2009 State Teacher Policy Yearbook

Iowa

OVERALL GRADE

D

National Council on Teacher Quality
Acknowledgments

STATES

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

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

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Executive Summary

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

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

**Iowa at a Glance**

**Overall 2009 Yearbook Grade: D**

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<thead>
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<th>AREA GRADES:</th>
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</tr>
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<td>Area 1 Delivering Well Prepared Teachers</td>
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<td>D</td>
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<td>Area 4 Retaining Effective Teachers</td>
<td>C-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 5 Exiting Ineffective Teachers</td>
<td>D+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MAJOR POLICY STRENGTHS:**

- Maintains full authority to approve teacher preparation programs
- Requires induction for all new teachers
- Supports a performance pay initiative

**MAJOR POLICY WEAKNESSES:**

- Fails to make evidence of student learning the preponderant criterion in teacher evaluations
- Lacks an efficient termination process for ineffective teachers
- Offers a disingenuous alternate route
- Does not ensure that elementary teachers are well prepared to teach reading or mathematics
Area 1:  D

Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Iowa’s policies supporting the delivery of well-prepared teachers are in need of improvement. The state does require teacher candidates to pass a basic skills test prior to program admission, but it does not ensure that elementary teachers are provided with a broad liberal arts education. Elementary teacher preparation programs are not required to address the science of reading or provide mathematics content specifically geared to the needs of elementary teachers. The state does not require elementary candidates to pass a test of the science of reading or a rigorous mathematics assessment. Iowa is on the right track when it comes to coursework requirements for middle school teachers; however, the state does not require subject-matter testing. Therefore, middle school teachers in Iowa are not sufficiently prepared to teach appropriate grade-level content. The state also does not ensure that special education teachers are adequately prepared to teach content-area subject matter. Unfortunately, Iowa does not require new teachers to pass a pedagogy test to attain licensure. The state relies on some objective, meaningful data, but it does not hold preparation programs accountable for the quality of teachers they produce. It has, however, retained full authority over its program approval process. Further, Iowa lacks any policy that ensures efficient preparation of teacher candidates in terms of the professional coursework that may be required.

Area 2:  D

Expanding the Pool of Teachers

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

Area 3:  D

Identifying Effective Teachers

Iowa’s efforts to identify effective teachers are in need of improvement. The state only has two of the three necessary elements for the development of a student- and teacher-level longitudinal data system. Although Iowa does consider student performance in teacher evaluations, it fails to require evidence of student learning to be the preponderant criterion. The state also fails to require multiple evaluations for new teachers or annual evaluations for nonprobationary teachers. In addition, the probationary period for new teachers in Iowa is just three years, and the state does not ensure that cumulative teacher effectiveness is the preponderant criterion in tenure decisions. Iowa is on the right track when it comes to basing its licensure requirements on evidence of teacher effectiveness; however, the state does not report any school-level data that can help support the equitable distribution of teacher talent.
**Area 4: C-**

*Retaining Effective Teachers*

Iowa requires that all new teachers receive mentoring. The state gives districts authority for how teachers are paid, and it supports differential pay for teachers working in shortage subject areas as well as performance pay, but Iowa’s other policies regarding teacher compensation need improvement. Iowa does not support retention bonuses, compensation for relevant prior work experience or differential pay for teachers working in high-needs schools. In addition, the state’s pension system is not currently financially sustainable. Iowa only provides a defined benefit pension plan for teachers, and its pension policies are not portable, flexible or fair to all workers. Further, retirement benefits are determined by a formula that is not neutral, meaning that pension wealth does not accumulate uniformly for each year a teacher works.

**Area 5: D+**

*Exiting Ineffective Teachers*

Iowa has adopted subject-matter requirements only for elementary teachers, and it allows new teachers who have not passed licensing tests to teach on its nonrenewable teaching license for up to one year. Although it requires improvement plans for teachers who receive unsatisfactory evaluations, the state does not address whether subsequent negative evaluations would make a teacher eligible for dismissal. Regrettably, Iowa allows tenured teachers who are terminated for poor performance to appeal multiple times, and it fails to distinguish due process rights for teachers dismissed for ineffective performance from those facing license revocation for dereliction of duty or felony and/or morality violations.
About the 2009 Yearbook

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Sincerely,

Kate Walsh, President
Goals

AREA 1: DELIVERING WELL PREPARED TEACHERS

1-A: Admission into Preparation Programs
The state should require undergraduate teacher preparation programs to administer a basic skills test as a criterion for admission.

1-B: Elementary Teacher Preparation
The state should ensure that its teacher preparation programs provide elementary teachers with a broad liberal arts education.

1-C: Teacher Preparation in Reading Instruction
The state should ensure that new elementary teachers know the science of reading instruction.

1-D: Teacher Preparation in Mathematics
The state should ensure that new elementary teachers have sufficient knowledge of mathematics content.

1-E: Middle School Teacher Preparation
The state should ensure that middle school teachers are sufficiently prepared to teach appropriate grade-level content.

1-F: Special Education Teacher Preparation
The state should ensure that special education teachers are prepared to teach content-area subject matter.

1-G: Assessing Professional Knowledge
The state should use a licensing test to verify that all new teachers meet its professional standards.

1-H: Teacher Preparation Program Accountability
The state’s approval process for teacher preparation programs should hold programs accountable for the quality of the teachers they produce.

1-I: State Authority for Program Approval
The state should retain full authority over its process for approving teacher preparation programs.

1-J: Balancing Professional Coursework
The state should ensure that teacher preparation programs provide an efficient and balanced program of study.

AREA 2: EXPANDING THE POOL OF TEACHERS

2-A: Alternate Route Eligibility
The state should require alternate route programs to exceed the admission requirements of traditional preparation programs while also being flexible to the needs of nontraditional candidates.

2-B: Alternate Route Preparation
The state should ensure that its alternate routes provide streamlined preparation that is relevant to the immediate needs of new teachers.

2-C: Alternate Route Usage and Providers
The state should provide an alternate route that is free from regulatory obstacles that inappropriately limit its usage and providers.

2-D: Alternate Route Program Accountability
The state should ensure that its approval process for alternate route programs holds them accountable for the performance of their teachers.

2-E: Licensure Reciprocity
The state should help to make teacher licenses fully portable among states, with appropriate safeguards.
Goals

AREA 3: IDENTIFYING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

3-A: State Data Systems
The state should develop a data system that contributes some of the evidence needed to assess teacher effectiveness.

3-B: Evaluation of Effectiveness
The state should require instructional effectiveness to be the preponderant criterion of any teacher evaluation.

3-C: Frequency of Evaluations
The state should require annual evaluations of all teachers and multiple evaluations of all new teachers.

3-D: Tenure
The state should require that tenure decisions be meaningful.

3-E: Licensure Advancement
The state should ensure that licensure advancement is based on evidence of effectiveness.

3-F: Equitable Distribution
The state should contribute to the equitable distribution of teacher talent among schools in its districts by means of good reporting.

AREA 4: RETAINING EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

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

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

4-C: Retention Pay
The state should support retention pay, such as significant boosts in salary after tenure is awarded, for effective teachers.

4-D: Compensation for Prior Work Experience
The state should encourage districts to provide compensation for related prior subject-area work experience.

4-E: Differential Pay
The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in shortage and high-needs areas.

4-F: Performance Pay
The state should support performance pay, but in a manner that recognizes its infancy, appropriate uses and limitations.

4-G: Pension Sustainability
The state should ensure that excessive resources are not committed to funding teachers' pension systems.

4-H: Pension Flexibility
The state should ensure that pension systems are portable, flexible and fair to all teachers.

4-I: Pension Neutrality
The state should ensure that pension systems are neutral, uniformly increasing pension wealth with each additional year of work.

AREA 5: EXITING INEFFECTIVE TEACHERS

5-A: Licensure Loopholes
The state should close loopholes that allow teachers who have not met licensure requirements to continue teaching.

5-B: Unsatisfactory Evaluations
The state should articulate consequences for teachers with unsatisfactory evaluations, including specifying that teachers with multiple unsatisfactory evaluations are eligible for dismissal.

5-C: Dismissal for Poor Performance
The state should ensure that the process for terminating ineffective teachers is expedient and fair to all parties.

APPENDIX
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal A – Admission into Preparation Programs

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

Goal Components

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

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

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

- Screening candidates at program entry protects the public’s investment.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 1

How States are Faring in Admission Requirements

0 Best Practice States

7 States Meet Goal
Connecticut, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, West Virginia

7 States Nearly Meet Goal
Arkansas, Illinois, Missouri, Nebraska, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin

1 State Partly Meets Goal
IOWA

5 States Meet a Small Part of Goal
California, Florida, Kentucky, Oklahoma, Virginia

31 States Do Not Meet Goal
Area 1: Goal A | Iowa Analysis

State Partly Meets Goal

**ANALYSIS**
Iowa requires that approved undergraduate teacher preparation programs only accept teacher candidates who have passed a basic skills test. However, the state does not set the minimum score for this test. The state also does not allow teacher preparation programs to exempt candidates who demonstrate equivalent performance on a college entrance exam.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Code 256.16

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa meets this goal in part. The state should establish the minimum passing basic skills score for all of its teacher preparation programs. The state should also consider allowing programs to exempt from basic skills testing those candidates that submit comparable SAT or ACT scores, at a level set by the state.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 2
When do states test teacher candidates’ basic skills?

Figure 3
When do states test teacher candidates’ basic skills?

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

Goal B – Elementary Teacher Preparation

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should require that its approved teacher preparation programs deliver a comprehensive program of study in broad liberal arts coursework. An adequate curriculum is likely to require approximately 36 credit hours to ensure appropriate depth in the core subject areas of English, science, social studies and fine arts. (Mathematics preparation for elementary teachers is discussed in Goal 1-D.) An appropriate elementary teacher preparation program should be something like:

- three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of American literature;
- three credit hours (or standards to justify) of the technical aspects of good writing and grammar;
- three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of children’s literature;
- six credit hours (or standards to justify) of general science, covering basic topics in earth science, biology, physics, and chemistry;
- six credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of U.S. history and/or U.S. government;
- six credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of world history, including ancient history;
- three credit hours (or standards to justify) of world cultures and religion, including geography;
- three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of music appreciation; and
- three credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of art history.
2. The state should require elementary teacher candidates to complete a content specialization in an academic subject area. In addition to enhancing content knowledge, this requirement also ensures that prospective teachers have taken higher level academic coursework.

3. Arts and sciences faculty, rather than education faculty, should teach liberal arts coursework to teacher candidates.

4. The state should allow elementary teacher candidates to test out of specific coursework requirements, provided the test that is limited to a single particular subject area.

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

Supporting Research
- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Iowa relies on its coursework requirements for teacher preparation programs as the basis for articulating the subject-matter knowledge that elementary teacher candidates must have across all areas. Iowa requires that all teacher candidates complete a “core of liberal arts knowledge” consisting of an unspecified number of credit hours in humanities and social and natural science. These are sensible indicators of important curricular areas, but there is no guarantee that the courses used to meet these requirements will be relevant to the PK-6 classroom. There also appears to be no guarantee that arts and sciences faculty will teach liberal arts classes to teacher candidates or that a test-out option is available for candidates who may already have a strong background in one or more content areas.

Iowa’s elementary teacher candidates are also required to complete a subject-area major, but state language effectively mandates that this major consist mostly of education courses. The state requires elementary teacher candidates to complete coursework in:

- Methods and materials of teaching elementary language arts, elementary reading, elementary mathematics, elementary science and elementary social studies;
- Elementary curriculum (methods and materials); and
- Children’s literature.

Elementary teacher candidates must also complete methods and materials in two of the following four areas:

- Methods and materials of teaching elementary health;
- Elementary physical education;
- Elementary art; or
- Elementary music.

