancement Act (1986) addressed teacher compensation and set up new compensation models for teachers.
- Maryland Senate Bill 460 (1997) provided incentives for National Board Certification.
- Missouri Outstanding Schools Act (1993) addressed teacher compensation.
- North Carolina Excellent Schools Act (1997) offered new compensation models and incentives for National Board Certification.
- Ohio administrative code, chapter 3301-24-02 (1996) offered incentives for National Board Certification.

### Model Programs

- Cincinnati's Career in Teaching Program
- Cincinnati's Peer Assistance and Review Program (PAEP)
- Columbus's Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) Program
- Rochester's Career in Teaching (CIT) Program

- o Seattle's Staff Training, Assistance, and Review (STAR) Program

**The Commission's Recommendations for  
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

are addressed by Arkansas law, which  
(via House Bill 1757):

- Requires each school district to provide a minimum of 200 hours per school week for teacher planning, preparation, and conferences.
- Stipulates that such time must be provided in increments longer than 20 minutes (with the minimum increment to be increased to 30 minutes by the 1999-2000 school year).

[Source text](#)[Further Information](#)[Return to Sample Policy Menu](#)**The Commission's Recommendations for  
TEACHER COMPENSATION**

are addressed by Arkansas law, which  
(via House Bill 1447):

- Requires each school to have a minimum salary schedule for teachers. For the 1997-98 school year, a teacher with a baccalaureate degree and no previous experience is to be paid a minimum of \$20,000. A teacher with a master's degree and no previous experience is to be paid a minimum of \$23,000. Each year of experience (through the fifteenth year) adds an extra \$400 to the minimum salary level at that step on the salary schedule. Each school district is mandated to maintain a schedule in perpetuity with at least these minimum amounts.
- Sets, in perpetuity, a minimum salary for teachers with a master's degree and at least fifteen years of experience. This minimum salary is defined as "150% of the state minimum base salary." Based on the schedule devised for the 1997-98 academic year, this amount is \$30,000 at present.

(via House Bill 402):

- Makes it possible for the Arkansas Public Employees' Retirement System to revise the definition of "final average pay" and "final average salary" for purposes of calculation of retirement benefits. Due the new law, the Arkansas PERS may base its definition of "final average pay" and "final average salary" upon the highest annual compensation during a 36-month period, rather than being required to use the previously defined period of 48-months for existing

retirees. For teachers retiring after 1997-98, the Arkansas PERS may base its definition of "final average pay" and "final average salary" upon the highest annual compensation during a period of no less than three years and no more than five years. The ultimate decision is left up to the Arkansas PERS provided they demonstrate the actuarial appropriateness of the action to the legislature's Joint Committee on Retirement and Social Security Programs. Under no circumstances can the calculation of "final average salary" and "final average pay" be based on a period of compensation longer than 48 months.

[Source text](#)

[Further Information](#)

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### **The Commission's Recommendations for INCENTIVES FOR NATIONAL BOARD CERTIFICATION**

are addressed by Arkansas law, which  
(via House Bill 1975):

- Directs the State Department of Education to pay one half of the participation fee for teachers seeking certification from the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (this benefit is limited to teachers who have at least three years of experience in the Arkansas public school system and who have not received such compensation from another state).
- Authorizes the State Department of Education to provide for up to three days of paid leave for teachers seeking NBPTS certification by furnishing substitute pay to the appropriate school districts.

[Source text](#)

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### **MORE INFORMATION**

about Arkansas legislation is available on the World Wide Web  
at the Arkansas General Assembly home page:  
<http://www.arkleg.state.ar.us>

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**NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS**

**Statistical Analysis Report January 1999**

**Teacher Quality:  
A Report on the Preparation  
and Qualifications of  
Public School Teachers**



U.S. Department of Education

Office of Educational Research and Improvement NCES 1999-080

## NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS

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Statistical Analysis Report January 1999

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# Teacher Quality: A Report on the Preparation and Qualifications of Public School Teachers



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# **Executive Summary**

## **Background**

In his 1997 State of the Union Address, President Clinton issued a "Call to Action" that included as a priority improving the quality of teachers in every American classroom. President Clinton's speech reflects growing concern over the condition of education and the nation's need for excellent teachers. The nation's educational system must provide our children with the knowledge, information, and skills needed to compete in a complex international marketplace. Good teachers are the hallmark of such an educational system; they are integral to children's intellectual and social development.

In response to these concerns and expectations, this study, undertaken by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), using its Fast Response Survey System (FRSS), provides a profile of the quality of the nation's teachers. Providing such a profile is not an easy task. Teacher quality is a complex phenomenon, and there is little consensus on what it is or how to measure it. For example, definitions range from those that focus on what should be taught and how knowledge should be imparted to the kinds of knowledge and training teachers should possess. There are, however, two broad elements that most observers agree characterize teacher quality: (1) teacher preparation and qualifications, and (2) teaching practices. The first refers to preservice learning (e.g., postsecondary education, certification) and continued learning (e.g., professional development, mentoring). The second refers to the actual behaviors and practices that teachers exhibit in their classrooms (U.S. Department of Education, 1996a). Of course, these elements of teacher quality are not independent; excellent teacher preparation and qualifications should lead to exemplary teaching behaviors and practices.

This FRSS report is based on current NCES efforts to collect data on the first of these elements (i.e., teacher preparation and qualifications), using a nationally representative survey of full-time public school teachers whose main teaching assignment is in English/language arts, social studies/social sciences, foreign language, mathematics, or science, or who teach a self-contained classroom. Specifically, it includes indicators of preservice and continued learning (e.g., degrees held, certification, teaching assignment, professional development opportunities, and collaboration with other teachers). In addition, because schools and communities play an important role in shaping and maintaining high-quality teachers, this study examines the work environments in which educators teach (e.g., formal induction procedures for new teachers, parental support).

This report is timely in light of recent concerns over the quality of our educational system and our teachers. Teachers' professional preparation (as well as their working conditions) has been identified as fundamental to improving elementary and secondary education (National Commission on <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs99/1999080.htm>

Teaching and America's Future, 1996). At the core of educational reforms to raise standards, reshape curricula, and restructure the way schools operate is the call to reconceptualize the practice of teaching. Teachers are being asked to learn new methods of teaching, while at the same time they are facing the greater challenges of rapidly increasing technological changes and greater diversity in the classroom.

The FRSS survey indicates that currently less than half of American teachers report feeling "very well prepared" to meet many of these challenges:

- Although many educators and policy analysts consider educational technology a vehicle for transforming education, relatively few teachers reported feeling very well prepared to integrate educational technology into classroom instruction (20 percent).
- While 54 percent of the teachers taught limited English proficient or culturally diverse students, and 71 percent taught students with disabilities, relatively few teachers who taught these students (about 20 percent) felt very well prepared to meet the needs of these students. Their feelings of preparedness did not differ by teaching experience.
- Only 28 percent of teachers felt very well prepared to use student performance assessment techniques; 41 percent reported feeling very well prepared to implement new teaching methods, and 36 percent reported feeling very well prepared to implement state or district curriculum and performance standards.

This national profile of teacher preparation, qualifications, and work environments provides a context for understanding why many teachers do not report feeling very well prepared to meet many of the challenges they currently face in their classrooms. Key findings are provided in three major areas: (1) preservice learning and teaching assignment; (2) continued learning; and (3) supportive work environment.

## **Key Findings Preservice Learning and Teaching Assignment**

Growing concern that a number of the nation's teachers are underqualified to teach our children has focused attention on their preservice learning. For example, concern regarding preservice learning has been directed toward teachers' postsecondary degrees—that is, the idea that teachers, particularly secondary teachers, should have an academic major rather than a general education degree (Ravitch, 1998). In addition, certification policies have drawn criticism—specifically, that a growing number of the nation's teachers are entering classrooms with emergency or temporary certification (Riley, 1998). Finally, attention is increasingly directed toward teaching assignments—that is, teachers being assigned to teach subjects that do not match their training or education (U.S. Department of Education, 1996b). Results of the 1998 FRSS survey indicate that:

- Virtually all teachers had a bachelor's degree, and nearly half (45 percent) had a master's degree. More high school teachers had an undergraduate or graduate major in an academic field (66 percent), compared with elementary school teachers (22 percent) and middle school teachers (44 percent).
- Most of the teachers (92 percent and 93 percent, for departmentalized and general elementary,

respectively) were fully certified in the field of their main teaching assignment. However, emergency and temporary certification was higher among teachers with 3 or fewer years of experience compared to teachers with more teaching experience. For example, 12 percent of general elementary classroom teachers with 3 or fewer years of experience had emergency or temporary certification, whereas less than 1 percent of general elementary classroom teachers with 10 or more years of experience had emergency or temporary certification. The results are similar for departmentalized teachers.

- Despite the fact that the measure of out-of-field teaching used in this report is conservative—it only includes teachers' main teaching assignments in core fields—the results indicate that a number of educators were teaching out of field. For example, the percent of teachers in grades 9 through 12 who reported having an undergraduate or graduate major or minor in their main teaching assignment field was 90 percent for mathematics teachers, 94 percent for science teachers, and 96 percent for teachers in English/language arts, social studies/social science, and foreign language. This means that 10 percent of mathematics teachers, 6 percent of science teachers, and 4 percent of English/language arts, foreign language, and social studies/social science teachers in grades 9 through 12 were teaching out of field. The percent of teachers who reported having an undergraduate or graduate major or minor in their main teaching assignment field was significantly lower for teachers of grades 7 through 12 than for teachers of grades 9 through 12 for mathematics (82 percent), science (88 percent), English/language arts (86 percent), and social studies/social sciences (89 percent), indicating that teachers in grades 7 and 8 are less likely to be teaching in field than are teachers in grades 9 through 12.

### **Continued Learning: Professional Development and Teacher Collaboration**

In order to meet the changing demands of their jobs, high-quality teachers must be capable and willing to continuously learn and relearn their trade. Professional development and collaboration with other teachers are strategies for building educators' capacity for effective teaching, particularly in a profession where demands are changing and expanding. However, traditional approaches to professional development (e.g., workshops, conferences) have been criticized for being relatively ineffective because they typically lack connection to the challenges teachers face in their classrooms, and they are usually short term. Research suggests that unless professional development programs are carefully designed and implemented to provide continuity between what teachers learn and what goes on in their classrooms and schools, these activities are not likely to produce any long-lasting effects on either teacher competence or student outcomes (Fullan with Stiegelbauer, 1991). In addition to quality professional development, peer collaboration has also been recognized as important for teachers' continuous learning. The 1998 survey indicates that:

- Virtually all teachers participated in professional development activities (99 percent) and at least one collaborative activity (95 percent) in the last 12 months. Participation in professional development activities typically lasted from 1 to 8 hours, or the equivalent of 1 day or less of training. Teachers were most likely to participate in professional development activities focused toward areas that reformers emphasize (e.g., implementing state or district curriculum and performance standards, integrating technology into the grade or subject taught, using student performance assessment techniques).
- Nineteen percent of teachers had been mentored by another teacher in a formal relationship; 70 percent of teachers who were mentored at least once a week reported that it improved their

teaching "a lot."