Elementary teacher candidates are also required to complete a subject-matter specialization, in which the teacher “understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry and structure of the discipline(s) the practitioner teaches and creates learning experiences that make these aspects of subject matter meaningful for students.” The specialization must be evidenced by completion of a 30-semester-hour teaching major that minimally includes requirements for at least one of the basic endorsement areas.

In lieu of content standards for new teachers, Iowa requires that teacher preparation programs prepare elementary teacher candidates to teach to the state’s elementary student standards. While an important expectation for the state to articulate, it is quite hard to monitor or enforce, absent a licensing test that 1) is directly aligned to state student learning standards; and 2) reports teacher performance in each subject area, so that teachers cannot fail a subject area or two and still pass the test.

Finally, all new elementary teachers in Iowa must pass a general subject-matter test, the Praxis II. While this test is aligned with NCLB’s requirements that all elementary teachers take a test of broad subject matter, this commercial test is aligned with only the more ambiguous state standards. More importantly, it does not report teacher performance in each subject area, meaning that it is possible to pass the test and still fail some subject areas, especially given low state cut scores.

**Supporting Research**

IAC 282-13.26(4) and 281-79.14(2)

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

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 5
What subjects does Iowa expect elementary teachers to know?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGLISH</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Literature</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World/British Literature</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing/Grammar Composition</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Literature</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>SCIENCE</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Chemistry</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Physical Science</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earth Science</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biology/Life Science</td>
<td>X</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<th>SOCIAL STUDIES</th>
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<td>American History I</td>
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<td>American History II</td>
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<td>American Government</td>
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</tr>
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<td>World History (Ancient)</td>
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<tr>
<td>World History (Modern)</td>
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<tr>
<td>World History (Non Western)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>X</td>
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<table>
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<tbody>
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<td>Art History</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

☑️ State requirements mention subject
🌟 State requirements cover subject in depth
❌ State does not require subject
Figure 6
Do states expect elementary teachers to know core content?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>State requirements mention subject</th>
<th>State requirements cover subject in depth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><strong>ENGLISH</strong></td>
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<td>World/British Literature</td>
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<td>Writing/Grammar/Composition</td>
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<td>Children’s Literature</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Physics</td>
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<td>General Physical Science</td>
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<tr>
<td>Earth Science</td>
<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Biology/Life Science</td>
<td>36</td>
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<td><strong>SOCIAL STUDIES</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 7

Do states expect elementary teachers to complete an academic concentration?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic major required</th>
<th>Minor or concentration required</th>
<th>Not required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1  California, Colorado, Connecticut, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, New Jersey, New Mexico, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia.

2  Mississippi, New Hampshire. Mississippi requires two content concentrations.

3  Although Iowa requires a subject-area major, it consists mostly of education courses.

4  Michigan also allows a group major with a minor, or three minors.
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal C – Teacher Preparation in Reading Instruction

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

Goal Components

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

1. To ensure that teacher preparation programs adequately prepare candidates in the science of reading, the state should require that these programs train teachers in the five instructional components shown by scientifically based reading research to be essential to teaching children to read.

2. The most flexible and effective way of achieving this crucial goal is by requiring that new teachers pass a rigorous test of reading instruction in order to attain licensure. Most current tests of pedagogy and reading instruction allow teachers to pass without knowing the science of reading instruction. If a state elects to test knowledge of reading instruction on a general test of pedagogy or elementary content, it should require that the testing company report a subscore clearly revealing the candidates’ knowledge in the science of reading. Elementary teachers who do not possess the minimum knowledge needed should not be eligible for a teaching license.

Rationale

► See appendix for detailed rationale.

Reading science has identified five components of effective instruction.

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

Supporting Research

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

Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
**Figure 9**

Do states ensure elementary teachers know the science of reading?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Preparation Requirements</th>
<th>Testing Requirements</th>
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Total: 25 1 25 5 10 36
Examples of Best Practice

Connecticut, Massachusetts and Virginia presently require preparation programs for elementary teacher candidates to address the science of reading. All three states also require candidates to pass comprehensive assessments that specifically test the five elements of instruction: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and comprehension.
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal D – Teacher Preparation in Mathematics

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should require teacher preparation programs to deliver mathematics content of appropriate breadth and depth to elementary teacher candidates. This content should be specific to the needs of the elementary teacher (i.e., foundations, algebra and geometry, with some statistics).

2. The state should require elementary teacher candidates to pass a rigorous test of mathematics content in order to attain licensure. Such test can also be used to test out of content requirements. Elementary teachers who do not possess the minimum knowledge needed should not be eligible for a teaching license.

Rationale

► See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 12

How States are Faring in Preparing Teachers to Teach Math

1 Best Practice State
Massachusetts

0 States Meet Goal

0 States Nearly Meet Goal

3 States Partly Meet Goal
California, Florida, New Mexico

33 States Meet a Small Part of Goal

14 States Do Not Meet Goal
Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, IOWA, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, West Virginia, Wisconsin
Area 1: Goal D **Iowa** Analysis

**ANALYSIS**
Iowa relies on its coursework requirements as the basis for articulating its requirements for the mathematics content knowledge of elementary teacher candidates. The state requires that all teacher candidates complete a "core of liberal arts knowledge" consisting of an unspecified number of credit hours in mathematics. However, Iowa stipulates neither the requisite content of these courses nor that they must meet the needs of elementary teachers.

Iowa also requires that teacher preparation programs prepare elementary teacher candidates to teach to the state’s elementary student curriculum. As discussed in Goal 1-B, this requirement is difficult for a state to monitor or enforce.

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

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Administrative Code 281-79.14(2)
www.ets.org/praxis
“No Common Denominator: The Preparation of Elementary Teachers in Mathematics by America’s Education Schools,” NCTQ, June 2008
http://www.nctq.org/p-publications/docs/nctq_ttmath_fullreport.pdf

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should require teacher preparation programs to provide mathematics content that is specifically geared to the needs of elementary teachers. This includes coursework in foundations, algebra and geometry, with some statistics. Iowa should also test requisite mathematics content with a rigorous assessment tool, such as the test Massachusetts recently adopted. Such tests could also be used to allow candidates to test out of coursework requirements. Teacher candidates who lack minimum mathematics knowledge should not be eligible for licensure.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

Massachusetts ensures that its elementary teachers have sufficient knowledge of mathematics content. As part of its general curriculum test, the state utilizes a separately scored mathematics subtest that covers topics specifically geared to the needs of elementary teachers.
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal E – Middle School Teacher Preparation

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should encourage middle school candidates who intend to teach multiple subjects to earn two minors in two core academic areas rather than a single major. Middle school candidates intending to teach a single subject area should earn a major in that area.

2. The state should not permit middle school teachers to teach on a generalist license, which does not differentiate between the preparation of middle school teachers and that of elementary teachers.

3. The state should require that new middle school teachers pass a test in every core academic area they intend to teach.

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 15

How States are Faring in Preparing Middle School Teachers

1. Best Practice State
   Georgia

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

12. States Nearly Meet Goal
   Alabama, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Indiana, Kansas, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia

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

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

10. States Do Not Meet Goal
    Alaska, California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Maine, Minnesota, Oregon, Washington, Wisconsin
ANALYSIS
Iowa requires a middle school endorsement (grades 5-8) for all middle school teachers. Candidates must already hold a valid license with either a general elementary endorsement or one of the subject-matter secondary level endorsements. They must also complete 12 semester hours in two content core subjects, which include language arts, science, social studies and mathematics.

Middle school teachers in Iowa are not required to pass a subject-matter test to attain licensure.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Administrative Code 282-13.27

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa meets this goal in part. Although the state is commended for not allowing middle school teachers to teach on a K-8 generalist license, it should allow middle school candidates who intend to teach a single subject to earn a major in that area. It should also consider increasing its current coursework requirement to 15 semester hours, considering that 12 semester hours is considered low for earning a minor. Finally, Iowa should require subject-matter testing for all middle school teacher candidates in every core academic area they intend to teach, as a condition of initial licensure.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. The state added that middle school candidates with a secondary endorsement (5-12) are required to earn a major in their content area(s).

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
IAC 13.27(272)
Examples of Best Practice

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

---

**Figure 16**

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

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<th>Yes</th>
<th>Under certain circumstances</th>
<th>No</th>
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</table>

1 May teach grades 7 and 8 on generalist license if in self-contained classroom
2 Generalist license is K-9
3 With the exception of mathematics
What academic preparation do states require for a middle school endorsement or license?

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Major or more</th>
<th>Major or two minors</th>
<th>Two minors</th>
<th>Less than a major</th>
<th>Loose requirements</th>
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1 State does not explicitly require two minors, but has equivalent requirements.
2 West Virginia elementary candidates need only one minor to teach middle grades.
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal F – Special Education Teacher Preparation

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should require that teacher preparation programs provide a broad liberal arts program of study to elementary special education candidates. All elementary special education candidates should have preparation in the content areas of math, science, English, social studies and fine arts and should be required to pass a subject-matter test for licensure.

2. The state should require that teacher preparation programs graduate secondary special education teacher candidates who are “highly qualified” in at least two subjects. The most efficient route for these candidates to become adequately prepared to teach multiple subjects may be to earn the equivalent of two subject-area minors and pass tests in those areas.

3. The state should customize a “HOUSSE” route for new secondary special education teachers to help them achieve highly qualified status in all the subjects they teach.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

- HQT requirements place unique challenges on secondary special education teachers.

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

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 1: Goal F  Iowa Analysis

**ANALYSIS**

Although better than those of most states, Iowa’s requirements do not ensure that special education teachers are prepared to teach content-area subject matter.

Teacher preparation programs in Iowa are not required to provide a broad liberal arts program to teacher candidates for elementary special education. The state requires that these candidates meet the same preparation requirements as all elementary candidates; however, it does not ensure that all prospective elementary teachers have appropriate subject-matter knowledge relevant to the elementary classroom (see Goal 1-B). Appropriately, special education teachers are required to pass the Praxis II general elementary subject-matter test.

Iowa also does not require that teacher candidates for secondary special education are “highly qualified” in at least two subject areas. However, the state’s dual-certification requirement (in which special education teachers must attain licensure in both special education and a specific subject area) does at least ensure that new secondary special education teachers are highly qualified in at least one core academic area. Regrettably, secondary teachers are not required to pass a subject-matter test as a condition of licensure.

Finally, Iowa does not have a unique HOUSSE route for new secondary special education teachers.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Iowa Administrative Code 282--14.1, -.2 and 13.28

www.ets.org

**RECOMMENDATION**

Iowa meets this goal in part. The state should require that all teacher candidates for elementary special education be well trained in relevant academic subject matter to guarantee that special education students, who deserve the opportunity to learn grade-level content, are not short-changed. Although Iowa’s requirement of the Praxis II subject-area test is not ideal (see Goal 1-B), the state is on the right track in requiring special education teachers to pass the same assessments as all other teachers.

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

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

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

Iowa asserted that it requires all elementary teacher candidates, including those for special education, to have a broad liberal arts education. In addition, the state contended that it does not have a unique HOUSSE route for new secondary special education teachers because all HOUSSE routes were discontinued based on recommendations by the federal government. Finally, it philosophically disagreed with NCTQ’s stance on this topic. “Iowa sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

**LAST WORD**

NCTQ’s “stance” on this topic is ensuring that special education teachers are well prepared. Achievement of all students, including special education students, appears to be a goal for the state, and Iowa should recognize that in order to achieve this, special education teachers must be adequately prepared to teach content areas.
Examples of Best Practice

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

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**Figure 20**
*Do states require subject-matter preparation for secondary special education teachers?*

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Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal G – Assessing Professional Knowledge

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

![Figure 21](image_url)

**Goal Components**

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

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

**Rationale**

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

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Iowa asserted that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ’s stance on this topic, and that the state “sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

It is unclear what Iowa finds philosophically disagreeable about requiring pedagogy tests. If the state is inferring that NCTQ believes pedagogical knowledge trumps subject matter preparation, then it is disregarding the many Yearbook goals that specifically address content knowledge.

Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should require that all new teachers pass a pedagogy test to verify that they meet professional standards.
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**Examples of Best Practice**

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

1 Not required until teacher advances from Level One to Level Two license.
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal H – Teacher Preparation Program Accountability

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should collect meaningful data about candidate pass rates on state licensing tests. This means collecting data beyond the pass rate of program completers. The state should require programs to report the percentage of teacher candidates who entered student teaching and who were able to pass state licensing tests.

2. In addition to better pass rate information, the state should create a more comprehensive index of program performance by collecting some or all of the following data:
   - Average raw scores of graduates on licensing tests, including basic skills, subject matter and professional knowledge tests;
   - Satisfaction ratings by school principals and teacher supervisors of programs’ student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison;
   - Evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching;
   - Academic achievement gains of graduates’ students averaged over the first three years of teaching; and
   - Five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession.

3. The state should also establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs must be held accountable for meeting these standards, and the state, after due process, should shut down programs that do not do so.

4. The state should produce and publish on its website an annual report card that shows all the data that the state collects on individual teacher preparation programs.

Figure 23

How States are Faring in Holding Preparation Programs Accountable

- **0** Best Practice States
- **0** States Meet Goal
- **6** States Nearly Meet Goal
  Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Michigan, Tennessee, Texas
- **7** States Partly Meet Goal
  Kentucky, Missouri, Nevada, New Jersey, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina
- **14** States Meet a Small Part of Goal
  Arizona, IOWA, Kansas, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia
- **24** States Do Not Meet Goal

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Analyze Iowa's response to the analysis of its teacher preparation programs. The state meets only a small part of the goal. Iowa relies on some objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of its teacher preparation programs. However, there is no evidence that the state's standards for program approval are resulting in greater accountability. In the past three years, only one program in the state has been identified as low-performing. In addition, Iowa's website does not include a report card that allows the public to review and compare program performance.

Supporting Research
Iowa Administrative Code 281-79.13(1)
Title II Report https://title2.ed.gov/title2dr/LowPerforming.asp

Recommendation
Iowa is helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis. The state added that it does not collect pass rate data. It also asserted that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ's stance on this topic, and that Iowa "sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality."

Last Word
It is unclear what Iowa finds philosophically disagreeable with the notion of holding its teacher preparation programs accountable. In order to support teacher quality in the classroom, the state should support basing the approval of preparation programs on objective evidence of graduates' effectiveness.
Do states hold teacher preparation programs accountable?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Collects Objective Program-Specific Data</th>
<th>Sets Minimum Standards for Performance</th>
<th>Makes Data Publicly Available on Website</th>
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Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 25
Which states collect meaningful data?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>States</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Raw Scores on Licensing Tests</td>
<td>Alabama, Louisiana, Michigan, New Jersey, Tennessee</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction Rating from Schools</td>
<td>Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, Texas, Virginia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evaluation Results for Program Graduates</td>
<td>Florida, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Vermont</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student Learning Gains¹</td>
<td>New Jersey, Tennessee, Texas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher Retention Rates</td>
<td>Missouri, New Jersey, Oregon, Texas</td>
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¹ Louisiana is piloting the use of value-added data that connects student achievement to teacher preparation programs, but not yet using the results for accountability purposes.
Area 1: Delivering Well Prepared Teachers

Goal I – State Authority for Program Approval

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

Figure 26

How States are Faring in Maintaining Authority for Program Approval

Goal Components

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

1. The state should not allow its teacher preparation programs to substitute national accreditation for state program approval.

2. The state should not require its teacher preparation programs to attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 1: Goal 1 Iowa Analysis

State Meets Goal

**ANALYSIS**
Iowa does not require its teacher preparation programs to attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval, nor does it allow them to substitute national accreditation for state program approval.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Administrative Code 281, Chapter 79

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa meets this goal. The state is commended for retaining full authority over its program approval process.

It should be noted, however, that NCATE reports that Iowa has delegated its program review to NCATE. Therefore, the state is urged to ensure that NCATE is providing programs with accurate information about program approval.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Administrative Code 281, Chapter 79

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 27
What is the relationship between state program approval and national accreditation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>National accreditation is required for state approval</th>
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Figure 28
What is the relationship between state program approval and national accreditation?

Figure 28
What is the relationship between state program approval and national accreditation?

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

2 West Virginia public preparation programs are required to attain national accreditation.
Area 1: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal J – Balancing Professional Coursework

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

Goal Components
(The factors considered in determining the states’ rating for the goal.)

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

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

- Most states have programs that demand excessive requirements.

- States need to monitor programs’ total professional coursework requirements.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 29

How States are Faring in Balancing Professional Coursework

- 0 Best Practice States
- 3 States Meet Goal
  - California, Tennessee, Virginia
- 1 State Nearly Meets Goal
  - New Jersey
- 0 States Partly Meet Goal
- 6 States Meet a Small Part of Goal
  - Colorado, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Texas, Vermont
- 41 States Do Not Meet Goal
Iowa requires teacher candidates to complete “coursework or evidence of competency” in the following areas: student learning, diverse learners, instructional planning, instructional strategies, classroom management, communication, assessment, foundations, reflection and professional development, collaboration, ethics and relationships, computer technology, pre-student teaching field experiences, methods of teaching and student teaching.

However, the state lacks any policy that monitors the number of credit hours that preparation programs actually require.

Regrettably, some of Iowa’s teacher preparation programs are indeed requiring excessive amounts of coursework. For example, elementary teacher candidates at the University of Northern Iowa must complete 59-61 credit hours in education and related professional coursework.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Administrative Code 282--13.18(4)
http://www.uni.edu/catalog/curriculumandinstruction.shtml#extended

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should adopt a policy that targets the tendency of preparation programs to require increasing amounts of professional coursework; policy that addresses only competency requirements does nothing to check this tendency. The state should encourage efficient delivery of content to teacher candidates and ensure that programs focus on preparation that will make teachers ultimately more effective in the classroom. Excessive coursework requirements do not leave room for electives or, in some cases, adequate subject-matter preparation. They may also discourage talented individuals from pursuing teaching careers.

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

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa contended that it monitors coursework requirements. The state added that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ’s stance on this topic. “Iowa sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

LAST WORD
It is unclear what Iowa finds philosophically disagreeable in this goal. If the state is exerting the effort to monitor coursework requirements, it should be doing so with an eye to creating a more balanced and efficient program of study for teacher candidates.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 31
Coursework that supports teacher effectiveness

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

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

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

Figure 30
Do states cap the amount of professional coursework programs can require?

Figure 32
Are states controlling program excesses?
Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal A – Alternate Route Eligibility

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

Goal Components

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

1. With some accommodation for work experience, alternate route programs should screen candidates for academic ability, such as requiring a minimum 2.75 overall college GPA.

2. All alternate route candidates, including elementary candidates and those having a major in their intended subject area, should be required to pass a subject-matter test.

3. Alternate route candidates lacking a major in the intended subject area should be able to demonstrate subject-matter knowledge by passing a test of sufficient rigor.

Rationale

▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

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

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

Supporting Research

▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
ANALYSIS
The admission requirements for Iowa’s alternate route do not exceed those of traditional preparation programs and lack flexibility for nontraditional candidates. Iowa offers an alternate route to certification through its Teacher Intern License.
Candidates must demonstrate prior academic performance with a cumulative GPA of at least 2.5. However, the state permits programs to provisionally admit candidates whose GPA is lower than 2.5, if they meet additional criteria selected by the program.
Candidates must meet the minimum coursework requirements (generally 24 credit hours) for endorsement in their subject area. A subject-matter test is not required and cannot be used to test out of the coursework requirements. Candidates must also possess a minimum of three years’ work experience and pass a basic skills test.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Administrative Code 281-77.11

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa meets only a small part of this goal. While the requirement of a minimum GPA is a first step toward ensuring that alternate route candidates are of good academic standing, the current standard of 2.5 does not serve as a sufficient indicator of selectivity. This standard is more in keeping with a requirement for teachers in traditional preparation programs. The state should require an indicator of above-average academic performance, such as a minimum 2.75 GPA. Some accommodation in this standard is appropriate for career changers.
The state should require all alternate route candidates to pass a subject-matter test. The concept behind the alternate route into teaching is that the nontraditional candidate is able to concentrate on acquiring professional knowledge and skills because he or she has strong subject-area knowledge. This must be demonstrated in advance of entering the classroom. Iowa should also consider allowing candidates to use the subject-area test to test out of coursework requirements.
Iowa’s requirement that alternate route candidates pass a basic skills test is impractical and ineffectual. Basic skills tests measure minimum competency—essentially those skills that a person should have acquired in middle school. Passage of a basic skills test provides no assurance that the candidate has the appropriate subject-matter knowledge needed for the classroom. Such tests should be used for admission into undergraduate teacher preparation programs. The state should eliminate the basic skills test requirement, or, at a minimum, accept the equivalent in SAT, ACT or GRE scores.
The state may also want to reconsider its work-experience requirement, as it may needlessly disqualify recent liberal arts graduates. Programs can use work experience as a factor in judging candidates, but making it a criterion for admission rules out potentially talented applicants.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. Iowa added that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ’s stance on this topic. “Iowa sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

LAST WORD
It is unclear what aspect of this goal Iowa finds philosophically disagreeable. Selectivity and flexibility for nontraditional candidates are important prerequisites for a high-quality alternate route.
**Examples of Best Practice**

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

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Figure 34

Are states’ alternate routes selective yet flexible?

1 Elementary candidates only
Figure 35
Do states require alternate routes to be selective?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No academic standard</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic standard too low</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic standard exceeds that of traditional programs</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No alternate route</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Figure 36
Do states ensure that alternate route teachers have subject matter knowledge?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject matter test required for admission</td>
<td>28</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insufficient testing requirements</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No alternate route</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Figure 37
Do states accommodate the nontraditional background of alternate route candidates?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test can be used in lieu of major or coursework requirements</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No major or coursework requirements</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major or coursework required with no test out option</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No alternate route</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. North Dakota
4. For elementary candidates only

1 North Dakota
Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal B – Alternate Route Preparation

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

Goal Components
(The factors considered in determining the states’ rating for the goal.)

1. The state should ensure that the number of credit hours it either requires or allows is manageable for the new teacher. Anything exceeding 12 credit hours of coursework (for which the teacher is required to physically attend a lecture or seminar) in the first year may be counterproductive, placing too great a burden on the teacher. This calculation is premised on no more than 6 credit hours in the summer, 3 in the fall and 3 in the spring.

2. The state should ensure that alternate route programs offer accelerated study not to exceed six courses (exclusive of any credit for mentoring) over the duration of the program. Programs should be no longer than two years, at which time the new teacher should be eligible for a standard certificate.

3. Any coursework requirements should target the immediate needs of the new teacher (e.g., seminars with other grade-level teachers, training in a particular curriculum, reading instruction and classroom management techniques).

4. The state should ensure that candidates have an opportunity to practice teach in a summer training program. Alternatively, the state can provide an intensive mentoring experience, beginning with a trained mentor assigned full-time to the new teacher for the first critical weeks of school and gradually reducing the amount of time. The state should support only induction strategies that can be effective even in a poorly managed school: intensive mentoring, seminars appropriate to grade level or subject area, a reduced teaching load and frequent release time to observe other teachers.