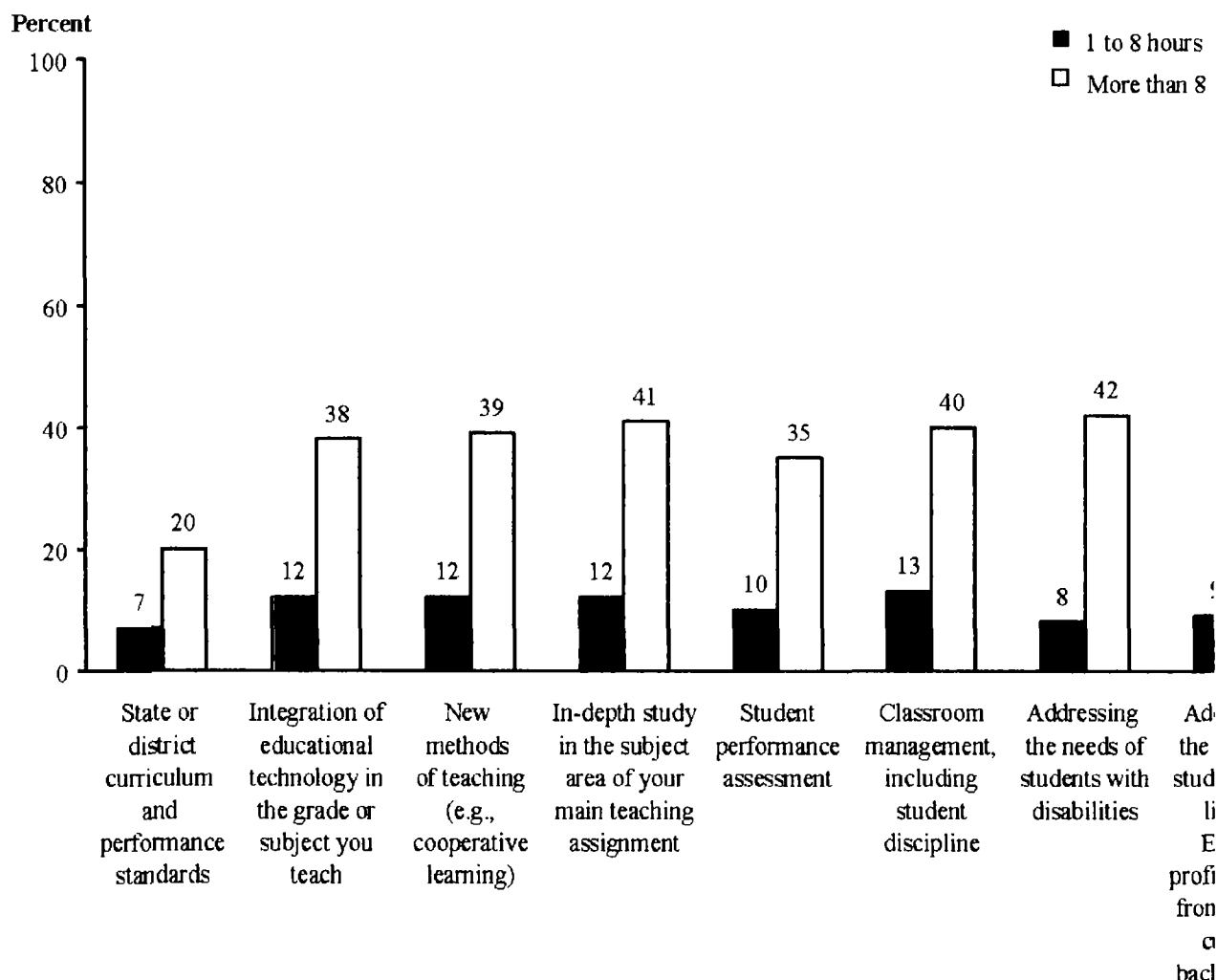
- Increased time spent in professional development and collaborative activities was associated with the perception of significant improvements in teaching. For every content area of professional development, a larger proportion of teachers who participated for more than 8 hours believed it improved their teaching "a lot" compared with teachers who participated for 8 hours or less (figure E). For example, teachers who spent more than 8 hours in professional development on in-depth study in the subject area of their main teaching assignment were more likely than those who spent 1 to 8 hours to report that participation in the program improved their teaching a lot (41 percent versus 12 percent). Moreover, teachers who participated in common planning periods for team teachers at least once a week were more likely than those who participated a few times a year to report that participation improved their teaching a lot (52 percent versus 13 percent).

### **Supportive Work Environment**

Teachers' work environment is the final aspect of teacher quality addressed in this report. In addition to teacher learning, one key factor to understanding teacher quality is to focus on what happens to teachers once they enter the work force, including if they receive support from the schools and communities in which they work and from the parents of the children they teach. The 1998 FRSS survey indicates that:

- One-third of teachers had participated in an induction program when they first began teaching. However, newer teachers were more likely to have participated in some kind of induction program at the beginning of their teaching careers than were more experienced teachers (65 percent of teachers with 3 or fewer years of experience versus 14 percent of teachers with 20 or more years of experience). This FRSS survey did not elicit information regarding the intensity or usefulness of the induction programs.

**Figure E.—Percent of full-time public school teachers who participated in professional development activities in the last 12 months indicating the extent to which they believe the activity improved their teaching a lot: 1998**



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Fast Response Survey System, Teacher Survey on Professional Development and Training, 1998.

- Teachers perceived relatively strong collegial support for their work; 63 percent strongly agreed that other teachers shared ideas with them that were helpful in their teaching. In addition, many teachers also felt supported by the school administration, with 55 percent agreeing strongly that the school administration supported them in their work and 47 percent agreeing strongly that goals and priorities for the school were clear.
- Teachers perceived somewhat less support from parents than from other teachers and the school administration. Only one-third of teachers agreed strongly that parents supported them

in their efforts to educate their children.

- Collegial, school, and parental support varied by the instructional level of the school, with elementary school teachers perceiving stronger support than high school teachers.

The results of this survey provide a national profile of teacher quality, specifically focused on teachers' learning (both preservice and continued) and the environments in which they work. Included is important information regarding teachers' education, certification, teaching assignments, professional development, collaboration, and supportive work environment. In addition, comparisons by instructional level and poverty level of the school provide information about the distribution of teacher quality. This information provides a context for understanding why few teachers report feeling very well prepared to meet the challenges they face in their classrooms. This report is the first in a series of biennial reports that will be undertaken by NCES. Thus, the information provided here should provide a benchmark for these important dimensions of teacher quality and preparation.

*Every child needs—and deserves—dedicated, outstanding teachers, who know their subject matter, are effectively trained, and know how to teach to high standards and to make learning come alive for students.*

President Clinton, September 1996.

## 1. Introduction

In his 1997 State of the Union address, President Clinton issued a "Call to Action" that included as a priority improving the quality of teachers in every classroom. President Clinton's speech reflects growing concern over the condition of education and the nation's need for excellent teachers. Now more than ever, success is determined by an individual's ability not only to read and write, but also to frame and solve complex problems and continually learn new skills. The nation's educational system is increasingly being asked to provide our children with the knowledge, information, and skills needed to compete in an increasingly complex international marketplace. Good teachers are the hallmark of such an educational system; they are integral to children's intellectual and social development. Therefore, they must know how to teach in ways that help our children reach high levels of competence.

A national profile of teacher quality is a necessary tool for tracking our progress toward this goal. However, providing such a profile is not an easy task. Teacher quality is a complex phenomenon, and there is little consensus on what it is or how to measure it. Definitions range from those that focus on what should be taught and how knowledge should be imparted to the kinds of knowledge and training teachers should possess. Efforts to collect such data have included diverse methods, such as classroom observations and videotaping, the administration of large-scale surveys, and the collection of artifacts (e.g., teacher logs, homework).

There are, however, two broad elements that characterize teacher quality: teacher preparation and qualifications, and teaching practices. The first refers to preservice learning (e.g., postsecondary education, certification), teaching assignment, continued learning (e.g., professional development, collaboration with other teachers, teaching experience), and general background (e.g., demographics, aptitude, life experience). The second refers to the actual quality of *teaching* that teachers exhibit in their classrooms (U.S. Department of Education, 1996a). Of course, these two elements of teacher

quality are not mutually exclusive; excellent teacher preparation and qualifications are expected to lead to exemplary teaching.

This study is based on current efforts by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) to collect data on key indicators of teacher preparation and qualifications, using a large-scale survey administered to a nationally representative sample of full-time, public school teachers whose primary teaching assignment is in English/ language arts, social studies/social sciences, foreign language, mathematics, or science or who teach a self-contained classroom. Specifically, this report includes indicators of preservice and continued learning (e.g., degrees held, certification, teaching assignment, professional development opportunities, collaboration with other teachers, teaching experience). Because schools and communities play an important role in shaping and maintaining high-quality teachers, this report also examines the work environments in which educators teach (e.g., formal induction procedures for new teachers, class size, parental support).

This report is timely in light of recent concerns about the quality of our educational system and our teachers. Many of these concerns draw attention to such issues as the training and support teachers receive (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future—NCTAF, 1996) and the number of teachers providing instruction outside of their subject-matter fields (U.S. Department of Education, 1996b). As a recent review of the research indicates, teacher qualifications and preparation are important elements of teacher effectiveness and important factors in determining student achievement (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1997). This study of teacher quality, conducted using the NCES Fast Response Survey System (FRSS), provides a national profile of the current state of teacher preparation and qualifications for full-time public school teachers, as well as several indicators of their work environment.

The remainder of this chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section describes the current thinking about teacher quality—the many ways it is defined—and concludes with the definition used in this study. The second section describes the current approaches used to measure teacher quality and concludes with a discussion of the measurement approach used in this study.

## **Teacher Quality: How Has It Been Defined?**

Perhaps the most traditional approach to characterizing teacher quality is the "expert teacher study," which focuses on teachers who have been identified as successful by their administrators or peers. This field of research is rich in detail, describing how successful teachers connect what they know with how they teach. For example, researchers have found that expert teachers use knowledge about the children in their classrooms—their backgrounds, strengths, and weaknesses—to create lessons that connect new subject matter to students' experiences (Leinhardt, 1989; Westerman, 1991). They also use this knowledge to adapt their teaching to accommodate children who learn in different ways. Expert teachers know how to recognize children experiencing difficulties, diagnose sources of problems in their learning, and identify strengths on which to build. This skill is particularly important because a growing number of students with a wider range of learning needs (i.e., students whose first language is not English and students with learning differences and disabilities) are entering and staying in school.

One strength of the expert teacher research is that it relies on intuitive logic, which supports the belief that it is possible to identify good teachers by observing them and that, once identified, the teachers' strengths can be determined and recorded. This body of research also confirms what many people envision a high-quality teacher to be—someone who understands children and knows how to

assist their learning. For example, the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC, 1995) established 10 key principles it believes to be central tenets of effective teaching. The principles state that teachers should be able to understand their subject matter and relate it to students, adopt teaching strategies that are responsive to different learners, employ diverse instructional strategies, establish proper assessment tools to measure student development, and engage in continual curriculum evaluation and professional development (INTASC Core Standards).

However, aside from such broad notions of teacher quality, there is little consensus regarding its precise definition (Stodolsky, 1996). That is, there is no single answer to the question "What qualifications and practices characterize high-quality teachers?" There are many different and sometimes conflicting views of what constitutes a good teacher. These views, as discussed below, address not only teaching practices, but also teacher preparation and qualifications as well as the school environments where teachers work.

## **Teaching Practices**

The disagreement over basic skills versus complex thinking approaches to instruction is one example of the key disputes currently surrounding definitions of high-quality teaching practice. Although viewing these techniques as opposing approaches represents a simplification of the issue, these two instructional methods do illustrate the extremes of the current debate.

The first form of instruction traditionally has been conceptualized as the transmission of facts to students, who are seen as passive receptors. In classrooms where this type of teaching predominates, teachers typically conduct lessons through a lecture format, instruct the entire class as a unit, write notes on the chalkboard, and pass out worksheets for students to complete. In such classrooms, knowledge is presented as fact. This is the type of instruction with which most Americans are familiar.

By contrast, in classrooms characterized by higher order tasks, typically described as "constructivist," students are encouraged to pose hypotheses and to explore ways to test them. They are encouraged to weigh information from these "tests" with previous experiences or understanding of the topic. Students then "construct" a new understanding of subject matter. Although many recent school reform efforts advocate such innovative instruction (e.g., Coalition of Essential Schools—Sizer, 1992; National Association of Secondary School Principals and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching—NASSP, 1996), there is much debate regarding the use and implementation of such instructional techniques. For example, opposition may come from parents and teachers who hold more traditional views of teaching and learning. Moreover, the concerns of parents, teachers, and students about access to colleges—which is based, in part, on high performance on standardized tests of recognized skills and facts—may discourage the use of innovative instructional techniques (Talbert and McLaughlin, 1993). Studies of these constructivist teaching methods have been limited because such instruction has only recently been implemented. The existing studies typically use classroom observation in a limited number of settings.

## **Teacher Preparation and Qualifications**

As with teaching practices, there is debate surrounding the preparation and qualifications that characterize high-quality teachers. Compared to other fields, disputes and ambiguities regarding the knowledge base and competence required of professionals are particularly striking in teaching (Sykes, 1990). There is little dispute that teachers ought to have a postsecondary education and

possess strong knowledge of the subjects they teach, but beyond this there is some disagreement about what individuals need to know and be able to do in order to teach effectively. Moreover, as researchers struggle to quantify teacher preparation and qualifications, some critics feel that studies of teachers' credentials and knowledge do not provide enough information about teacher quality—that is, indicators of teacher preparation and qualifications do not directly address the actual quality of instructional practices. As these debates are highlighted in the paragraphs that follow, however, it is important to note that there are some well-established indicators of teacher preparation and qualifications that do inform researchers, policymakers, and education consumers.

During an NCES conference presentation, David Mandel (1996, p. 3-31), former Vice President for Policy Development at the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, stated:

What is known is the type of education credentials teachers have accumulated and the type of state licenses they have been granted. This information has proven useful in gaining a rough sense of how well prepared teachers are to take on the assignments they are handed... But such data, even when positive, provide only the most modest threshold of confidence regarding the quality of practice in the nation's schools.

Other researchers agree that understanding teacher preparation and qualifications requires more than determining whether or not a teacher has a degree or certification. The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards describes teaching as a complex skill involving multiple talents (NBPTS, 1998). Ballou and Podgursky (1997, 1998) raise important measurement issues in their discussion of ways in which to attract "brighter" individuals into the teaching pool. In this discussion, they insist that flexibility in certification and personnel policies facilitates the entry of talented individuals into teaching. The implication of their argument is that extensive formal training may not necessarily create good teachers. The authors suggest that talented individuals may be less likely to remain in teacher training programs that require extended commitment; they may be more likely to seek more lucrative professions. According to their logic, extended formal training does not necessarily reflect teacher quality. It is important to note, however, the other side of the debate; that is, in addition to talent and subject matter knowledge, prospective teachers must also be trained to teach children (NCTAF, 1996).

## **Supportive Working Conditions**

In addition to teacher preparation and qualifications and teaching practice, investigations of teacher quality have included studies of what happens to teachers once they enter the workforce. This perspective stems from the premise that classrooms and schools become effective when talented people are teaching in workplaces that are stimulating and rewarding (Fullan with Stiegelbauer, 1991). In order to promote high-quality teaching that will in turn produce high-quality learning, teachers need support from the schools and communities in which they work (including such issues as induction programs for new teachers and the number of students for whom teachers are responsible) and support from the parents of the children they teach.

**Class size.** Although the research on class size is somewhat mixed—some research studies suggest positive effects of reduced class size, others suggest little effect—it seems reasonable to assume that smaller class size may facilitate teachers' work. In order for teachers to become "experts" as defined by the expert—teacher literature, it is important for them to truly know and understand the children in their classrooms, which clearly would be easier if there were fewer children. Some of the research on class size supports this logic. For example, studies of Tennessee's Project STAR indicate that

students in smaller classes (13-17 students) significantly outperformed students in larger classes (22-25 students) on achievement tests in mathematics and reading (Finn and Achilles, 1990; Word et al., 1990). Ferguson (1990) reported similar findings in Texas; classes enrolling more than 18 students were associated with lower reading and math test scores for grades 1-7. To explain the class size effects, researchers have cited the smaller number of disruptions, the increased teacher attention for students, and the increased opportunity for student participation in smaller classrooms (Achilles, 1996). Other researchers argue that reducing class size has little or no effect on student performance. In an examination of trend data from the 1950s to 1986, Tomlinson (U.S. Department of Education, 1988) did not find a consistent relationship between class size and standardized test scores. Moreover, based on a review of the literature, Odden (1990) argued that class size reduction produces only modest gains in student achievement and does not justify the cost of implementing such reform.

**Induction of new teachers.** Research has found that the attrition rates of new teachers are five times higher than those of their more experienced counterparts (Asian-Pacific Economic Cooperation, 1997). In order to introduce beginning teachers into the profession with support and guidance, many districts have implemented formal induction programs. These programs can have two goals: to assist beginning teachers with instruction and to prepare them to meet state certification requirements. A key feature of many programs is the mentoring aspect—the pairing of an experienced teacher with a new teacher. Responsibilities of the mentor may include providing guidance on curriculum, classroom management, and assessment (Galvez-Hjornevik, 1986). It is expected that mentoring relationships play a critical role in the support, training, and retention of new teachers (King and Bey, 1995). Therefore, by easing the transition into full-time teaching, formal induction programs provide new practitioners with skills and support structures to develop effective teaching practices. It is important to note that in addition to *formal* induction of new teachers, there are many important avenues for *informal* induction (e.g., team teaching, common planning time and other activities which results in informal collaboration between new and experienced teachers).

**Parental support.** An extensive body of research has found what many parents and educators already know—children prosper when their parents are actively involved in their education. Research has shown that support from families, including greater family involvement in children's learning, is a critical factor leading to a high-quality education (U.S. Department of Education, 1994a). Policymakers have tapped into this important resource; for example, the National Education Goals included parental involvement in children's education as a top priority. Clearly, teachers' jobs are easier when parents work *with* them rather than *against* them. For this reason, parental support is an important feature of teachers' work environment.

### **The Definition of Teacher Used in This Report**

The previous discussion underscores the complex and sometimes controversial nature of defining teacher quality. Two main elements were discussed—teacher preparation and qualifications, and teaching practices. The definition used in this report is based on the former rather than the latter. Teachers' professional preparation (as well as their working conditions) has been identified as fundamental to improving elementary and secondary education (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986; NCTAF, 1996). Policymakers today are especially interested in the training and education teachers receive in the subject areas they teach; high-quality teacher preparation and qualifications are expected to lead to high-quality teaching. For these reasons, a national profile of teacher preparation and qualifications provides important information about the quality of America's teachers.

Decisions regarding how to define teacher quality have implications for the method researchers use to measure it. For example, teaching practices are increasingly measured through classroom observation. Teacher preparation and qualifications are often measured through large-scale surveys. The following section discusses the various ways teacher quality has been measured. Included is a discussion of the definition(s) typically associated with each measurement approach.

## **Teacher Quality: How Has It Been Studied?**

Just as definitions about teacher quality differ, so do the ways in which it has been studied. Conventional approaches to measuring teacher quality have typically taken four forms: (1) classroom observations of teacher practices; (2) written examinations of teachers measuring their basic literacy, subject-matter knowledge, and pedagogical skills; (3) student performance and achievement; and (4) large-scale surveys of teacher qualifications, attitudes, behaviors, and practices. It is important to note that studies of teacher qualifications or practices are not always driven by theories of what constitutes a good teacher. Sometimes such indicators are developed to answer specific policy questions. As described below, different approaches to measuring teacher qualifications or practices are based on different conceptions of what it means to be a high-quality teacher or on the specific needs or interests of policymakers.

### **Classroom Observation**

Observational research has a long and growing history in the field of education. Classroom observation, as well as the collection of artifacts (e.g., teacher logs, homework) and information from interviews, has been employed to document teaching practices generally and to assess teaching quality specifically. Observation, as used by school systems for evaluation purposes, has been strongly criticized as having the following problems: limited competence of principals, teacher resistance and apathy, lack of uniformity within school systems, and inadequate training of evaluators (Wise et al., 1984). Principals often experience role conflict as they try to serve as both evaluators and instructional leaders, and they tend to lack expertise in specialized subject-matter areas, especially at the secondary school level (Stodolsky, 1984).

Using observational data to document teaching practices is less controversial than using it to assess individual teachers for purposes of salary increase, tenure, or recertification. Observational studies, often combined with interviews or teacher logs, include investigations of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and reasoning (Ball and Wilson, 1996) and the connections between education policy and teacher practices (Ball, 1990; Cohen, 1990; Peterson, 1990), professional development and teaching (Ball, 1996), and subject matter and curricular activity (Stodolsky and Grossman, 1995).

Observational data provide rich detail and in-depth information. As such, observation is typically used to provide a detailed picture of classroom instruction in a limited number of classrooms. Because collecting such data is costly, this approach is rarely used to provide a national profile of instruction. However, NCES is involved in an effort to provide such a profile. The Videotape Classroom Study, part of the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), consists of videotaped lessons in 231 eighth grade mathematics classrooms in the United States, Germany, and Japan. The report of the video study includes general findings regarding international differences

<http://nces.ed.gov/pubs99/1999080.htm>

in how lessons are structured and delivered, what kind of mathematics is presented, and the kinds of mathematical thinking in which students are engaged (U.S. Department of Education, 1998a).

## Teacher Testing

Standardized tests, such as the National Teacher Examinations (NTE), have been used to measure teachers' basic knowledge and skills (e.g., basic literacy, number skills, subject-matter knowledge in particular areas). Teacher test scores have then been linked to student test scores. Ferguson (1990) found that teachers' scores on a test of basic literacy skills were significantly correlated with their students' test scores. Results are typically used to determine whether to grant temporary or permanent certification, and occasionally for continuation of tenured teachers.

While most experts agree that having basic subject knowledge is an important prerequisite to effective teaching, critics maintain that it is not a sufficient indication of the range of knowledge and skills needed to instruct and manage groups of children. They argue that this approach does not provide a complete picture of teacher quality. These tests only measure teachers' basic knowledge and not their pedagogical knowledge or their teaching practice. In response, organizations such as the Educational Testing Service (ETS), the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, and the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards have undertaken efforts to develop new systems of teacher assessment that feature "standards-based assessments." One example of the new generation of teacher examinations is the Professional Assessments for Beginning Teachers, the PRAXIS series, currently being developed by the Educational Testing Service as a replacement for NTE. The PRAXIS series consists of three types of assessments: (1) a computerized test of basic literacy and numeracy skills; (2) a paper-and-pencil test of subject-matter knowledge and general pedagogical principles; and (3) an observational assessment of classroom teaching performance. The PRAXIS series is meant to assess potential and practicing teachers at different times during their training and practice (e.g., admitting candidates into teacher education programs and awarding initial and ongoing certification). In addition, many states have developed their own assessments as a basic prerequisite for teaching. These assessments can take the form of written tests, which may measure basic skills, subject matter or knowledge of teaching methods, and performance evaluations, which could consist of portfolio evaluation or classroom observation (CCSSO, 1998).

Such efforts have grown out of the recent push to identify standards for teacher and student performance. These kinds of assessments go beyond paper-and-pencil tests to include portfolio assessment and in-person testing, which incorporate pedagogy, content knowledge, and role-play/interactive sessions. Teachers may also be required to submit examples of their work through videotapes and lesson plans. Teachers are asked to analyze teaching situations and defend teaching decisions based on knowledge of subject, students, curriculum, and pedagogy.

## Student Achievement Tests

Many would argue that the bottom line of whether teachers (and schools) are effective is whether their students are successful. The use of student achievement test score gains to assess *teachers*, rather than educational systems, however, has received substantial criticism (U.S. Department of Education, 1996a). Specifically, social scientists have argued that it is very difficult to separate out the portion of student achievement gains that can be reliably attributed to an individual teacher. Numerous factors affect student achievement over the course of a school year in addition to his or her teacher: home background, student personality, attendance, school and community resources, and the peer group have all been demonstrated to affect how much students learn. In addition, critics

have argued that standardized achievement tests assess minimum levels of student competence and are often limited to the kinds of knowledge that can be captured with multiple-choice formats.

## Large-Scale Surveys

National surveys of teachers have been used to provide quantifiable indicators of teacher quality. Typically, teachers have been asked to provide information on attributes such as their educational background, major and minor fields of study, certification, and professional development experiences. Such indicators have sometimes been linked to student test scores. For example, Ferguson (1990) found that the students of teachers with master's degrees had higher test scores in grades 1-7.

Over the years, there have been many efforts by NCES and others to use large-survey methodology to describe teaching—and, more generally, to capture what happens in classrooms. Examples of recent efforts can be found in *School Policies and Practices Affecting Instruction in Mathematics* (U.S. Department of Education, 1998b), *America's Teachers: Profile of a Profession, 1993-1994* (U.S. Department of Education, 1997), *Toward Better Teaching Professional Development in 1993-94* (U.S. Department of Education, 1998c), and *What Happens in Classrooms? Elementary and Secondary School Instruction, 1994-95* (U.S. Department of Education, forthcoming). These data notwithstanding, social scientists agree that existing surveys on these topics leave room for improvement. Important work continues in areas such as curriculum content, but new tools must be developed before large-scale differences in instructional and classroom practices can be reliably reported.