Rationale

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

Figure 38
How States are Faring in Alternate Route Preparation

- **0 Best Practice States**
- **4 States Meet Goal**
  Arkansas, Connecticut, Georgia, New Jersey
- **4 States Nearly Meet Goal**
  Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Virginia
- **14 States Partly Meet Goal**
  Alaska, California, Colorado, Delaware, IOWA, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, West Virginia
- **17 States Meet a Small Part of Goal**
- **12 States Do Not Meet Goal**
  Hawaii, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, Vermont, Wisconsin

- Induction support is especially important for alternate route teachers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

STATE PARTLY MEETS GOAL

ANALYSIS

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

Coursework requirements for the Iowa Teacher Intern program are set by the Board of Educational Examiners and include 12 semester hours to be completed prior to the beginning of the candidate’s initial employment. The coursework includes learning environment/classroom management, instructional planning, instructional strategies, student learning collaboration, ethics and relationships, diverse learners and assessment.

Candidates must take a minimum of four semester hours during the teacher internship year. Additional coursework of 12 semester hours must be completed prior to the recommendation for an initial teaching license. This coursework includes reflection, professional development, communication, exceptional learner, reading strategies and computer technology.

Candidates are required to participate in a field experience that provides “for interaction with students in an environment that supports learning in context.” The state requires 50 such contact hours prior to the beginning of initial employment.

Each candidate receives a district mentor to provide support and supervision. It is noteworthy that regulations mandate that programs “not overload the teacher intern with extracurricular duties not directly related to the teacher intern’s teaching assignment.”

Alternate route candidates are eligible for full certification upon program completion, which is usually two years.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

Iowa Administrative Code 281-77

RECOMMENDATION

Iowa meets this goal in part. Iowa should limit the number of courses it requires of new teachers. The state requires a significant amount of coursework before the candidate begins teaching, which may be problematic for a career changer.

Iowa should also provide more detailed mentoring guidelines to ensure that new teachers will receive the support they need to facilitate their success in the classroom. Effective strategies include practice teaching prior to starting to teach in the classroom, intensive mentoring with full classroom support in the first few weeks or months of school, a reduced teaching load and relief time to allow new teachers to observe experienced teachers during each school day.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. Iowa also asserted that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ’s stance on this topic. “Iowa sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

LAST WORD

It is unclear whether Iowa’s philosophical disagreement is with the idea of streamlined coursework or coursework that meets the immediate needs of new teachers. Both are essential to a high-quality alternate route.
Do states’ alternate routes provide streamlined preparation that meets the immediate needs of new teachers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Streamlined coursework</th>
<th>Relevant coursework</th>
<th>Reasonable program length</th>
<th>Practice teaching opportunity</th>
<th>Intensive support</th>
<th>No alternate route</th>
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14  9  24  16  12  1
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 40
Do states curb excessive coursework requirements?

Figure 41
Do states require mentoring of high quality and intensity?

---

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

2. Indiana, Montana, South Dakota, Wyoming

3. North Dakota

---

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

2. North Dakota
Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal C – Alternate Route Usage and Providers

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should not treat the alternate route as a program of last resort or restrict the availability of alternate routes to certain geographic areas, grades or subject areas.

2. The state should allow districts and nonprofit organizations other than institutions of higher education to operate alternate route programs.

3. The state should ensure that its alternate route has no requirements that would be difficult to meet for a provider that is not an institution of higher education. Such requirements include an approval process based on institutional accreditation or raining requirements articulated in only credit hours and not clock hours.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

Supporting Research

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

Figure 42

How States are Faring in Alternate Route Usage and Providers

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

**ANALYSIS**
Iowa limits the usage and providers of its alternate route.
Iowa’s alternate route can only be used for certification in secondary (5-12) teaching endorsement areas.
Iowa currently only certifies colleges and universities to offer alternate route programs. Coursework requirements are set out only in credit hours, effectively precluding non-higher education providers.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Administrative Code 282-13.9(272)

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa does not meet this goal. Iowa should reconsider the subject area and grade level restrictions on its alternate route. The state should allow new teachers to work across all grades, subjects and geographic areas.
The state should also encourage a diversity of providers, allowing school districts and nonprofit organizations to operate programs in addition to institutions of higher education.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. Iowa also asserted that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ’s stance on this topic. “Iowa sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

**LAST WORD**
While, as with many other goals, Iowa did not elaborate on its philosophical disagreement, NCTQ hypothesizes that the state believes it is appropriate to limit the usage of its alternate route. This stance implies the belief that alternate routes are a lesser certification option, acceptable only when there is not an adequate supply of traditionally prepared teachers. Unfortunately, this perspective prevents these routes from being a true alternative that creates another pipeline for talented, nontraditional candidates to enter the classroom.
Examples of Best Practice

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

![Figure 43: Are states’ alternate routes free from limitations?](image-url)

- Alabama
- Alaska
- Arizona
- Arkansas
- California
- Colorado
- Connecticut
- Delaware
- District of Columbia
- Florida
- Georgia
- Hawaii
- Idaho
- Illinois
- Indiana
- Iowa
- Kansas
- Kentucky
- Louisiana
- Maine
- Maryland
- Massachusetts
- Michigan
- Minnesota
- Mississippi
- Missouri
- Montana
- Nebraska
- Nevada
- New Hampshire
- New Jersey
- New Mexico
- New York
- North Carolina
- North Dakota
- Ohio
- Oklahoma
- Oregon
- Pennsylvania
- Rhode Island
- South Carolina
- South Dakota
- Tennessee
- Texas
- Utah
- Vermont
- Virginia
- Washington
- West Virginia
- Wisconsin
- Wyoming
Figure 44
Can alternate route teachers teach any subject or grade anywhere in the state?

Yes: 28
No: 22
No alternate route: 1

Figure 45
Are providers other than colleges or universities permitted?

Yes: 26
No: 24
No alternate route: 1

IOWA
## Do states provide real alternative pathways?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Genuine or nearly genuine alternate route</th>
<th>Alternate route that needs significant improvements</th>
<th>Offered route is disingenuous</th>
<th>No alternate route</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Alabama</td>
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**Figure 47**

Do states provide real alternative pathways?
Figure 48
What are the characteristics of states’ alternate routes?

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<th>State</th>
<th>Prerequisite of strong academic performance</th>
<th>Verification of subject matter</th>
<th>No major requirement or test can be used</th>
<th>Streamlined coursework</th>
<th>Relevant coursework</th>
<th>Reasonable program length</th>
<th>New teacher support</th>
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| States with 11 | States with 28 | States with 19 | States with 14 | States with 9 | States with 24 | States with 12 | States with 28 | States with 26 |
Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal D – Alternate Route Program Accountability

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

Goal Components
(The factors considered in determining the states’ rating for the goal.)

1. The state should collect some or all of the following data to create a more comprehensive index of program performance to hold alternate route programs accountable:
   - Average raw scores of graduates on licensing tests, including subject matter and professional knowledge tests;
   - Satisfaction ratings by school principals and teacher supervisors of programs’ student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison;
   - Evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching;
   - Academic achievement gains of graduates’ students averaged over the first three years of teaching; and
   - Five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession.

2. The state should also establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs must be held accountable for meeting these standards, and the state, after due process, should shut down programs that do not do so.

3. The state should produce and publish on its website an annual report card that shows all the data that the state collects on individual teacher preparation programs.

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Iowa should also post an annual report card on its website that details the data it collects for all programs, both alternate route and traditional, as well as the criteria used for program approval. This report card should also identify the programs that fail to meet these criteria and cite the reasons they failed.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.

ANALYSIS
Iowa relies on some objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of its alternate route programs. The state bases its program approval on program evaluations, which include follow-up studies of graduates. The state has not set any performance standards based on any measurable outcomes that alternate route programs must meet in order to receive state approval. In addition, Iowa does not post any data online, which would allow the public and prospective teachers to review and compare program performance.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Administrative Code 281-77.15

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa meets only a small part of this goal. The state should consider collecting more specific objective data to create a more comprehensive index of the performance of alternate route programs. NCTQ recommends the use of 1) graduates’ average raw scores on licensing tests (including subject-matter and professional knowledge tests); 2) satisfaction ratings (by principals and teacher supervisors) of programs’ student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison; 3) evaluation results from the first and/or second year of teaching; 4) academic achievement gains of students taught by the programs’ graduates, averaged over the first three years of teaching; and 5) five-year retention rates of graduates in the teaching profession. To hold these programs accountable, the state should then establish a minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs that do not meet the standard, after due process, should be shut down.
While no state earns a “best practice” designation for this goal, Louisiana comes the closest. Louisiana uses objective, meaningful data to measure the performance of its alternate route programs and posts this data annually on the state’s website. Louisiana is also well ahead of other states in setting standards for program performance and measuring each program according to those standards. Program scores are determined on the basis of a relatively complex rating formula. The state provides a system to reward programs that attain performance scores each year at an Exemplary or High Performing level. Teacher preparation programs that are rated as being At Risk for four years or that are designated as Low Performing and do not become Satisfactory within two years lose their state approval.

1 Louisiana is piloting the use of value-added data that connects student achievement to teacher preparation programs, but not yet using the results for accountability purposes.
Area 2: Expanding the Pool of Teachers

Goal E – Licensure Reciprocity

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should offer fully certified teachers moving from other states standard licenses, without using transcript analysis or recency requirements as a means of judging eligibility. The state can and should require evidence of good standing in previous employment.

2. The state should uphold its standards for all teachers by insisting that certified teachers coming from other states meet the incoming state’s testing requirements.

3. The state should accord the same license to teachers from other states who completed an approved alternate route program as it accords teachers prepared in a traditional preparation program.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Teachers with valid out-of-state certificates may be eligible for Iowa’s professional certificate. Applicants must have three years of experience and meet the state’s recency requirement of 160 days of teaching during the last five years. Transcripts are also required for all applicants. Because the state requires completion of an approved teacher preparation program, it appears to analyze transcripts to determine whether a teacher was prepared through a traditional or alternate route and whether additional coursework will be required. States that reach a determination about an applicant’s licensure status on the basis of the course titles listed on the applicant’s transcript may end up mistakenly equating the amount of required coursework with the teacher’s qualifications.

Out-of-state teachers lacking three years of experience must show completion of mandated tests from the state in which the applicant is currently licensed; however, they are then only eligible for the state’s initial license.

Finally, Iowa has yet to sign the NASDTEC (National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification) Interstate Agreement, which supports the portability of teacher licenses garnered both through traditional and alternate routes. While this agreement does not ensure that a state will provide unconditional reciprocity, it is, at the very least, symbolically important.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Requirements for Licenses http://www.iowa.gov/boee/forms/outstate.pdf
www.nasdtec.org

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should reconsider its recency requirement regarding experience, as it may deter talented teachers from applying for certification. In addition, transcript analysis is likely to result in additional coursework requirements, even for traditionally prepared teachers; alternate route teachers, on the other hand, may have to virtually begin anew, repeating some, most or all of a teacher preparation program in Iowa. Regardless of whether a teacher was prepared through a traditional or alternate route, all certified out-of-state teachers should receive equal treatment. State policies that discriminate against teachers who were prepared in an alternate route are not supported by evidence. In fact, a substantial body of research has failed to discern differences in effectiveness between alternate and traditional route teachers.

Unfortunately, Iowa requires subject-matter testing only for elementary teachers. The state should adopt subject-matter testing requirements whereby all teachers, without exception, must pass licensing tests within a year of hire. Iowa should then require out-of-state teachers to meet its standards.

Iowa should consider supporting the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement, which could make the state more welcoming to teachers from other states.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. The state added that it philosophically disagrees with NCTQ’s stance on this topic. “Iowa sets high standards for entering the teaching profession to help ensure high student achievement and teacher quality.”

**LAST WORD**
Unfortunately, the state chose not to elaborate on its philosophical disagreement. NCTQ maintains that states can both support licensure portability and uphold high standards.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 53
Do states require all out-of-state teachers to pass their licensure tests?