## The Measurement Used in This Report

The qualities deemed relevant to effective teaching, the goals of the assessor, and the resources available all contribute to the choice of assessment. The measurement approach adopted in this report is a large-scale survey administered to a representative sample of American teachers. Such a survey is particularly appropriate for providing a national profile of teacher preparation, qualifications, professional development, and school and parental support. Providing a picture of our nation's teachers is important in tracking trends of teacher preparedness and professional experiences.

Because of constraints on teacher time and resources, there are few national reports of this kind. Instead, many national reports have compiled data from a variety of sources to make conclusions about the status of education in America. Only the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), conducted by NCES on a regular basis, collects data from both teachers and schools on numerous aspects of teacher quality. SASS indicators of teacher quality include recruitment, teacher preparation, induction programs, teaching assignment (e.g., committee work, in- and out-of-field teaching), resources (e.g., class size, planning time), and professional development opportunities. However, the last SASS was conducted in 1993-94, and the next one will not be fielded until 1999-2000. The need for up-to-date, nationally representative data on the nation's teaching force prompted this Fast Response Survey on Professional Development and Training in 1998. In addition to presenting current findings on teacher quality from the 1998 FRSS survey, this report draws comparisons between the FRSS findings and findings from comparable questions on NCES' 1993-94 SASS. The comparisons provide some information about trends over the 4-year period. See appendix A for a discussion of the comparisons between the surveys. Both surveys are described in more detail below.



## Teaching Facts

- US TEACHER SHORTAGE
- MINORITY TEACHERS
- PREPARATION & QUALIFICATIONS
- WORKLOAD & PREP TIME
- DEVELOPMENT & SALARIES

At a time when educational quality tops the public's list of electoral concerns, urban classrooms across the U.S. continue to suffer from serious teacher shortages. Moreover, given the expected surge in public school enrollment, the problem of too few teachers is likely to get far worse before it gets better.

In the next ten years, America will need to hire two million teachers to meet rising enrollment demand and replace an aging teaching force. Half of our nation's teachers will retire during this time period.

At the same time, student enrollment, which hit record highs this fall, is projected to continue to grow rapidly during the next ten years. According to the U.S. Department of Education, by 2006, America will educate almost three million more children than today—more than 54 million youngsters.



Survey findings released in May, 1996, by RNT on behalf of the Urban Teacher Collaborative, which examined the nation's major urban school districts, found that three-fourths (77%) of urban school districts often must deal with shortages in high-need areas, including mathematics, science, special education, bilingual education, and elementary education.

About two-thirds (64%) of these urban districts allow non-certified teachers to teach under an emergency license while four in ten (40%) allow for hiring of long-term substitutes.



There is an immediate demand for teachers in a broad range of subject areas. Most districts (85%) say they have an immediate demand for special education and about two-thirds of districts say they have immediate demand for teachers in three fields: science (96%); mathematics (67%); and bilingual education (64%).

More than half of the districts responding to the survey (54%) report a need for more elementary teachers. There also is high need (85%) for male teachers.

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## Teaching Facts

- US TEACHER SHORTAGE
- MINORITY TEACHERS
- PREPARATION & QUALIFICATIONS
- WORKLOAD & PREP TIME
- DEVELOPMENT & SALARIES

Many teachers enter our nation's classrooms today without adequate preparation to teach. Consider the following findings from What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future, a report released by the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future in September, 1996.

More than 12% of all newly hired "teachers" enter the workforce without any training at all, and another 15% enter without having fully met state standards.

More than 50,000 people who lack the training required for their jobs have entered teaching annually on emergency or provisional licenses.

Only 500 of the nation's 1,200 education schools meet common professional standards.



Fewer than 75% of all teachers have studied child development, learning, and teaching methods, have degrees in their subject areas, and have passed state licensing requirements.

Nearly one-fourth of all secondary teachers do not have even a college minor in their main teaching field. This is true for more than 30% of mathematics teachers.

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## 21<sup>st</sup> Century Teacher Corps

### Current Picture/Problem

- *well need*
- *high pay*
- *high schools*
- *core subjects*

*minimum requirement*

### Current Solution

- Title II HEA Teacher Quality grants – expected to recruit approximately 5,000 teachers over the next 3-5 years
- Loan Forgiveness for teachers who teach in high-need areas (does not kick-in until teachers have served 5 years in the high-need school)
- Education awards through AmeriCorps National Service (approx. \$5,000 for 2 years of service)
- Recruitment of 100,000 teachers to reduce class-sizes (note: the 2.2 million teachers needed does not take into account the national or state efforts to reduce class-sizes in the early grades)

### Proposal

(as proposed in speech)

### Build a National Teacher Corps to Attract Quality Teachers to teach in our neediest Schools

*budget without*

**\*\*Scholarship of \$10,000 for any college student who commits to teaching 4 years in a “school that needs help” (how defined? Through federal, state, local accountability systems that have identified “low-performing schools”? So – how many are there??? What type of dent will we make? Over what time period? How will these efforts complement state and local efforts? How can we provide incentives to locals to participate in similar efforts? How can we reward local innovative efforts? What is our expectation for partnering?)**

**\*\*Bonus of \$10,000 for any mid-career professional who (commits to teaching for 4 years??) – are bonuses effective recruitment tool? Can we do more? Tax breaks, etc?**

**\*\*Must commit to 4 years and take “rigorous” test (more rigorous than one for all teachers? Other qualifications, e.g. minimum GPA, etc.?)**

### Options:

- build new program for low income schools & add?*
- (1) Combo of scholarship, loan forgiveness, and student aid
  - (2) Grants to local partnerships modeled on former National Teacher Corps/AmeriCorps
  - (3) Teach for America Expansion – funding TFA to do more with retention
  - (4)

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## Joining AmeriCorps : Check Out The Benefits

### **AmeriCorps Benefits: The Obvious and Not-So-Obvious**

Every AmeriCorps member receives a wealth of benefits-the most obvious of which is the satisfaction of getting things done for and with people who need your help. With AmeriCorps, your impact on the community you serve will be measurable. Whether you're tutoring kids, building homes, clearing trails and streams, mobilizing resources to create a local health clinic, or doing any of the hundreds of other goal-oriented AmeriCorps projects, you'll be able to really see the results of your work. And the smiles on the faces of the people you work with.

But there's more. As an AmeriCorps member, you're eligible for a variety of benefits that make the dedication of a year of your life worthwhile in every way:

**Education award** - AmeriCorps members who complete their service are eligible for an education award of \$4,725 (for full-time members; part-time members are eligible for a portion of that amount).

**Living Allowance** - All full-time AmeriCorps members receive a modest living allowance. You won't get rich off of it, but AmeriCorps members will tell you that it adequately covers your expenses if you live at the level of the people you're working with.

**Student Loans** - As an AmeriCorps member, you may be eligible for forbearance on your student loans. Your lender can tell you for sure. If so, there may be even more good news. AmeriCorps will pay for the interest that is accrued on qualified student loans for members who complete their service. (And don't forget that you can use your AmeriCorps education award to help pay off qualified student loans.)

You'll also receive **health insurance**, may qualify for child care assistance, and may get your relocation expenses covered (depending on your specific program).

You'll also receive a super**career jumpstart**, or help in redirecting your career if you're looking for a change. AmeriCorps members over and over talk about the difference the experience has made in their career-from technical job skills to experience as a manager, team member, coordinator, facilitator, and developer. AmeriCorps members get things done, and that kind of results-oriented experience pays off when you're finished with your service and considering your next steps, whether they be academic or in the job world.

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*1998 Amendments to Higher Education Act of 1965*

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P.L. 105-244

**SEC. 424. LOAN FORGIVENESS FOR TEACHERS.**

Section 428J (20 U.S.C. 1078-10) is amended to read as follows:

**‘SEC. 428J. LOAN FORGIVENESS FOR TEACHERS.**

‘(a) **STATEMENT OF PURPOSE-** It is the purpose of this section to encourage individuals to enter and continue in the teaching profession.

‘(b) **PROGRAM AUTHORIZED-** The Secretary shall carry out a program, through the holder of the loan, of assuming the obligation to repay a qualified loan amount for a loan made under section 428 or 428H, in accordance with subsection (c), for any new borrower on or after October 1, 1998, who--

‘(1) has been employed as a full-time teacher for 5 consecutive complete school years--

‘(A) in a school that qualifies under section 465(a)(2)(A) for loan cancellation for Perkins loan recipients who teach in such schools;

‘(B) if employed as a secondary school teacher, is teaching a subject area that is relevant to the borrower’s academic major as certified by the chief administrative officer of the public or nonprofit private secondary school in which the borrower is employed; and

‘(C) if employed as an elementary school teacher, has demonstrated, as certified by the chief administrative officer of the public or nonprofit private elementary school in which the borrower is employed, knowledge and teaching skills in reading, writing, mathematics, and other areas of the elementary school curriculum; and

‘(2) is not in default on a loan for which the borrower seeks forgiveness.

‘(c) **QUALIFIED LOANS AMOUNT-**

‘(1) **IN GENERAL-** The Secretary shall repay not more than \$5,000 in the aggregate of the loan obligation on a loan made under section 428 or 428H that is outstanding after the completion of the fifth complete school year of teaching described in subsection (b)(1). No borrower may receive a reduction of loan obligations under both this section and section 460.

‘(2) **TREATMENT OF CONSOLIDATION LOANS-** A loan amount for a loan made under section 428C may be a qualified loan amount for the purposes of this subsection only to the extent that such loan amount was used to repay a Federal Direct Stafford Loan, a Federal Direct Unsubsidized Stafford Loan, or a loan made under section 428 or 428H for a borrower who meets the requirements of subsection (b), as determined in accordance with regulations prescribed by the Secretary.

‘(d) **REGULATIONS-** The Secretary is authorized to issue such regulations as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this section.

'(e) CONSTRUCTION- Nothing in this section shall be construed to authorize any refunding of any repayment of a loan.

'(f) LIST- If the list of schools in which a teacher may perform service pursuant to subsection (b) is not available before May 1 of any year, the Secretary may use the list for the year preceding the year for which the determination is made to make such service determination.

'(g) ADDITIONAL ELIGIBILITY PROVISIONS-

'(1) CONTINUED ELIGIBILITY- Any teacher who performs service in a school that--

'(A) meets the requirements of subsection (b)(1)(A) in any year during such service; and

'(B) in a subsequent year fails to meet the requirements of such subsection,

may continue to teach in such school and shall be eligible for loan forgiveness pursuant to subsection (b).

'(2) PREVENTION OF DOUBLE BENEFITS- No borrower may, for the same service, receive a benefit under both this subsection and subtitle D of title I of the National and Community Service Act of 1990 (42 U.S.C. 12571 et seq.).

'(h) DEFINITION- For purposes of this section, the term 'year', where applied to service as a teacher, means an academic year as defined by the Secretary.'

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[Sec. 423. Unsubsidized Loans.]



[Sec. 425. Loan Forgiveness for Child Care Providers.]

## TALKING POINTS ON SENATOR LIEBERMAN'S ESEA PROPOSAL

Senator Lieberman's bill would wipe out the Administration's key education priorities, including expanding after-school programs, getting technology into classrooms, increasing school safety, strengthening accountability, and providing the necessary resources to ensure that *all* children learn to high standards.

- The bill **replaces the Administration's priorities with a \$2.7 billion block grant**. Block grants, by their nature, have no focus. Taxpayers would have little assurance of real results and no way to ensure real accountability. That is precisely the problem with the Lieberman bill. Instead of targeting funds to after-school programs, technology initiatives, literacy and reading programs, comprehensive school reform programs, safe and drug-free schools programs, and other key Administration priorities known to help children learn, the bill would provide a single block grant that is undifferentiated, unfocused, and unlikely to produce results.
- Far from furthering local control, the Lieberman bill would **concentrate educational decision-making at the State level** and, with no demand for results on national priorities, would eventually **erode public support for Federal assistance** to our Nation's schools.
- The bill would create a burdensome and unworkable accountability system for Title I schools, thereby driving States to develop **inconsistent dual systems of accountability**—one for Title I schools and one for all other schools. Where States operate dual systems, low-performing Title I schools are the ones that lose out on attention and resources. In practice, the Lieberman bill would take us back to the two-tiered Title I system that existed before 1994, in which poor students were held to lower academic standards than their wealthier peers.
- The bill would **hurt the education of language minority students, nearly 80 percent of whom are Spanish-speaking** by replacing a competitive program that ensures high-quality implementation with a formula program that spreads limited resources too thinly and abandons the commitment to training teachers to better serve the needs of students with limited English proficiency. In addition, the bill would require school districts to deny English language instruction of any kind to limited English proficient students until they obtained parental consent to provide such services.
- The bill would divert limited Federal funds from improving low-performing schools by **allowing unlimited use of Title I funds for taxi fares, bus tokens, and other transportation costs** associated with public school choice.

## **BLOCK GRANTS DON'T WORK**

### **Senator Lieberman's ESEA Proposal**

The Lieberman bill authorizes \$2.7 billion in block grants to States for academic enrichment, safe and quality learning environments, and systemic education reform and innovation. Block granting makes no sense as Federal education policy; **it takes the focus off strategies that have been proven to work and that the public believes in.**

The Lieberman block grants would eliminate programs that address the fundamental educational needs of our schoolchildren. Among them:

- **21st Century Community Learning Centers:** Currently funded at \$453 million, 21<sup>st</sup> Century provides grants to public schools to help keep children safe and provide opportunities for extended learning time to students and community members. The public response to the 21<sup>st</sup> Century Community Learning Centers has been overwhelming. In fiscal year 1998, the Department received applications from nearly 2,000 communities. In fiscal year 1999, the number of applicants surpassed 2,000; together they requested nearly \$900 million in assistance. This year the program will support 900 grants supporting 3,000 centers, serving approximately 900,000 children.
- **Comprehensive School Reform Demonstration:** Currently funded at \$220 million, CSRD provides incentives to schools, especially Title I schools identified for improvement, to implement research-based programs to strengthen the quality of education within the entire school. The program will support 2,500 schools through funding to implement comprehensive school reform programs based on reliable research and effective practices.
- **Reading Excellence Act:** Funded at \$260 million, REA provides resources to high-poverty schools to use research-based reading activities to improve the teaching and learning of reading for children from prekindergarten through third grade. This year, 17 states earned REA funds for their comprehensive plans to improve early reading instruction.
- **Safe and Drug-Free Schools:** Currently funded at \$600 million. \$440 million in state grants supports comprehensive approaches to drug and violence prevention. \$160 million supports the *Safe Schools, Healthy Students Initiative*, a joint effort of the Departments of Education, HHS, and Labor, as well as middle schools initiatives. Fifty-four communities received *Safe Schools* support this year.
- **Technology initiatives:** The Technology Literacy Challenge, funded at \$425 million in FY2000, helps schools integrate technology in the curriculum, and in particular helps ensure teachers are prepared to use technology to help student reach high standards. Preparing Tomorrow's Teachers to Use Technology, funded at \$75 million in FY 2000, supports preservice teacher training programs. The Technology Innovation Challenge Grants and Star Schools support innovative

new tools, applications, and delivery systems for promoting access to and achievement in challenging content. R\*Tecs provide essential technical assistance to schools, districts, and states in planning for and using technology in schools.

- **Professional development for early childhood educators:** Proposed in ESEA, the program Provides high-quality professional development opportunities for early childhood educators to improve their knowledge of and skills at working with young children and their families, particularly in developing language and literacy skills. National studies indicate that most early child care and education programs fail to help children prepare for the rigors of classroom learning experiences. One study concluded that only 14 percent of these programs are of high quality, and 5 percent of them are dangerous to the health, safety, and development of children.
- **Civic education:** Funded at \$9.85 million in FY200. Over the program's 12-year history, the We The People Civic Education program has helped more than 26 million students in 24,000 elementary and secondary schools gain a working knowledge of the Constitution, Bill of Rights, and the principles of democratic government. More than 82,000 teachers have participated in the program, and more than 89,000 sets of textbooks have been distributed free to schools throughout America.
- **Fund for the Improvement of Education:** FIE supports projects that use innovative educational approaches to improve teaching and learning. FIE supports the identification and dissemination of particularly effective practices used by these projects to serve as models for other programs. In fiscal year 1998, FIE supported 128 grants and a number of other interagency agreements and contracts. Among these, FIE supports CSRD, Elementary School Counseling Program, Character Education Partnership Grants, and the DC Public Schools Initiative. College Test Prep would also be funded under this part.
- **Small schools initiative:** Currently funded at \$45 million, the program helps high schools--as many as 700--implement smaller, safer, learning environments through such strategies as schools within schools, career academies, partnerships with higher education, etc.
- **College readiness programs (AP, SAT prep):** Uses \$15 million to increase the capacity of high-poverty high schools to provide access to challenging coursework, including AP classes.
- **Arts education:** At \$11.5 million, the Arts in Education program supports activities conducted by Very Special Arts (VSA) and the Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts. VSA serves over 3.5 million people with disabilities each year. Last year, VSA developed a virtual gallery on the Internet, which shares the talents of artists with disabilities, and established the Electronics Arts Academies to help people explore careers in the technological arts field. Other new initiatives

include Taking Notice, a photography program that documents the experience of living with a disability, and Arts for All, which provides specialized visual arts tools and materials for people with varying levels of independence.

- **Foreign Language Assistance Program:** Funded at \$ 8 million, supports SEAs and LEAs in implementing effective foreign language programs, particularly at the elementary level.
- **Inexpensive Book Distribution (Reading Is Fundamental):** \$20 million
- **Ellender Fellowships (Closeup):** Funded at \$1.5 million; ESEA would repeal and fund through FIE and Civic Education.
- **Javits Gifted and Talented Program:** The \$6.5 million program provides national leadership for efforts to identify and serve gifted and talented students, especially those who are economically disadvantaged, have limited English proficiency, or have disabilities.
- **WEEA:** The \$3 million program promotes educational equity for women and girls, including those who experience discrimination based on race, ethnicity, national origin, disability, or age.
- **National Writing Project:** Funded at \$9 million, the works to improve student writing abilities and provide professional development programs for classroom teachers. NWP operates on a "teachers teaching teachers" model. Successful writing teachers conduct workshops for other teachers in the schools during the school year to help improve overall writing skills.

## ANALYSIS OF THE PUBLIC EDUCATION REINVESTMENT, REINVENTION, AND REINVIGORATION ACT

### Title I – Compensatory Education

Like the Administration's bill and H.R. 2, emphasizes accountability, reducing the achievement gap between poor and non-poor students, targeting of funds on high-poverty schools, and the use of challenging content and performance standards and rigorous assessments. Declares policy to be ensuring that all students receive high-quality education by holding States, LEAs, and schools accountable for improved achievement and for facilitating improved instruction.

- Based largely on H.R. 2, with a greater emphasis on accountability and improved targeting to high-poverty LEAs.
- Changes the distribution of Title I formula funds by:
  - Adjusting the proportionate share of Title I funds allocated as Basic, Concentration, and Targeted Grants (with one distribution to be used for determining State amounts and another for determining within-State allocations.)
  - Changing the Title I hold-harmless provisions (to provide a 100 percent hold-harmless for States and an 85 percent hold-harmless for LEAs).
- No changes to current law for within-district targeting, schoolwide programs, targeted assistance schools, children in private schools (including Capital Expenses), or evaluation.
- Includes Administration proposal for a 2.5 percent reservation of LEA Grant funds for accountability and school improvement in FY 2001 and 2002 (and 3.5 percent in FY 2003 and beyond). However, includes no provision for State administrative costs.

### State Plans

- Like the Administration bill and H.R. 2, requires State Plans to describe how SEAs will hold LEAs accountable for improved student performance, including identification of LEAs and schools in need of improvement after two consecutive years of failing to make adequate yearly progress and assisting such LEAs and schools. Like H.R. 2 but unlike the Administration bill, requires corrective action if an LEA or school fails to make adequate progress for two (not three) consecutive years following identification for improvement.
- Strengthens efforts to turn around failing schools by conditioning LEA approval of school improvement plan on inclusion of one or more specified corrective actions. Requires State intervention if corrective action prescribed by LEA does not produce "sufficient progress in increased student performance" within one year after implementation.
- Like H.R. 2, but unlike the Administration bill, does not require school or LEA improvement plans to be peer-reviewed before approval by LEAs or States, respectively.
- Requires standards in at least mathematics and reading or language arts, but not science (as in H.R. 2). Unlike current law, H.R. 2, and the Administration proposal, requires performance standards with four (not three) levels of proficiency, the lowest level called "below basic." Note that if the intent of this provision is to classify student performance into four categories, then no change to current law is needed. The Department and States have interpreted the three proficiency levels under current law as thresholds, each of which defines a group of students above and below the threshold (i.e., three proficiency levels means four categories of performance). Requiring four proficiency levels (i.e., five categories of performance) would cause States to scrap their performance standards and develop them anew, thereby delaying real accountability under Title I.

- Requires Secretary to withhold administrative funds from States that do not have in place content and performance standards. Like H.R. 2, but unlike the Administration proposal, allows States to seek a one-time, one-year waiver of the standards and assessment implementation timeline, with no specific criteria for when waivers may be granted. Note that States may already seek waivers through the general waiver provisions of current law. This provision would only increase applications for waivers, thereby delaying Title I implementation.
- Defines "adequate yearly progress" (AYP) for schools to involve meeting "annual numerical objectives" for each subgroup and "narrowing gaps in performance" between subgroups. Unlike H.R. 2, requires narrowing achievement gaps only in math and reading or language arts. This approach is problematic for two reasons. First, as a statistical matter, year-to-year fluctuations in student performance data do not necessarily reflect true changes in performance. Defining adequate progress more flexibly in terms of "continuous and substantial gains" accounts for this. Second, no State in the nation has developed an accountability system that requires schools to narrow performance gaps and to demonstrate improvement by every subgroup every year. Consequently, this approach will lead the vast majority of States, if not all, to develop dual accountability systems, one for Title I schools and another for non-Title I schools—a situation that research has shown to result in Title I schools receiving less attention and fewer resources. Defining adequate progress by reference to gains in both overall student performance and the performance of low-achieving students would be more consistent with approaches now used in many States.
- Like H.R. 2, but unlike the Administration proposal, defines "adequate yearly progress" (AYP) for States to mean that 90 percent of LEAs meet AYP; defines AYP for LEAs to mean that 90 percent of schools meet AYP; and requires schools to include 90 percent of students within each of several subgroups (gender, race/ethnicity, LEP, migrant, disabled, poor) in the State assessment in order to make AYP. For LEAs, the 90 percent requirement means that any LEA with less than 10 schools cannot demonstrate AYP unless all of its schools demonstrate AYP. This stringent requirement likewise may lead many States to develop dual accountability systems.
- Sets same 10-year goal as H.R. 2 for ensuring that all groups of students to meet or exceed proficient level. Requires States to use non-English language "where appropriate" in seeking public comment on and explaining the AYP process to parents.
- Reading or language arts assessments for any student in U.S. schools for three or more consecutive years must be in English, with LEA discretion to make 1-year exception case-by-case (same as H.R. 2).
- Does not include Administration proposal to require States to use Spanish-language tests if they are more likely than English-language tests to yield accurate and reliable information on what students know and can do in subjects other than English.
- State plans also must describe how the SEA is working to end both social promotion and retention in grade, as well as efforts to provide extended learning time opportunities to low-performing students. Does not require States to adopt a detailed policy, as the Administration proposal would.
- No requirement under Sec. 1111 for annual report cards by States and LEAs (in Title IV instead, see analysis); no LEA-level parents right-to-know requirement related to qualifications of their children's teachers.
- Includes H.R. 2's requirement for "informed parental consent" prior to placement of limited English proficient students in "an English language assistance educational program." This provision is problematic for several reasons. It requires parental consent before placement of an LEP student in any English language instruction program, whether taught in the student's native language or not. Also, the provision nowhere explains what, if any, support for learning English a child will receive during the interim between the LEA's attempt to obtain consent and the parents' response. Children whose parents fail to respond (for whatever reason) would receive no support of any kind for learning English. Moreover, the parental consent requirement appears to have no exceptions; notably, it does not include H.R. 2's exception for

circumstances where school has made and documented "reasonable and substantial effort" to obtain parental consent. Overall, the burdens imposed by this requirement may cause districts to forgo using Title I funds to help LEP students learn English.