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

Figure 54
What do states require of teachers transferring from other states?

1 For traditionally-prepared teachers only
Do states treat out-of-state teachers the same whether they were prepared in a traditional or an alternate route program?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Treat teachers equally regardless of preparation</th>
<th>State specifies different minimum performance for traditional teachers</th>
<th>State has policies with the potential to create obstacles for alternate route teachers</th>
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Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal A – State Data Systems

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should establish a longitudinal data system with at least the following key components:
   - A unique statewide student identifier number that connects student data across key databases across years;
   - A unique teacher identifier system that can match individual teacher records with individual student records; and
   - An assessment system that can match individual student test records from year to year in order to measure academic growth.

2. Value-added data provided through the state’s longitudinal data system should be considered among the criteria used to determine teachers’ effectiveness.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 3: Goal A Iowa Analysis

State Meets a Small Part of Goal

ANALYSIS
Iowa does not have a data system that can be used to provide evidence of teacher effectiveness.

However, Iowa does have two of three necessary elements that would allow for the development of a student- and teacher-level longitudinal data system. The state has assigned unique student identifiers that connect student data across key databases across years. It also has the capacity to match student test records from year to year in order to measure student academic growth.

Although Iowa assigns teacher identification numbers, it cannot match individual teacher records with individual student records.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
www.dataqualitycampaign.org

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa meets only a small part of this goal. The state should be able to use its assigned teacher identifiers to match individual teacher records with individual student records, thereby enabling the development of value-added analysis. The state should also support the use of value-added data to provide part of the evidence of teacher effectiveness, particularly for decisions about granting teachers tenure. Value-added data are also important and necessary for local districts adopting performance pay plans to reliably measure individual teacher and overall school performance.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 57
Do states use value-added data as a criterion for assessing teacher effectiveness?

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

Figure 58
Do state data systems have the capacity to reliably assess teacher effectiveness?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Unique student identifier connects data across databases</th>
<th>Unique teacher identifier</th>
<th>Test records match over time</th>
<th>Individual student records match with teacher records</th>
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1 Nevada prohibits the use of value-added data in teacher evaluations.
2 New York prohibits the use of student-achievement data in teacher tenure decisions.
Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal B – Evaluation of Effectiveness

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should either require a common evaluation instrument in which evidence of student learning is the most significant criterion or should specifically require that student learning be the preponderant consideration in local evaluation processes. Evaluation instruments, whether state or locally developed, should be structured so as to preclude a teacher from receiving a satisfactory rating if found ineffective in the classroom.

2. Evaluation instruments should require classroom observations that focus on and document the effectiveness of instruction.

3. Teacher evaluations should consider objective evidence of student learning, including not only standardized test scores, but also classroom-based artifacts such as tests, quizzes and student work.

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

According to Iowa policy, local districts are responsible for the development of teacher evaluations, although the state provides some guidance. The state requires that district teacher evaluations take into consideration classroom observation as well as a review of teachers’ individual career development plans to determine whether teachers are meeting the state’s teaching standards. Although student achievement goals are tracked on their teacher evaluations, it does not appear that evidence of student learning is the _preponderant_ criterion on the evaluation.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Iowa Code 284.4; 284.6; 284.8

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**RECOMMENDATION**

Iowa meets this goal in part. Iowa is commended for including student performance as one of the measures on local districts’ teacher evaluation instruments. The state should consider modifying its policy to require districts to use evidence of student learning garnered through objective measures such as standardized test results, in addition to subjective measures, as the preponderant criterion of teacher evaluations. The state should also ensure that evaluation instruments do not permit teachers found ineffective in the classroom to receive satisfactory ratings.

---

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

Iowa had no comment on this goal.
Examples of Best Practice

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

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Table: Examples of Best Practice

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<th>State</th>
<th>Requires evaluation to include classroom observation</th>
<th>Requires objective measures of student learning</th>
<th>Requires evidence of student learning to be the preponderant criterion for teacher evaluation</th>
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Figure 60: Do states consider classroom effectiveness as part of teacher evaluations?

Figure 61: Sources of objective evidence of student learning

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

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

---

¹ Louisiana has an optional teacher evaluation system that does make explicit the need to include objective measures of student learning as part of the teacher evaluation.

² Minnesota has implemented an optional teacher evaluation system based on evidence of student learning as measured by classroom observations and objective measures, such as student achievement data.
**Figure 62**

**Do states direct how teachers should be evaluated?**

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<th>State</th>
<th>All districts must use state-developed instrument</th>
<th>Districts must use state-developed instrument or local equivalent approved by state</th>
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1 The state has no policy regarding any aspect of teacher evaluations.
Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal C – Frequency of Evaluations

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should require that all nonproba- tionary teachers receive a formal evaluation annually.

2. The state should require that all new, nonper- manent teachers receive a minimum of two formal evaluations annually. At least one evalua tion should occur during the first half of the school year.

Rationale

See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 3: Goal c  Iowa Analysis

**State Does Not Meet Goal**

**ANALYSIS**
Iowa does not address how often new teachers must be evaluated.

The state requires nonprobationary teachers to be evaluated at least once every three years.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Statute 284.3 and 284.8

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

Iowa should also require annual formal evaluations for all nonprobationary teachers.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 64
Do states require districts to evaluate all veteran teachers each year?

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1 Teachers in Alaska who exceed performance standards can waive annual evaluation; they are evaluated every two years.
2 Minnesota requires multiple evaluations per year for teachers who participate in the optional QCmp program.
3 North Carolina allows districts to grant waivers to its annual evaluation requirement.
4 Texas’s annual evaluation may be waived for teachers rated proficient on most recent evaluation.
Figure 66
How many times do states require districts to evaluate a new teacher during a school year?

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1 Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Washington, West Virginia
2 District of Columbia, Iowa, Maine, Mississippi, Montana, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont

Figure 67
Do states require districts to evaluate new teachers early in the school year?

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<tr>
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1 State requires multiple observations followed by post-observation conferences.
2 The state’s mentoring program requires multiple observations followed by formative feedback.
3 State requires two observations followed by post-observation conferences.
4 Only applies to first-year teachers
Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal D – Tenure

The state should require that tenure decisions be meaningful.

Goal Components

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

1. A teacher should be eligible for tenure after a certain number of years of service, but tenure should not be granted automatically at that juncture.

2. The state should articulate a process, such as a hearing, that local districts must administer in considering the evidence and deciding whether a teacher should receive tenure.

3. Evidence of effectiveness should be the preponderant criterion in tenure decisions.

4. The minimum years of service needed to achieve tenure should allow sufficient data to be accumulated on which to base tenure decisions; five years is the ideal minimum.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 3: Goal D  

**Iowa Analysis**

**State Meets a Small Part of Goal**

**ANALYSIS**

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

Iowa has a three-year probationary period for new teachers. Those who successfully complete the beginning-teacher program are eligible to become “career teachers” if they meet certain criteria, including having participated in teacher professional development and demonstrated of “continuous improvement in teaching.”

To become a “Career II” teacher, one must meet similar criteria and complete a performance review. “Advanced” teacher status requires additional qualifications, including the recommendation of a review panel assessing whether the teacher “possesses superior teaching skills.”

Teachers can only be promoted one career level at a time, and they must remain at that level before requesting promotion to the next career level.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Iowa Code 284.7 and 279.19

**RECOMMENDATION**

Iowa meets only a small part of this goal. The awarding of tenure is a milestone in every teacher’s career and should be afforded the respect it deserves, regardless of whether the state is bestowing a lifetime or limited-term position. The state should consider extending the minimum probationary period for tenure to five years, which would allow for the accumulation of sufficient data on teacher effectiveness to support meaningful tenure decisions.

NCTQ recognizes the state’s additional requirements to qualify as career, career II and advanced teachers. However, the state should require the consideration of additional, data-based evidence regarding cumulative teacher effectiveness, which should be the preponderant criterion in tenure decisions.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

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

### Examples of Best Practice

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

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

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2. The probationary period must not exceed two years.

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2. New teachers with three consecutive satisfactory evaluations may qualify for tenure after one year.
Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal E – Licensure Advancement

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should base advancement from a probationary to a nonprobationary license on evidence of classroom effectiveness.

2. The state should not require teachers to fulfill general, nonspecific coursework requirements to advance from a probationary to a nonprobationary license.

3. The state should not require teachers to have an advanced degree as a condition of professional licensure.

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 72

How States are Faring on Licensure Advancement

1. Best Practice State
   New Mexico

0. States Meet Goal

0. States Nearly Meet Goal

14. States Partly Meet Goal
   Arkansas, California, Indiana, IOWA, Kansas, Louisiana, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin

13. States Meet a Small Part of Goal
   Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Rhode Island

23. States Do Not Meet Goal
Area 3: Goal E Iowa Analysis

State Partly Meets Goal

**ANALYSIS**
In Iowa, to advance from an Initial license to a Standard license, teachers must complete a state-approved mentoring and induction program and meet state standards as determined by a comprehensive evaluation and two years’ successful teaching experience. They must also meet a recency requirement, meaning that teachers who have fewer than 160 days of experience during the five-year period preceding the date of application must complete recent credit in professional education or endorsement areas.

The state also offers a Master Educator’s license for teachers who meet a set of criteria including five years of experience and a master’s degree.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Administrative Code 282-13.7(272)

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa meets this goal in part. Iowa should require evidence of effectiveness to be a factor in determining whether teachers advance to the next licensure level. While the comprehensive evaluation is a step in the right direction, the state should consider additional requirements that base professional licensure on evidence of teacher effectiveness.

The state is commended for not requiring general, non-specific coursework or the completion of a master’s degree for certification advancement.

Also, although teachers are not required to advance to the Master Educator’s license, the state should reconsider its mandate of a master’s degree for advancement, as research is conclusive and emphatic that master’s degrees do not have any significant correlation to classroom performance. Rather, advancement should be based on evidence of teacher effectiveness.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
### Examples of Best Practice

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

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#### Figure 73
Do states require teachers to show evidence of effectiveness before conferring professional licensure?

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<th>State</th>
<th>No evidence of effectiveness</th>
<th>Some evidence of teacher performance</th>
<th>Preponderant evidence of effectiveness</th>
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#### Figure 74
Do states require teachers to earn advanced degrees before conferring professional licensure?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Yes, required for mandatory professional license</th>
<th>Required for optional advanced license</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
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</table>

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

2 Alabama, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia
Do states require teachers to take additional, nonspecific coursework before conferring professional licensure?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>28</td>
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</table>

Area 3: Identifying Effective Teachers

Goal F – Equitable Distribution

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

Goal Components

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

The state should make the following data publicly available:

1. An index for each school that includes factors associated with teacher quality, such as:
   - teachers’ average SAT or ACT scores;
   - the percentage of teachers failing basic skills licensure test at least once;
   - the percentage of teachers on emergency credentials;
   - average selectivity of teachers’ undergraduate colleges; and
   - the percentage of new teachers;

2. The percentage of highly qualified teachers, disaggregated both by individual school and by teaching area;

3. The annual teacher absenteeism rate reported for the previous three years, disaggregated by individual school;

4. The average teacher turnover rate for the previous three years, disaggregated by individual school, by district and by reasons that teachers leave.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 3: Goal F Iowa Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS

Comprehensive reporting may be the state’s most important role for ensuring the equitable distribution of teachers among schools. Iowa does not report school-level data that can help support the equitable distribution of teacher talent.