### School Choice

- Requires LEAs to provide students in any school identified for improvement with "an option to transfer to any other higher performing public school . . . not identified for school improvement" within 18 months of identifying a school for improvement. LEA must continue to offer choice for at least two years after the school is no longer identified for improvement. Allows Title I funds to be used for transportation.
- Requires public school choice programs to be consistent with State and local law, policy, and practice. H.R. 2 requires choice "unless such option to transfer is prohibited by State law, or local law, which includes school board-approved local educational agency policy."
- Does not include H.R. 2's Pupil Safety and Family Schools Choice program, which would permit Title I students who have been victims of a crime on school grounds, or who attend schools designated by the State as unsafe, to attend another public school or charter school selected by their parents.

### School Improvement

- Mostly the same as H.R. 2, including notification of parents of students in schools identified for school improvement and public school choice option for such students within 18 months of such identification.
- LEA approval of school improvement plans must be conditioned on inclusion of one or more specified corrective actions ("shall" vs. H.R. 2's "may").
- Mostly the same list of corrective actions as H.R. 2, except does not include withholding of funds from school or decreasing decisionmaking authority at the school level.
- Like H.R. 2, permits one-year delay of corrective action if failure to make AYP was "due to exceptional or uncontrollable circumstances."
- Requires State intervention, including additional corrective actions, if corrective action prescribed by LEA does not produce "sufficient progress in increased student performance" within one year after implementation.

### LEA Improvement

- Mostly same as H.R. 2, except for addition of explicit requirement for SEA review and approval of LEA improvement plans. Omits special rule in Administration bill and H.R. 2 permitting SEAs to remove from improvement status an LEA that makes progress toward State standards in 2 of 3 years following identification for improvement.

### State Support for Improvement

- Mostly the same as Administration bill and H.R. 2. Like H.R. 2, but not Administration bill, maintains current law alternative of providing assistance through IHEs, educational service agencies, or local consortia. Would permit SEA to seek approval of Secretary to use LEA portion of 2.5 percent reservation for State support efforts that are part of the State plan.

## Rewards and Recognition

- Does not include H.R. 2's Academic Achievement Awards program, which would let States reserve up to 30 percent of annual Part A appropriations increase to recognize and financially reward successful schools and teachers.

## Qualifications for Teachers

- Requires all teachers in the State, including those hired after enactment, be "fully qualified" by December 31, 2005 (instead of December 31, 2003, as H.R. would require). See analysis of Title II below for definition of "fully qualified." The Administration proposal would require that, within four years from enactment, 95 percent of all teachers in the State are certified or have a bachelor's degree and will become certified, and that 95 percent of high school teachers are teaching in field.
- Unlike H.R. 2 and the Administration proposal, exempts teachers in charter schools from this requirement if State law includes other qualifications for such teachers.

## Qualifications for Paraprofessionals

- Requires paraprofessionals hired with Title I funds more than one year after reauthorization to have (1) completed 60 hours of college credit-bearing courses, or (2) obtained at least an associate's degree, or (3) "met a rigorous standard of quality that demonstrates, through a formal assessment, knowledge of, and the ability to assist in, instructing, reading, writing, and mathematics." Paraprofessionals currently working and paraprofessionals hired within a year after reauthorization must meet these requirements within three years. These requirements do not apply to paraprofessionals who primarily serve as translators or who only conduct parental involvement activities. Nevertheless, all paraprofessionals must have a high school diploma or GED.
- Paraprofessionals may tutor; assist with classroom management; help in a computer lab, library, or media center; conduct parental involvement activities; and serve as translators. Unlike H.R. 2, does not include "to provide instructional services to students" in the list of responsibilities to which paraprofessionals may be assigned. Prohibits paraprofessionals from providing instructional services unless directly supervised by a fully qualified teacher and, in the area of reading, unless they have demonstrated through a State or local assessment the ability effectively to carry out reading instruction (H.R. 2 extends same requirement to math and writing instruction).
- An LEA may not use Title I funds to increase the number of Title I-funded paraprofessionals, unless it can show that all teachers in the LEA are fully qualified.

## Formula Allocations

- Changes the distribution of Title I formula funds by:
  - Adjusting the proportionate share of Title I funds allocated as Basic, Concentration, and Targeted Grants (with one distribution to be used for determining State amounts and another for determining within-State allocations).
  - Changing the Title I hold-harmless provisions (to provide a 100 percent hold-harmless for States and an 85 percent hold-harmless for LEAs).
  - Increasing Part A authorization to \$12 billion and determining Federal-to-State allocations by distributing 75 percent of appropriations over 1999 level through Targeted Grants formula.
  - Allocating, within States, 75 percent of funds to LEAs as Targeted Grants, 21.25 percent as Basic Grants, and 3.75 percent as Concentration Grants

- Basic Grants would receive the 1999 appropriation level plus 21.25 percent of any amount appropriated for LEA grants in excess of the 1999 level, and Concentration Grants would receive the 1999 appropriation level plus 3.75 percent of any amount appropriated for LEA grants in excess of the 1999 level.
- Maintains current law practice of limiting Puerto Rico's allocations by capping its average per-pupil expenditure amount used in determining grant awards. Administration bill would move Puerto Rico to parity with other States over five years. H.R. 2 would not provide parity, but would increase allocations to Puerto Rico as long as allocations to other States are not reduced.

#### Other formula provisions:

- Basic Grants and Concentration Grants: the same as Administration and H.R. 2 except does not include provision for allocating to counties.
- Targeted Grants: weighted child counts determined by percentage only, and no provision for allocating to counties.

#### Formula issues:

- No specific language allowing States to reserve up to 1 percent for administrative costs. (The bill specifies that 97.5 percent of funds would be allocated to LEAs and 2.5 percent would be used for accountability and school improvement). States will need a guaranteed source of funds for administrative costs. Without these funds the operation of the programs would become unfunded mandates.
- Technical problems in implementing formula:
  - For purposes of simulation, we are assuming that several phrases are drafting errors.
  - Page 91, Line 20, Section 112(a)(1) "based on population data for local educational agencies" is inconsistent with other provisions in 1124.
  - Page 93, Line 18, Section 1122(a)(2) provides for the SEA, not the Secretary, to determine the LEA allocations within States once the Secretary determines the State amount. This language is inconsistent with language in Section 1124(a)(2)(B) which gives States the flexibility to use alternative poverty data to redistribute ED-determined Title I LEA allocations for districts with fewer than 20,000 total residents.
  - A provision concerning State discretion in redistributing ED-determined LEA allocations for small school districts appears only in Section 1124 and seems to apply only to that section. This provision is not in Section 1124A (Concentration Grants) or Section 1125 (Targeted Grants) and does not appear to apply to those sections. Current law has this provision in Sections 1124, 1124A, and 1125.

#### Formula effects

The Lieberman bill would determine Title I, Part A State allocations by distributing 75 percent of appropriations over 1999 level through the Targeted Grants formula, with a statutory 100-percent hold harmless at the State level. Within States, 75 percent of funds would be allocated to LEAs as Targeted Grants, 21.25 percent as Basic Grants, and 3.75 percent as Concentration Grants. LEAs would be guaranteed 85 percent of prior-year allocations. A preliminary comparison of Title I LEA Grant allocations under current law and under the Lieberman proposal, using the fiscal year 2000 appropriations level of \$7.9 billion, suggests the follow effects:

#### State-Level Effects

- The reduced LEA hold-harmless (85 percent vs. 100 percent in current law) and the use of the Targeted Grants formula works to the advantage of States with large poor populations living in high-poverty school districts.
- Somewhat paradoxically, California loses money under the Lieberman formula. This is because all States compete for new money distributed through Targeted Grants (which has a zero hold-harmless base), whereas only States with initial allocations above their hold-harmless levels compete for additional Basic Grant funds under current law.
- Winners include DC (+1.5M or 6%), Florida (+\$15.5M or 4%), Georgia (+\$8.5M or 4%), New Mexico (+\$2.2M or 3%), New York (+\$22M or 3%), and Texas (+\$9.8M or 1.5%).
- Losers include Arizona (-\$4.4M or 3.5%), California (-\$7.5M or 1%), Indiana (-\$3M or 2.5%), Kansas (-\$1.5M or 3%), Massachusetts (-\$3.5M or 2.2%), Michigan (-\$9M or 2.6%), Missouri (-\$3.9M or 2.8%), New Jersey (-\$6.2M or 3.5%), Oklahoma (-\$2.4M or 2.4%), and Pennsylvania (-\$7.8M or 2.3%).

### Sub-State Effects

- The use of the Targeted Grants formula to distribute 75 percent of within-State LEA allocations favors large cities with high-poverty rates as well as some very poor rural areas.
- Because LEAs compete for funds only with other LEAs in their State once State allocations are determined, the Lieberman formula produces large, within-State distributional shifts from moderate-poverty districts to big cities and poor rural areas.
- This within-State competition can produce some striking inequities, such as Long Beach Unified losing \$3.1 million or 12% despite its 37% poverty rate, the 24<sup>th</sup> highest in the Nation. It suffers because Los Angeles, Fresno, Compton, and San Bernardino have even higher rates.
- By comparison, St. Paul, Minnesota, with a 26% poverty rate, gains \$1.2 million because there are few large cities in Minnesota with a higher poverty rate.

### Title I, Part D – Neglected, Delinquent, and Dropout Program

- Proposal fails to repeal the Title I, Part D, Subpart 2 program. The Subpart 2 program is too broad and diluted, providing services to at-risk students who are not institutionalized as well as to institutionalized youth.

### Rural Education Development Initiative

Authorizes \$125 million in grants to rural LEAs (not within a metropolitan statistical area) or small LEAs (no more than 800 students) with at least 20 percent of students from families below the poverty line. Distributes funds from the Department to States by formula (based on average daily attendance), and from States to LEAs either by formula (based on average daily attendance) or competitively. Allows the Department to hold a grant competition for eligible districts in States that choose not to participate in the program. Requires any LEA receiving a grant to match the grant 1-to-1 with non-federal cash or in-kind resources.

Requires applicants to specify annual, measurable performance goals, including goals for increasing student achievement and decreasing the achievement gap between minority and non-minority students and between poor and non-poor students. Requires each State to show how it will hold LEAs and schools accountable for meeting annual goals and how it will provide TA and take action against LEAs or schools that fail to meet goals for two consecutive years. At the end of the third year, the Secretary may give grants for the fourth and fifth year only to States that have met their annual goals for two consecutive years.

Six allowable uses of the funds: (1) educational technology; (2) professional development; (3) technical assistance; (4) teacher recruitment and retention; (5) parental involvement activities; and (6) academic enrichment programs. Requires States and districts receiving awards directly from the Department to report on uses of program funds and progress toward achieving the goals contained in the application.

- The validity of finding number (4)-- that small LEAs are unable to compete for the Department's competitive grants, is questionable. Data from the 21st Century Community Learning Centers, Bilingual Education, and Technology Innovation Challenge Grants programs seem to dispute that claim. For example, under the 21st Century Learning Centers program, 49 percent of the grants and 43 percent of the money have gone to rural districts. In the most recent competition, 61 percent of the grants went to rural areas.
- Under "Definitions," OMB defines the term "metropolitan statistical area" not the Secretary of Commerce. As "rural" is defined in the bill, districts that are not within an MSA but with a population of 25,000 or more and defined as urban would be eligible for an award if the district met the poverty threshold.
- Using "average daily attendance" data in the State allocation formula is problematic as those data are not as readily available to the Department as are school-age population data.
- None of the performance goals required of applicants are linked to the Title I accountability requirements. In addition, student achievement goals would not have to be measured using the tests required under Title I.
- Authorized uses of funds are very generic; they do not appear to address the specific needs of rural or small districts.

## **Title II – Teacher Quality, Professional Development, and Class Size Reduction**

Like the Administration bill, proposes to fold the Eisenhower Professional Development program and Goals 2000 together to send funds to States by formula, based 50 percent on each State's school-age population and 50 percent on its school-age population from families below the poverty line. Funds would support professional development tied to content areas and State standards and States would develop performance indicators to measure progress. States would use 10 percent of their allocations to award "Educator Partnership Grants" to partnerships between schools or LEAs and at least one of the following: an IHE, an educational service agency, a public or private nonprofit educational organization, or an entity from outside the traditional education arena (such as corporations and consulting firms). Requires all teachers to be fully certified by December 31, 2005. The Class Size Reduction language was not included in the draft provided for comment.

- Requires recipients to address both the professional development and teacher recruitment needs from a single funding source. As drafted, Section 2018 would require that an LEA use its funds for all of the following activities:
  - (1) support professional development (a) for teachers in reading, math, and science and (b) for teachers, principals, and administrators in developing skills to prepare students to meet challenging standards;
  - (2) provide professional development to enhance the ability of teachers and administrators to use technology more effectively to improve teaching and learning;
  - (3) recruit and retain fully qualified teachers and highly qualified principals in schools with high percentages of poor or low-achieving students; and
  - (4) recruit and retain fully qualified teachers and high-quality principals in schools with high concentrations of poor or low-achieving students through such activities as mentoring programs or providing financial incentives. (It is not clear why both (3) and (4) are necessary.)

- The authorization is not sufficient to allow districts to do all of the above activities well. In contrast, the Administration's ESEA reauthorization proposal has separate programs to address professional development for teachers (Teaching to High Standards) and teacher recruitment (Transition to Teaching) to help ensure that both needs are adequately addressed and are not forced to compete with each other for limited local funding.
- To be considered "fully qualified," an elementary school teacher hired after enactment of the Act must (1) have State certification or license, a bachelor's degree, and demonstrated knowledge and teaching skills in the areas he or she teaches, and (2) pass a "State-developed rigorous test for content...." An elementary school teacher hired before enactment need only have either (1) or (2). A secondary school teacher hired after enactment must (1) have State certification or license, plus a bachelor's degree in the subjects he or she is assigned to teach, and (2) pass a State-developed rigorous test in the academic subjects he or she is assigned to teach. Currently, a distinct minority of States are developing their own teacher competency tests for initial certification; the majority of States are using packaged assessments produced by test developers.
- It may be difficult for States and LEAs to report annually on all of the performance objectives in Section 2014.
- The Secretary is required to use a peer review process before approving State plans. However, the bill would also require the Secretary to approve any plan that meets the requirements of the law (i.e., regardless of the quality of the proposed activities or the rigor of the proposed goals). Thus, peer review would be a meaningless process.
- States should be required to get the Secretary's approval to make significant changes to the State plan. Otherwise, the Secretary's authority to approve or disapprove State plans is essentially eliminated.
- Section 2015 allows States to use a part of their allocation to support activities designed to increase the portability of teacher pensions and teacher certification or licensure among States. In contrast, the Department's proposal included a national activities authority to support reform efforts that cut across state boundaries.
- Section 2018 allows LEAs to use program funds to provide merit pay to improve the quality of the teaching force. There is no consensus about the benefits of the merit pay concept, whether it would work or if it would provide any substantive benefit. Some have argued that merit pay systems merely create competition among teachers and do little to raise the overall quality of the teaching force.
- Section 2019(b)(3) would require that any professional development activities funded under this part "be tied to scientifically-based research demonstrating the effectiveness of such activities in increasing student achievement...." Since few professional development activities demonstrate a causal relationship between the activities and increases in student achievement, it might be more appropriate to require that activities demonstrate improvements in instructional practices or increases in content knowledge.

### **Title III – Language Minority Students**

The bill would replace the discretionary grant programs authorized by Title VII of ESEA with a State formula program that allocates funds based on State and local shares of the Nation's limited English proficient students

- The bill would eliminate the Foreign Language Assistance program, which is designed to improve the quality of foreign language instruction in the United States and help the Nation compete in the world economy. Funds allocated to LEAs under the formula program could not be used for foreign language instruction.
- The bill would eliminate the Emergency Immigrant Education Program, which assists school districts with large numbers or recently arrived immigrant students provide appropriate services for these students

- The bill would allocate funds to States on the basis of shares of limited English proficient students as measured by the Census. However, Census data are only updated every ten years and the limited English proficient student is growing rapidly in many areas. Alternatively, the bill permits the Secretary to use State counts, but States use a variety of definitions and methods in counting limited English proficient students. Allocating funds on the basis of these counts would create an incentive to over-count.
- States would allocate funds to local educational agencies based on within-State shares of the limited English proficient population. This design suffers from many of the same problems described above for allocations to States. Further, unless the program were funded at something approaching the full authorized level (\$1 billion in 2001), it is unlikely that LEAs would receive enough funding to implement effective instructional programs for limited English proficient students.
- The bill makes no provision for grants to institutions of higher education to address the critical shortage of teachers trained to provide instruction to limited English proficient students.
- The bill makes no provision for funding national programs such as research, dissemination of information on serving these students, and the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. While research could be funded from the OERI budget, projects relating to limited English proficient students would be forced to compete for funds with other high-priority projects.

#### **Title IV – Public School Choice and Report Cards**

This Title would include, as parts A and B, the current authorities for the Magnet Schools and Charter Schools program, except that SEAs receiving Charter Schools grants would be required to use Title I accountability measures to determine adequate yearly progress. The Title also includes a new Public School Choice program authority (Part C) to make competitive awards to LEAs to develop local public school choice programs.

- The proposed Public School Choice program is not well defined. The proposal would authorize the Secretary to make competitive awards to LEAs to develop local public school choice programs. There is no provision for uses of funds, priorities, or application contents that would place the program within a broader context and serve to define the program.

#### **Report Cards (Part D)**

- Authorizes \$50 million to help States publish annual report cards for schools served under ESEA programs. Allocations to and within States are based on public school enrollment. States must allocate at least 90 percent of the funds to LEAs in FY 2001 and 95 percent thereafter.
- States would have to prepare and disseminate annual reports that would include information regarding: (1) student performance on statewide assessments in at least mathematics and reading or language arts, including a comparison with performance on the previous year's assessments, 3-year trend data, and information on students not tested; (2) student retention rates; (3) completion of advanced placement courses; (4) 4-year graduation rates; and (5) the qualifications of teachers and paraprofessionals. Student data must be disaggregated by gender, race, ethnicity, poverty, and LEP status.
- In addition to the data on student performance and the professional qualifications of teachers and paraprofessionals that States would report on, an LEA would have to compare the performance on statewide assessment of the students it served with other students in the State. Schools would have to compare the performance of the students they serve with the performance of students in other schools served by the same LEA and with the performance of students statewide.
- LEA reports also would include the number and percentage of schools identified for improvement (including 3-year trend data); schools would have to report if they had been identified for improvement.

- LEAs would be required, upon request, to provide parents with information on the professional qualifications of a student's classroom teacher and of any paraprofessional serving in the classroom.
- Title I schools would be required to provide parents with information on their child's performance on assessments required under Title I and would have to notify parents if their child is taught for two or more consecutive weeks by a substitute or unqualified teacher.
- It is unclear as to why the Report Cards provisions are included in the Public School Choice title instead of Title VII, Accountability.

#### **Title V – Impact Aid**

Keeps the program as authorized under the current statute. Fails to make any of the changes proposed under the Administration's reauthorization proposal, such as:

- Adjusting the Impact Aid formulas to make payments more accurately reflect the local share of the cost of educating federally connected students. It also does not include the provisions contained in the Administration's proposal that would repeal special authorizations that grant individual LEAs, that are identified either by name or unique characteristics, (1) eligibility even though they fail to meet the eligibility criteria or (2) large payment amounts that are not based on the payment formulas.
- Strengthening the language in current section 8004 to support Indian community participation in public schools that receive Impact Aid. The Administration's proposal would do this by requiring LEAs serving Indian children to carry out a program of family and community involvement required under Title I, through the Title IX Indian parent committees. The Administration's proposal also would clarify that section 8003 funds may be used to increase tribal and parental involvement in the education of Indian children.
- Targeting construction funds under current Section 8007 to LEAs in which 50 percent or more of the students live on Indian lands. These construction funds are currently provided to LEAs that (1) are predominantly Indian, (2) receive Payments for Heavily Impacted Districts, or (3) consist predominantly of students whose parents are in the uniformed services. Predominantly Indian LEAs have far greater need for school construction assistance than the other two types of LEAs that are eligible for these funds. The predominantly Indian LEAs have a poverty level of 45 percent compared to just 24 percent for LEAs receiving funds under Payments for Heavily Impacted Districts (Section 8003(f)). Furthermore the poverty level for LEAs with 50 percent or more students with a parent in the uniformed services is only 10 percent. The predominantly Indian districts also have the highest percentages of federally connected children and the least amount of local taxable property. In addition, the National Indian Impacted Schools Association reports that they each need \$6.9 million on average to bring their schools into good overall condition.

#### **Title VI – Innovative Strategies for Performance**

Authorizes \$2.7 billion in block grants to support education reform efforts in three broad areas: academic enrichment, safe and quality environments, and reform and innovation. Allocates 85 percent of funds to States based on Title I Basic formula, 15 percent to States based on Title I Concentration formula. To get the funds, States must develop an "education innovation partnership" consisting of the Governor, chief State school officer, LEA rep, CBO rep, parent rep, school principal, and teacher. They must also develop a 5-year plan with annual performance objectives. State plans must be peer reviewed before approval by the Secretary.

States may reserve 5 percent for administration; of the rest, 90 percent must go to LEAs by formula based on each LEA's Title I allocation, and 10 percent must go to LEAs competitively. To get formula funds (90 percent), LEAs must develop a plan that sets annual performance objectives with a mechanism for measurement and that describes how the LEA will hold schools accountable for meeting the objectives (no specifics here). LEAs receiving funds must provide a 15 percent match with non-federal cash or in-kind resources. LEAs may reserve 1 percent for

administrative costs. They must use the rest of the funds to create academic enrichment programs, to build safe and quality learning environments, and to develop "programs or policies that lead to systemic education reforms or innovations."

States must distribute 10 percent of the funds to LEAs competitively "to stimulate and support innovative education practices, including programs that require a 1 time infusion of funding" (e.g., comprehensive school reforms, longer school days or years, unconventional teacher mentoring programs, outreach programs to attract high-quality teachers, teacher portability initiatives, charter schools, alternative or transitional settings for violent or disruptive students). LEAs may reserve 3 percent of competitive funds for administrative costs.

- 21st c.
- This block grant program would appear to consolidate technology programs, safe and drug-free schools programs, and other national programs (Women's Education Equity Act, Title VI, Inexpensive Book Distribution, Arts in Education, Ellender Fellowships, Javits Gifted and Talented, National Writing Project, Civic Education, the Fund for the Improvement of Education, and other unfunded programs authorized by Title X of ESEA) into a block grant; though this is not explicitly stated in the bill. It appears to permit nearly any activity or priority related to educational improvement.
  - The list of allowable uses for formula funds is broad enough to allow LEAs to simply use their funds to purchase equipment and materials rather than implementing innovative reform programs. Also, the language "...to stimulate and support innovative education practices, including programs that require a one time infusion of funding..." contained in the competitive grant portion of the proposal would invite LEAs to use those grants for the purchase of equipment and materials.
  - The long list of allowable activities would make it nearly impossible, or at the very least complicated and burdensome, to achieve the proposal's stated purpose of accountability for performance.
  - Rather than moving toward a focus on supporting drug and violence prevention programs that research or evaluation provides evidence will be effective in preventing or reducing drug use, violence, delinquency, or disruptive behavior among youth, as proposed by the Administration, the bill would permit LEAs to use funds under the program for non-research-based programs that may do little to help create and maintain drug-free, safe, and orderly environments for learning in and around schools.
  - An "innovative partnership", rather than the SEA, would develop the State plan and performance objectives. The partnership appears to be more of a Governor-led commission, with membership based on broad-group representation. However, States would not need the Secretary's approval before making major changes to an approved State plan, which would essentially eliminate the Secretary's authority to approve State plans.
  - Sections 6005(a)(3)(a) and 6005(b)(2)(B) would allow States and districts to have "...program goals and objectives that are aligned with State content and student performance standards, or that create an enhanced learning environment..." Why either/or, why not both?