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

Iowa does report on the percentage of highly qualified teachers, but these data are reported only statewide, not at the district or school level. Iowa reports on the average years of teacher experience by district. The state is commended for reporting on disparities between percentage of highly qualified teachers by poverty level and minority population. Iowa’s Equity Plan, published in December 2006, reports on teacher retention rate for the previous three years, but there has been no update to these data.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH


RECOMMENDATION

Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should expand its data collection and reporting efforts to include other areas that would shine a light on the distribution of teachers both across and within districts. Individual school report cards should include an index of teacher quality with such data as teachers’ average SAT or ACT scores, the percentage of teachers failing basic skills licensure tests at least once, the percentage of teachers on emergency credentials, the selectivity of teachers’ undergraduate colleges and the percentage of new teachers. School report cards should also include the percentage of highly qualified teachers, rates of teacher absenteeism and teacher turnover rates. These data can be used to address issues of staff quality and stability. Providing comparative data for schools with similar poverty and minority populations would yield an even more comprehensive picture of gaps in the equitable distribution of teachers.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS

Iowa had no comment on this goal.

Figure 77

Does Iowa publicly report school-level data about teachers?

An index for each school that includes factors associated with teacher quality NO

Percentage of teachers on emergency credentials1 NO

Percentage of new teachers1 NO

Percentage of highly qualified teachers NO

Annual turnover rate NO

Teacher absenteeism rate NO

1 Ideally, percentage of new teachers and percentage of teachers on emergency credentials would be incorporated into a teacher quality index.
Examples of Best Practice

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Percentage of Teachers on Emergency Credentials</th>
<th>Percentage of New Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage of Highly Qualified Teachers</th>
<th>Annual Absenteeism Rate</th>
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Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal A – Induction

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should require that new teachers receive a high-quality mentoring experience.

2. The state should ensure that new teachers receive mentoring of sufficient frequency and duration, especially in the first critical weeks of school.

3. Mentors should be carefully selected based on evidence of their own classroom effectiveness and subject-matter expertise. Mentors should be trained, and their performance as mentors should be evaluated.

4. Induction programs should include only strategies that can be successfully implemented even in a poorly managed school. Such strategies include intensive mentoring, seminars appropriate to grade level or subject area, a reduced teaching load and frequent release time to observe other teachers.

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 79

How States are Faring on Induction

1. Best Practice State
   South Carolina

9. States Meet Goal
   Alabama, Arkansas, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, New Jersey, North Carolina, West Virginia

15. States Nearly Meet Goal
   California, Colorado, Delaware, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Utah, Virginia

10. States Partly Meet Goal
   Alaska, Arizona, Illinois, Maryland, New Mexico, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Washington, Wisconsin

7. States Meet a Small Part of Goal
   Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Texas

9. States Do Not Meet Goal
   Connecticut, District of Columbia, Georgia, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, Oregon, Vermont, Wyoming
Area 4: Goal A Iowa Analysis

**State Nearly Meets Goal**

**ANALYSIS**

Iowa requires mentoring for new teachers. According to the Iowa Mentoring and Induction Program, every new teacher in the first or second year of the profession will be assigned to a mentor to “observe, critique, and provide support and advice on effective teaching practices.” This program is intended to last two years, with the potential to be extended for a third year. The state has allocated $1,300 for each new teacher, $1,000 is paid to the mentor, and the remainder pays for related program costs.

Mentors must have at least four years of teaching experience and “demonstrated skills in classroom training and coaching.” Mentors received specialized training on district expectation.

The state does not address the issues of reducing teaching responsibilities or release time, or whether a mentor is expected to have similar experiences in grade level or subject matter as the new teacher.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Mentoring & Induction for Beginning Educators http://www.iowa.gov/educate/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1674&Itemid=2479

Iowa Code 284.5

**RECOMMENDATION**

Iowa nearly meets this goal. The state should require that mentors be trained in a content area or grade level similar to that of the new teacher, and the state should mandate a method for performance evaluation. It should also offer specifics on release time or reducing teacher responsibilities.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

Iowa noted that it does provide guidance on issues of release time and more in technical assistance on the state’s website.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**


**Figure 80**

Does Iowa policy articulate the elements of an effective induction program?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Iowa Policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring for all new teachers</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring of sufficient frequency and duration</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring provided at beginning of school year</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Careful selection of mentors</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentors must be trained</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentors must be evaluated</td>
<td>NO</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mentor is compensated</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of a variety of effective induction strategies</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 81

Do states have policies that articulate the elements of effective induction?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>No induction</th>
<th>Limited/Weak Induction</th>
<th>Strong Induction</th>
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<tbody>
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Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal B – Pay Scales

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

Goal Components

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

1. While the state may articulate teachers’ starting salaries, it should not require districts to adhere to a state-dictated salary schedule that sets minimum pay for every level.

2. The state should discourage districts from tying additional compensation to advanced degrees. The state should eliminate salary schedules that establish higher minimum salaries or other requirements to pay more to teachers with advanced degrees.

3. The state should discourage salary schedules that imply that teachers with the most experience are the most effective. The state should eliminate salary schedules that require that the highest steps on the pay scale be determined solely by seniority.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

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

State Partly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS
Iowa gives local districts the authority for pay scales, eliminating barriers such as state salary schedules and other regulations that control how districts pay teachers. The state mandates a minimum salary but allows districts to determine the remainder of the schedule.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Code 294A.5

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa meets this goal in part. Although the state is commended for not requiring districts to adhere to a state-dictated salary schedule, it should articulate policies that definitively discourage districts from tying compensation to advanced degrees or assuming teachers with the most experience are the most effective. Such policies would ensure that the highest steps on the pay scales are not determined solely by seniority.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 85
What role does the state play in deciding teacher pay rates?

Figure 84
What role does the state play in deciding teacher pay rates?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Sets minimum salary schedule</th>
<th>Sets minimum salary</th>
<th>Gives full authority to districts</th>
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17 9 25

1. Colorado gives districts option of a salary schedule, a performance pay policy or a combination of both.
2. Rhode Island requires that local district salary schedules are based on years of service, experience and training.
Figure 86
Do states require districts to pay more to teachers who have earned advanced degrees?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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Figure 86
1. If Colorado districts choose to have salary schedules, one variable must be teacher's education.
2. Idaho refers to "education index" in district-determined schedules.
3. Rhode Island requires local district salary schedules to include teacher "training."
Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal C – Retention Pay

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should encourage districts to provide a significant pay increase to teachers awarded tenure, provided tenure is based on sufficient data to determine effectiveness.

2. The state should not support longevity bonuses, which are awarded at the end of teachers’ careers and do not provide effective retention strategies.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

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

Examples of Best Practice

Unfortunately, NCTQ cannot highlight any state’s policy in this area.
Area 4: Goal C

Iowa Analysis

State Does Not Meet Goal

ANALYSIS
Iowa does not support retention pay for effective teachers, such as significant boosts in salary after tenure is awarded. The state sets a minimum salary for teachers, and then it is up to local districts to determine additional compensation.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Code 294A.5

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

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa asserted that offering retention pay for effective teachers is a decision made at the local level.

LAST WORD
While still leaving decisions about teacher pay to local districts, the state can encourage districts to connect salaries to meaningful tenure decisions.
Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal D – Compensation for Prior Work Experience

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

Goal Components

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

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

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
**Area 4: Goal D Iowa Analysis**

**State Does Not Meet Goal**

**ANALYSIS**
Iowa does not encourage local districts to provide compensation for related prior subject-area work experience. However, the state does not seem to have regulatory language blocking such strategies.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa noted that the state neither encourages nor discourages local districts to provide compensation for prior subject-area work experience and has no regulatory language against such policies.

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should encourage local school districts to compensate new teachers with relevant prior work experience through mechanisms such as starting these new teachers at an advanced step on the pay scale.
Examples of Best Practice

North Carolina compensates new teachers with relevant prior-work experience by awarding them one year of experience credit for every year of full-time work, after earning a bachelor's degree, that is related to their area of licensure and work assignment. One year of credit is awarded for every two years of work experience completed prior to earning a bachelor's degree.
Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal E – Differential Pay

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in shortage subject areas.

2. The state should support differential pay for effective teaching in high-needs schools.

3. The state should not have regulatory language that would block differential pay.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Iowa meets this goal in part. The state is commended for its differential pay initiatives for those teaching certain subjects. However, the state should consider developing such initiatives for teachers working in high-needs schools to link teacher compensation more closely to district and school needs and achieve a more equitable distribution of teachers.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa had no comment on this goal.
**Examples of Best Practice**

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

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1 Connecticut offers mortgage assistance and incentives to retired teachers.

2 Maryland offers tuition reimbursement for retraining in the areas of mathematics and science, if the teacher agrees to teach in the public school system for at least two years following certification. It also offers a stipend to alternative route candidates who agree to teach math, science, or special education in a public school for at least three years.

3 South Dakota offers scholarships and signing bonuses.
Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal F – Performance Pay

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should support performance pay efforts, rewarding teachers for their effectiveness in the classroom.

2. The state should allow districts flexibility to define the criteria for performance pay; however, the state should ensure that districts’ criteria are connected to evidence of student achievement.

3. Any performance pay plan should allow for the participation of all teachers, not just those with students who take standardized tests.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
**Area 4: Goal F Iowa Analysis**

**State Meets Goal**

**ANALYSIS**

Iowa supports performance pay. Teachers who “demonstrate superior performance in completing assigned duties” are eligible for salary increases. To determine superior performance, local districts may evaluate assessments of teaching performance and/or “assessment of other characteristics associated with effective teaching.”

The state does not allow performance-based pay plans to provide salary increases for completing additional duties, nor does it allow awards based on teachers’ attendance records or organizational memberships.

The amount of the award for effective performance is not addressed by the state.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Iowa Code 294A.14

Iowa Administrative Code 281-91.5 (294A)

**RECOMMENDATION**

Iowa meets this goal. The state is commended for recognizing performance pay and connecting it to student achievement, and for doing it in a manner that allows local districts the flexibility to define criteria by which it is awarded and enabling all teachers to participate, not just those with students who take standardized tests.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

Iowa had no comment on this goal.
**Examples of Best Practice**

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

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**Figure 93**

*Do states support performance pay?*

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<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Support performance pay</th>
<th>Does not support performance pay</th>
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**Figure 93**

1 Alaska, Ohio and South Dakota fund pilot programs.
2 California only offers incentives to teachers in under-achieving schools.
Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal G – Pension Sustainability

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should ensure that its pension system is financially sustainable. The system should not have excessive unfunded liabilities or an inappropriately long amortization period.

2. Mandatory employee and employer contribution rates should not be unreasonably high. Excessively high employee contribution rates reduce teachers’ paychecks, while excessive employer contributions commit district resources that could otherwise be spent on salaries or incentives.

Rationale

▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

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

Supporting Research

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

Figure 94

How States are Faring on Pension Sustainability

3 Best Practice States
Delaware, New York, Wisconsin

4 States Meet Goal
District of Columbia, North Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee

11 States Nearly Meet Goal
Florida, Idaho, Maryland, Nebraska, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Washington, Wyoming

16 States Partly Meet Goal
Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, Virginia

15 States Meet a Small Part of Goal
Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Mississippi, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, West Virginia

2 States Do Not Meet Goal
Indiana, New Mexico
Area 4: Goal G Iowa Analysis

**ANALYSIS**
As of June 30, 2008, the most recent date for which an actuarial valuation is available, Iowa’s pension system for teachers is 89.1 percent funded and has an infinite amortization period. This means that the plan’s current contributions will never pay off its unfunded liabilities. While its funding ratio meets the recommended minimum standard, the state’s system is not financially sustainable according to actuarial benchmarks.

Iowa does not commit excessive resources toward its teachers’ retirement system. The mandatory employee contribution rate to the defined benefit plan is 4.3 percent, and the current employer contribution rate is 6 percent. Both of these rates are reasonable, considering that teachers and local districts are also contributing 6.2 percent to Social Security.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
www.publicfundsurvey.org

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa meets this goal in part. The state needs to ensure that its pension system is financially sustainable. The state would be better off if its system had an amortization period of 30 years or less to allow more protection during financial downturns.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. However, the state noted that Iowa Public Employees’ Retirement System (IPERS) does have a funding policy to amortize over 30 years. IPERS has been working with the legislature and interest groups to address underfunding. The legislature had not adjusted the contribution rate since 1979 until approving an increase for FY2008.