## Title VII – Accountability

Includes accountability provisions with both sanctions and rewards for meeting performance objectives. Also appears to provide for an FIE-like \$300 million authorization for discretionary Secretarial activities.

### Sanctions

- States that fail to meet "more than 1 set of performance objectives" after three years would lose 50 percent of their administrative funding for the affected program (covered programs include Part A of Title I, II, and III and all of Title VI).
- States failing to meet "only a single set of performance objectives" would lose 20-30 percent of their administrative funding, depending on the program involved (30 percent for Part A of Titles I or II, 20 percent for Part A of Title III or Title VI). After four years, sanctions would move beyond loss of

administrative funding to the withholding of 30 percent of Title VI program funds. It is unclear whether States could lose both administrative and program funding in a single year. The reduction in funding would continue until State meets performance objectives.

- States would be required to develop their own system for holding LEAs accountable for meeting performance objectives, including sanctions for low performance.
- Definition of "performance objectives" and how they would be established for covered programs is unclear.

### Rewards

- Authorizes \$200 million for a system of State and LEA rewards for exceeding State performance objectives, narrowing achievement gaps, and ensuring that all teachers are fully qualified. States would use 25 percent of their rewards for statewide improvement efforts and to help low-performing schools, and would subgrant 75 percent to LEAs. LEAs would use funds to reward schools, teachers, and principals or to implement district-wide improvement programs.

### Secretary's Activities

- Authorizes \$300 million for Secretarial discretionary activities such as supporting the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, training and technical assistance, promoting systemic education reform, dissemination of exemplary programs, gifted and talented education, and helping States develop standards and assessments for LEP students.
- Requires Secretary to reserve \$10 million for statewide literacy programs under Even Start.

## OVERVIEW OF LIEBERMAN ESEA PROPOSAL

### Title I—Student Performance

- Senator Lieberman's Title I contains many elements of our ESEA proposal, including
  - a strong insistence on single Statewide accountability systems, ~~the~~
  - our 2.5% reservation for turning around low-performing schools, and
  - our proposed provisions on testing LEP students.
- In some ways, the bill might provide for stronger and more coherent accountability than our own proposal, for example,
  - by holding States and LEAs accountable for teacher quality under Title I,
  - by strengthening the State role in improving low-performing schools, and
  - by disaggregating assessment data by poverty, race/ethnicity, and LEP status for accountability purposes.
- However, one aspect of the bill's accountability framework remains problematic. The bill defines adequate yearly progress (AYP) for States to mean that 90% of LEAs must meet AYP; it defines AYP for LEAs to mean that 100% of schools must meet AYP; and it requires schools to include 90% of students within each subgroup in the State assessment in order to make AYP. The 90% inclusion requirement for State assessments undermines the 100% inclusion requirement (i.e., *all* students must be tested) in current law and our proposal. Moreover, the AYP requirements for LEAs and States are so stringent that they will likely be meaningless and may drive States to lower standards.
- The bill targets funds to higher poverty LEAs slightly better than our proposal does.
- The bill nowhere requires public school choice. Where the bill allows LEAs to implement public school choice, it provides that no more than 10% of Title I, Part A funds may be used for transportation.
- The bill creates a new \$300 million mini-block grant program for small ( $\leq 800$  students) or rural LEAs that meet a poverty threshold (15% of students are poor). These funds would go to States by formula based on student population, and then from States to LEAs by a State-developed formula approved by the Secretary. The bill authorizes rather generic uses of funds with weak accountability.

### Title II—Teacher and Principal Quality, Professional Development, and Class Size

- Like our proposal, Senator Lieberman's Title II folds together the Eisenhower Professional Development program and Goals 2000 funds into a single funding stream to States based 50% on poverty and 50% on student population.

*THE VI?*

- The main concern is that the bill would allocate 85% of the funds to LEAs by a formula based 60% on poverty and 40% on student population, and would allocate 10% of the funds to LEAs competitively, with the remaining 5% reserved for State-level activities. Our proposal would reserve 10% for State-level activities and a small amount for State agencies for higher education, and would then allocate 50% of the remainder to LEAs by formula based on poverty and 50% to LEAs competitively. *W.D. What?*
- In addition, various State and local hold-harmless provisions serve to distort State and local allocations. *7.1*
- Senator Lieberman's bill contains the Class-Size Reduction language agreed to during the FY 2000 appropriations process. Compared to our ESEA proposal, this language is less aggressive in requiring funds to be spent on class size reduction as opposed to professional development. *8. not done? 11-7?*

### **Title III—Language Minority Students**

- The Lieberman bill would replace the discretionary grant programs for bilingual authorized under Title VII of current law with a formula program that allocates funds based on State and local shares of the Nation's LEP students. This formula approach
  - eliminates the Foreign Language Assistance Program, Emergency Immigrant Education Program, and various national programs (it is essentially a block grant),
  - suffers from difficulties related to counting LEP students, and
  - would provide many LEAs too little funds to implement effective instructional programs for LEP students unless the program were fully funded (at \$1 billion).
- An 85% State hold-harmless requirement serves to distort State allocations.
- Indian, Native Hawaiian, and Alaska Nation education programs remain basically unchanged from current law.

### **Title IV—Public School Choice**

- Much like Title V of our proposal, this title of the bill provides funds for Magnet Schools, Charter Schools, and OPTIONS (competitive grants to LEAs to develop public school choice programs).
- This title also provides \$50 million for State, LEA, and school report cards. Report cards would permit intradistrict comparisons across Title I and non-Title I schools, but would not permit interdistrict comparisons. *7. Title?*

### **Title V—Impact Aid**

- No change to current law.

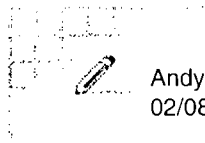
## Title VI—Innovative Strategies for Performance

- The bill authorizes \$2.7 billion in block grants to support three broad types of activities: academic enrichment, safe and supportive environments, and reform and innovation. Of these funds, 90% would be allocated to LEAs by Title I formula, and 10% would go to LEAs competitively.
- This title eliminates programs that are among the Administration's most popular and that have solid foundations in research, including
  - 21st Century Community Learning Centers, }
  - Reading Excellence programs, }
  - Safe and Drug Free Schools, and }
  - various technology initiatives.
- The block grant requires annual performance objectives at State and local levels, but does not prescribe how rigorous or focused those objectives must be and does not specify any framework for holding LEAs and schools accountable for meeting those objectives.

## Title VII—Accountability

- This title authorizes sanctions against States, including withholding administrative funds and reducing Title VI block grant funds, for failing to meet State-level performance objectives under the various titles (including Title VI).
- It also authorizes a \$200 million program to reward States that for three consecutive years make AYP under Title I, exceed performance objectives under any title, or narrow achievement gaps. It also rewards States that meet teacher quality requirements early or raise all students to the "proficient" standard in less than 10 years. States would use 25% of funds to help low-performing schools and to raise performance Statewide. States must allocate 75% of funds to LEAs to reward schools, teachers, or principals, or to implement district-wide improvement programs. The bill allows States to reward LEAs on basis of the same criteria as rewards to States or on the basis of any other criteria the State deems appropriate.
- This title also authorizes \$300 million for discretionary activities by the Secretary. This pot is flexible enough to ameliorate concerns that the block grant title would eliminate the Fund for the Improvement Education. }←

William



Andy Rotherham  
02/08/2000 01:10:26 PM

Record Type: Record

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cc: See the distribution list at the bottom of this message  
Subject: Internal q and a on Lieberman bill

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Lieberman Q&A.doc

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**Education Q&A  
Lieberman Bill  
February 8, 2000**

**Q:** Does the President/Administration support Senator Lieberman's Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) reauthorization proposal?

**A:** The President has put forward an ESEA reauthorization proposal that increases accountability while addressing key national priorities such as teacher quality, after-school programs, and reducing class size. The President is hopeful that the Congress will finish work on his proposal this year. Because Senator Lieberman has not formally introduced his bill yet and we have not seen it, we cannot make definitive statements about it.

**Q:** The Lieberman bill would consolidate a number of ESEA programs, increase targeting of federal dollars, increase public school choice, and includes fiscal sanctions and rewards for performance, what does the President/Administration think about these provisions?

**A:** Again, since we have not seen the bill in its final form it is difficult to comment; however, the President is a strong supporter of public school choice and increasing accountability in public education. In his State of the Union Address, the President again proposed giving rewards based on student performance to high performing states and states that close the achievement gap between different demographic groups. This proposal was part of the ESEA reauthorization bill that the President sent to Congress last spring. The President's bill emphasizes the importance of investing in what works and holding states and school districts accountable to achieve educational excellence for all children. Until we see Senator Lieberman's bill, it will be difficult to comment about specific program consolidation; however, the ESEA proposal the President sent to Congress addresses key national issues and the President strongly supports the programs in that proposal.

**Q: Is the President/Administration worried about a Democratic split on education?**

**A:** Democrats are united behind an agenda of raising standards, increasing investment in education, and increasing accountability in public education. We are confident that this agenda, which is supported by the American people, will continue to be a rallying point for Democrats, and in fact everyone, who wants to improve public education.

**Q: Would the President sign this bill if it were presented to him?**

**A:** Again, we haven't seen the bill in its final form—it hasn't even been introduced yet—so a question like that is extremely premature. The President is hopeful that Congress will act on his ESEA proposal in a bipartisan manner and send him an ESEA reauthorization that reflects his priorities and his proposal and is one that he can sign. As the President has said repeatedly, this year the American people expect progress on issues that they care about, education is clearly one

of these.

Q: Is the President concerned that Senator Lieberman's bill has been adopted by George W. Bush in the Presidential race against Vice President Al Gore?

A: Beyond proposing vouchers for private and parochial schools, Governor Bush laid out only the briefest sketch of his approach to federal education programs. Until he offers more detail and we have a chance to examine the Lieberman bill it would be difficult to compare them. What we know for sure is that Governor Bush supports the same failed Republican agenda of block grants and vouchers which is an agenda that Democrats, and the American people, have soundly rejected.



Mary I. Cassell

02/08/2000 03:14:26 PM

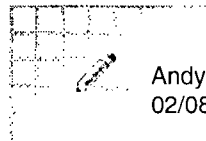
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cc: See the distribution list at the bottom of this message  
bcc:  
Subject: Re: Internal q and a on Lieberman bill 

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- 1) In the question on whether we support various provisions in the Lieberman bill, you should add that the Administration has repeatedly and definitively been against block grants that are unfocused and that lack accountability.
- 2) In the question on whether the Administration supports the Lieberman bill, you should add that the Administration looks forward to working within the committee process in Congress to complete a strong ESEA reauthorization bill.

Andy Rotherham



Andy Rotherham  
02/08/2000 01:10:26 PM

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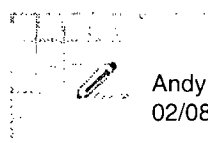
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Andy Rotherham  
02/08/2000 03:38:00 PM

Record Type: Record

To: Mary I. Cassell/OMB/EOP@EOP  
cc: See the distribution list at the bottom of this message  
bcc:  
Subject: Re: Internal q and a on Lieberman bill 

Mary those are good comments. It should go without saying that we oppose block grants; however, I think we should leave it at that. I don't think we want to get in a discussion of unfocused v. focused and what accountability would look like. We should keep it simple: we oppose block grants. Not, we oppose some kinds but others might be OK.

About your second comment, if that wasn't clear then it should be included to incorporate that we mean the committee when we refer to wanting Congress to act.

Thx.

AR

Mary I. Cassell



Mary I. Cassell

02/08/2000 03:14:26 PM

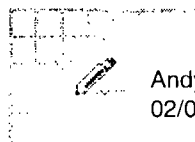
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