**LAST WORD**
NCTQ commends Iowa for its efforts to move toward a 30-year amortization funding policy. A system based on an infinite period does not give its members, policymakers or the public accurate information on the financial health of the system.
### Pension Glossary

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Supplemental Retirement Plan:** An optional plan to which teachers may voluntarily make tax-deferred contributions in addition to their mandatory pension plans. Employees are usually able to choose their rate of contribution up to a maximum set by the IRS; some employers also make contributions. These plans are generally in the form of 401(k) programs.

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

Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 96
Are state pension systems financially sustainable?

Figure 97
Are state pension systems financially sustainable?

1 According to the most recent valuations, Ohio and Wyoming are 79 percent funded.
Figure 98

**Real Rate of Return**

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

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

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

![Figure 99](image-url)

**How well funded are state pension systems?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>&lt; 60%</th>
<th>60-79%</th>
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5 17 18 11
Analysts generally agree that workers in their 20’s with no previous retirement savings should save, in addition to Social Security contributions, about 10-15 percent of their gross income in order to be able to live during retirement on 80 percent of the salary they were earning when they retired. While the recommended savings rate varies with age and existing retirement savings, NCTQ has used this 10-15 percent benchmark as a reasonable rate for its analyses. To achieve a total savings of 10-15 percent, teacher and employer contributions should each be in the range of 4-7 percent. In states where teachers do not participate in Social Security, the total recommended retirement savings (teacher plus employer contributions) is about 12 percent higher, to compensate for the fact that these teachers will not have Social Security income when they retire. In order to achieve the appropriate level of total savings, teacher and employer contributions in these states should each be in the range of 10-13 percent.

Sources:

https://personal.vanguard.com/us/planningeducation/retirement/PEdRetInvHowMuchToSaveContent.jsp#early
**Figure 102**

*Do states require excessive contributions to their pension systems?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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**Figure 103**

*How much do state pension systems require teachers to contribute?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Employee contribution rate</th>
<th>Social Security (+6.2%)</th>
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¹ There is no employee contribution for income equal to and below $6,000.
² The rate is 3.4 percent of pay up to $15,000.
³ The rate is 3 percent until 10 years of service, after which there is no employee contribution.
⁴ The rate is 4.26 percent for the defined benefit plan. The rate varies for the defined contribution plan with a minimum of 5 percent.
Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers

Goal H – Pension Flexibility

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

Goal Components

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

1. Participants in the state’s pension system should have the option of a fully portable pension system as their primary pension plan. States may provide this through a defined contribution plan or a defined benefit plan that is formatted similar to a cash balance plan.

2. Participants in the state’s pension system should be vested no later than the third year of employment.

3. Defined benefit plans should offer the option of a lump-sum rollover to a personal retirement account upon employment termination. This option at minimum should include employee contributions and accrued interest at a fair interest rate. In addition, withdrawal options from either defined benefit or defined contribution plans should include funds contributed by the employer.

4. Defined benefit plans should allow participants to purchase time for unlimited previous teaching experience at the time of employment. Teachers should also be allowed to purchase time for all official leaves of absence, such as maternity and paternity leave.

Rationale

- See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

Supporting Research

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Nonvested teachers may only withdraw their account balance; they may not receive retirement benefits. Those who withdraw their funds when they stop teaching in Iowa only receive their contributions plus interest. This means that teachers who withdraw their funds accrue no benefits beyond what they might have earned had they simply put their contributions in basic savings accounts. Furthermore, teachers who remain in the field of education but enter another pension plan (such as in another state) will find it difficult to purchase the time equivalent to their prior employment in the new system because they are not entitled to any employer contribution.

Vesting is a key component of defined benefit plans because it guarantees a teacher’s eligibility to receive lifetime monthly benefit payments and be fully entitled to all other additional benefits. When vested teachers stop working in a particular system, they may leave their funds in the system and later receive benefits when they reach the defined retirement age, or they may withdraw some or all of the funds according to the plan’s guidelines. Iowa’s defined benefit plan vests at year four or when teachers reach age 55 while making contributions. Vested teachers in Iowa may withdraw their contributions and the accumulated interest, plus a percentage of employer contributions. The percentage of employer contributions is equal to a teacher’s number of service years divided by 30, and may not exceed 100 percent. (For example, teachers with 15 years of service may withdraw 50 percent of their employer contributions.)

While it is commendable that the state offers an employer match, this amounts to very little for teachers early in their careers.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
http://www.ipers.org/members/benefitinfo/members_regular/index.html
**RECOMMENDATION**

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

The state is commended for its generous policies related to the purchase of time. However, it should consider allowing teachers to purchase time on the first day of employment in the new school system.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis. Iowa added that many school districts also provide a 403(b) plan. These optional plans are portable and an important part of overall retirement savings. Also, someone who ends IPERS-covered employment before retirement may roll over the value of their IPERS account into other retirement plans.

Iowa also stated that teachers can return to work after retirement and continue to draw a pension. The pension system’s fastest growing membership segment is retirees returning to work. Data indicate that most who do so work part time. There is an earnings limitation of $30,000 for those younger than 65 who return to work with an IPERS-covered employer. Benefits are reduced $1 for every $2 in earnings above the limit. There is no limit for those 65 and older (although the limit from Social Security would still apply). Rules for temporary employees make it easier for districts to hire retired teachers as substitutes.

**LAST WORD**

Iowa may, like many other states, allow districts to provide optional defined contribution plans, but it remains the case that Iowa does not offer a defined contribution plan as an option for its teachers’ mandatory pension plans nor does it offer a statewide supplemental defined contribution plan.

The scope of NCTQ’s analysis does not include return-to-work programs. While these benefits may be advantages in certain defined benefit plans and provide a pool of experienced part-time employees, they do not alter the fundamental flaws of these plans in terms of flexibility and fairness. Furthermore, as described in the rationale of Goal 4-I, some return-to-work programs are only a temporary fix to a structural problem—retirement at an early age without reduction of benefits.
Figure 105

What type of pension systems do states offer teachers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Defined benefit plan only</th>
<th>Defined benefit plan with optional defined contribution</th>
<th>Hybrid plan</th>
<th>Choice of defined benefit or defined contribution plan</th>
<th>Defined contribution</th>
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</table>

1 A hybrid plan has components of both a defined benefit plan and a defined contribution plan.
2 Supplemental defined contribution plan also offered.
3 Ohio also offers the option of a hybrid plan.
4 Washington offers a choice between a defined benefit or hybrid plan.
Examples of Best Practice

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

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

![Bar chart showing the distribution of pension systems in states]

1 A hybrid plan has components of both a defined benefit plan and a defined contribution plan.
Figure 107
How many years before teachers vest?

IOWA

3 years or less 4 to 5 years 6 to 9 years 10 years

3 37 2 9

Figure 108
How many years before teachers vest?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>3 years or less</th>
<th>4 to 5 years</th>
<th>6 to 9 years</th>
<th>10 years</th>
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1 California offers a hybrid plan in which teachers vest immediately in the defined contribution component and vest in the defined benefit component after five years.

2 Florida’s defined benefit plan does not vest until year six; teachers vest in the state’s defined contribution plan after one year.

3 Ohio’s defined benefit plan does not vest until year five; teachers vest in the state’s defined contribution plan after one year.

4 Oregon offers a hybrid plan in which teachers vest immediately in the defined contribution component and vest in the defined benefit component after five years.

5 South Carolina’s defined benefit plan does not vest until year five; teachers vest immediately in the state’s defined contribution plan.

6 Based on Washington’s Plan 2. The state also offers a hybrid plan in which teachers vest immediately in the defined contribution component and vest in the defined benefit component after 10 years.
What funds do states permit teachers to withdraw from their defined benefit plans if they leave after five years?1

1 States’ withdrawal policies may vary depending on teachers’ years of service. Year five is used as a common point of comparison.

2 As of July 1, 2006, Alaska only offers a defined contribution plan to new members, which allows teachers leaving the system after five years to withdraw 100 percent of the employer contribution.

3 Since Florida teachers do not contribute to the defined benefit plan, the only funds participants could withdraw upon leaving are those made for special circumstances such as purchasing time. Florida also has a defined contribution plan, which allows teachers with at least one year of service who are leaving the system to withdraw 100 percent of the employer contribution.

4 Indiana teachers transferring to another governmental retirement plan may also withdraw the amount necessary to purchase creditable service in the new plan.

5 Most teachers in Nevada fund the system through salary reductions or forgoing pay raises, and thus do not have direct contributions to withdraw. The small minority that are in a contributory system may withdraw their contributions plus interest.

6 Ohio has two other pension plans. Ohio’s defined contribution plan allows teachers with at least one year of service who are leaving the system to withdraw 100 percent of the employer contribution. Exiting teachers with at least five years of experience in Ohio’s combination plan may withdraw their employee-funded defined contribution component, but must wait until age 50 to withdraw funds from the employer-funded defined benefit component.

7 Oregon only has a hybrid retirement plan, which allows exiting teachers to withdraw their contributions plus earnings from their defined contribution component; they still receive the employer-funded defined benefit payments at retirement age.

8 South Carolina also has a defined contribution plan, which allows exiting teachers to withdraw 100 percent of their contributions and employer contributions, plus interest.

9 Since Utah teachers do not contribute to the defined benefit plan, the only funds participants could withdraw upon leaving are those made for special circumstances such as purchasing time.

10 Washington also has a hybrid plan, which allows exiting teachers to withdraw their contributions plus earnings from their defined contribution component; they still receive the employer-funded defined benefit payments at retirement age.
Figure 110

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

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<tr>
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<th>Unlimited purchase permitted³</th>
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¹ Alaska only offers a defined contribution plan; purchase of time does not apply.
² Hawaii, Idaho, Minnesota, New York, Oregon and Tennessee.
³ Arizona, California, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Missouri, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah and Wisconsin.

Figure 111

Do states permit teachers to purchase time for leaves of absence?²

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<tr>
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¹ Alaska only offers a defined contribution plan; purchase of time does not apply.
³ Alabama, Arizona, Delaware, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Carolina and Utah.

Food For Thought

West Virginia’s Cautionary Tale

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

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

Defined contribution plans provide teachers flexibility in their retirement savings, but such plans are not without risk. States have a responsibility to educate teachers on their financial options and how to invest at different stages in life.
**Area 4: Retaining Effective Teachers**

**Goal I – Pension Neutrality**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure 112</th>
<th>How States are Faring on Pension Neutrality</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>★ 1</td>
<td>Best Practice State</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Alaska</td>
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<td>● 1</td>
<td>State Meets Goal</td>
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<td>Minnesota</td>
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<td>▫ 7</td>
<td>States Nearly Meet Goal</td>
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<td>Maine, Ohio, Oregon, South Carolina,</td>
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<td>Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin</td>
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<td>▫ 29</td>
<td>States Partly Meet Goal</td>
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<td>North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma,</td>
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<td>● 1</td>
<td>State Meets a Small Part of Goal</td>
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<td>○ 12</td>
<td>States Do Not Meet Goal</td>
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<td>Arizona, California, Connecticut, District</td>
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<td></td>
<td>of Columbia, IOWA, Kentucky, Massachusetts,</td>
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<td>Mississippi, Missouri, New York, Rhode</td>
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<td>Island, Wyoming</td>
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**Goal Components**

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

1. The formula that determines pension benefits should be neutral to the number of years worked. It should not have a multiplier that increases with years of service or longevity bonuses.

2. The formula for determining benefits should preserve incentives for teachers to continue working until conventional retirement ages. Eligibility for retirement benefits should be based on age and not years of service.

**Rationale**

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

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Teachers with 20 years of experience may retire at age 62. These provisions may encourage effective teachers to retire early, and they fail to treat equally those teachers who enter the system at a later age and give the same amount of service.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
http://www.ipers.org/members/benefitinfo/members_regular/index.html

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa does not meet this goal. The state should not only utilize a constant benefit multiplier, but it should also consider no longer basing retirement eligibility on years of service. These changes would result in a pension plan that treats all teachers more equitably, regardless of where they are in their careers.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.

---

Figure 113
Does pension wealth in Iowa accumulate uniformly for all teachers?

| Benefit formula is determined by a multiplier that does not change based on years of service | NO |
| Retirement eligibility is based on age, not years of service¹ | NO |

¹ This only refers to determining retirement eligibility, not retirement benefits
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 115
What kind of multiplier do states use to calculate retirement benefits?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Benefit Multiplier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>$0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>$0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
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<td>California</td>
<td>$310,028</td>
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<td>Indiana</td>
<td>$317,728</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>$321,326</td>
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<td>Kansas</td>
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<td>Oregon</td>
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<td>$416,007</td>
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<td>$430,013</td>
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<td>Texas</td>
<td>$443,421</td>
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<td>Michigan</td>
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<td>$499,973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
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<tr>
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<td>$520,009</td>
</tr>
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<td>Vermont</td>
<td>$520,655</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>$525,117</td>
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<td>Virginia</td>
<td>$531,068</td>
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<td>$551,428</td>
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<td>Idaho</td>
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<td>Hawaii</td>
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<td>Massachusetts</td>
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<td>Mississippi</td>
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<td>Pennsylvania</td>
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<td>Wyoming</td>
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<td>Arkansas</td>
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<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>$791,679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>$834,090</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 114
How much do states pay for each teacher that retires with unreduced benefits at an early age?

1 Alaska has a defined contribution plan, which does not have a benefit multiplier.
2 Does not apply to Alaska’s defined contribution plan.
3 Minnesota provides unreduced retirement benefits at the age of full Social Security benefits or age 66, whichever comes first.
4 Massachusetts’s formula has many options for retirement. A teacher with 35 years of experience at age 57 would reach the maximum benefit.
5 Applies only to Ohio’s defined benefit plan.
Area 5: Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Goal A – Licensure Loopholes

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

Goal Components
(The factors considered in determining the states’ rating for the goal.)

1. Under no circumstances should a state award a standard license to a teacher who has not passed all required licensing tests.

2. If a state finds it necessary to confer conditional or provisional licenses under limited and exceptional circumstances to teachers who have not passed the required tests, the state should ensure that requirements are met within one year.

Rationale

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

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

Figure 116

How States are Faring on Closing Licensure Loopholes

3 Best Practice States
Colorado, Mississippi, New Jersey

6 States Meet Goal
Arizona, Illinois, Nevada, New Mexico, South Carolina, Virginia

9 States Nearly Meet Goal
Alabama, Arkansas, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Georgia, Massachusetts, North Dakota, Ohio, West Virginia

2 States Partly Meet Goal
IOWA, Wyoming

3 States Meet a Small Part of Goal
Michigan, Vermont, Wisconsin

28 States Do Not Meet Goal
Iowa allows a one-year, nonrenewable teaching license to new teachers who have not met state requirements if a school needs such teachers to fill positions under "unique needs circumstances." The state has adopted subject-matter testing requirements only for elementary teachers.

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Iowa Administrative Bulletin 282-18.7

Iowa Requirements for License
http://www.boee.iowa.gov/require.html

**RECOMMENDATION**

Iowa meets this goal in part. As for the state’s policy and its effect on new elementary school teachers who have not passed their subject-matter tests, the state should ensure that all teachers pass all required licensure tests before they enter the classroom. Exceptions place students at risk of having teachers who lack sufficient or appropriate subject-matter knowledge. If, under limited and exceptional circumstances, such conditional or provisional licenses are deemed necessary, the state should allow only one additional year for teachers to meet testing requirements. Although the state’s policy does minimize this risk by granting only a non-renewable, one-year license to teachers who have not passed all tests, the state should prevent any teachers who have not met licensure requirements from being in classrooms. Even more importantly, the state should adopt subject-matter testing requirements for all new teachers, not just those in elementary schools, and require that these teachers pass those tests in their first year of teaching.

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**

Iowa had no comment on this goal.
**Examples of Best Practice**

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

---

**Figure 117**

**Do states still award emergency licenses?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Emergency or Provisional License</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>Renewable emergency or provisional licenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>Nonrenewable emergency or provisional licenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>Nonrenewable emergency or provisional licenses</td>
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<td>Arkansas</td>
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<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>Nonrenewable emergency or provisional licenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>Nonrenewable emergency or provisional licenses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1 Not applicable to Montana or Nebraska, which do not require subject-matter testing.
2 Arizona, Colorado, Illinois, Mississippi, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, South Carolina, Virginia
3 Hawaii, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Wisconsin

---

**Figure 118**

**How long can new teachers practice without passing licensing tests?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>No Deferral</th>
<th>Up to 1 Year</th>
<th>Up to 2 Years</th>
<th>3 Years or More</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Alabama</td>
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<td>Alaska</td>
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<td>Arizona</td>
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<td>Wyoming</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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9 11 8 21

1 Iowa only requires subject-matter testing for elementary teachers.
2 Montana and Nebraska do not currently require licensing tests.
3 Nevada has no deferral as of 2010.
4 Wyoming only requires subject-matter testing for elementary and social studies teachers.
Area 5: Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Goal B – Unsatisfactory Evaluations

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

Goal Components

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

1. The state should require that all teachers who have received a single unsatisfactory evaluation be placed on an improvement plan -- whether or not they have tenure.

2. The state should require that all teachers who receive two consecutive unsatisfactory evaluations or two unsatisfactory evaluations within five years be formally eligible for dismissal -- whether or not they have tenure.

Rationale

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

Supporting Research

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

State Partly Meets Goal

ANALYSIS
Iowa requires that all teachers who receive an unsatisfactory evaluation participate in an intensive assistance program. The state does not address whether a certain number of unsatisfactory evaluations would make teachers automatically eligible for dismissal.

SUPPORTING RESEARCH
Iowa Code 284.8 (2)

RECOMMENDATION
Iowa meets this goal in part. The state is commended for requiring that all teachers who receive an unsatisfactory evaluation, regardless of whether they have tenure, be placed on an improvement plan. However, the state should extend its policy to make teachers who receive two consecutive, unsatisfactory evaluations or have two unsatisfactory evaluations within five years formally eligible for dismissal.

IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
Examples of Best Practice

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

Figure 121
Do states specify that all teachers with multiple unsatisfactory evaluations are eligible for dismissal?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1 Wisconsin

2 Iowa

3 Nebraska

4 Rhode Island

5 Utah

6 Vermont

7 Virginia

8 Washington

9 West Virginia

10 Wisconsin

11 Wyoming

25

13

22

1 Arkansas, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Washington
Area 5: Exiting Ineffective Teachers

Goal C – Dismissal for Poor Performance

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

Goal Components

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

1. A teacher who is terminated for poor performance should have an opportunity to appeal. In the interest of both the teacher and the school district, the state should ensure this appeal occurs within a reasonable time frame.

2. The state should distinguish the process and accompanying due process rights for teachers dismissed for classroom ineffectiveness from the process and accompanying due process rights for teachers dismissed or facing license revocation for felony or morality violations or dereliction of duties.

Rationale

See appendix for detailed rationale.

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

SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at www.nctq.org/stpy/citations.
Area 5: Goal C Iowa Analysis

**State Does Not Meet Goal**

**ANALYSIS**
In Iowa, tenured teachers who are terminated for poor performance may appeal multiple times. After receiving written notice of dismissal, the teacher may--within 5 days--request a hearing, which must occur within 20 days following receipt of the request. A decision must be rendered within five days. The aggrieved teacher may then file an additional appeal--within 10 days--with an adjudicator, who must schedule a hearing within 40 days and offer a decision within 15 days. A third appeal may also be filed with the district court.

Regrettably, the state also does not distinguish its due process rights for teachers dismissed for ineffective performance from those facing license revocation for dereliction of duty or felony and/or morality violations. The process is the same regardless of the grounds for cancellation, which the state articulates vaguely as “just cause.”

**SUPPORTING RESEARCH**
Iowa Code 279.15, -.16, -.17

**RECOMMENDATION**
Iowa does not meet this goal. Although the state should provide tenured teachers an opportunity to appeal district decisions to terminate their contracts, multiple appeals should not be permitted, and such an appeal should not be made in a court of law but before a panel of educators. It is in the best interest of both the teacher and the district that a conclusion be reached in a reasonable time frame. Prolonged appeals tax limited resources and may dissuade districts from attempting to terminate ineffective teachers.

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

**IOWA RESPONSE TO ANALYSIS**
Iowa recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.
**Examples of Best Practice**

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

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**Figure 123**

*Do states allow multiple appeals of teacher dismissals?*

![Bar chart showing the distribution of states allowing multiple appeals of teacher dismissals.]

1 District of Columbia, Florida, Louisiana, North Dakota, Wisconsin
2 Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Maine, Nebraska, New Jersey, Utah
Appendix

Area 1: Goal A
Admission into Preparation Programs

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

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

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

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

Area 1: Goal B
Elementary Teacher Preparation

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

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

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

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

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

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

Standards-based programs can work when verified by testing.

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

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

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

Mere alignment with student learning standards is not sufficient.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Area 1: Goal C
Teacher Preparation in Reading Instruction

Rationale

Reading science has identified five components of effective instruction.

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

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

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

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

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

**Area 1: Goal D**

**Teacher Preparation in Mathematics**

**Rationale**

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Area 1: Goal E**

**Middle School Teacher Preparation**

**Rationale**

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

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

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

Since No Child Left Behind requires most aspiring middle school teachers to have a major or pass a test in each teaching field, the law would appear to preclude them from teaching more than one subject. However, middle school teacher candidates could...
instead earn two subject-area minors, gaining sufficient knowledge to pass state licensing tests and be highly qualified in both subjects. This policy would increase schools’ staffing flexibility, especially since teachers seem to show little interest in taking tests to earn highly qualified teaching status in a second subject once they are in the classroom. Research offers little evidence that middle school teachers with a major will be more effective than middle school teachers with a minor, and in fact most middle schools do not require this credential of teachers.

Area 1: Goal F
Special Education Teacher Preparation

Rationale

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

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

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

HQT requirements place unique challenges on secondary special education teachers.

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

Under IDEA, states can award “highly qualified teacher” status to new secondary special education teachers who:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

States can help new secondary special education teachers become highly qualified in multiple subjects by encouraging them to pursue professional development and coursework that focuses on state student learning standards. Having available adapted subject-matter tests would also add much-needed flexibility. Structured properly, HOUSSE would offer an efficient means by which a teacher could gain a broad overview of a specific area of content knowledge. One clear option would be for a state to identify focused, content-driven university courses that would give teachers a survey of the information necessary to teach a given subject. A single world history course could provide a sufficient basis in social studies; a single quantitative reasoning course could give a broad review of mathematical concepts. While not providing expertise, such classes could provide the proficiency needed for a teacher to obtain highly qualified teacher status in the subject.

Area 1: Goal G
Assessing Professional Knowledge

Rationale

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

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

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

Area 1: Goal H
Teacher Preparation Program Accountability

Rationale

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

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

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

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

Area 1: Goal I
State Authority for Program Approval

Rationale

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

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

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

Area 1: Goal J
Balancing Professional Coursework

Rationale

Most states have programs that demand excessive requirements.

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

States need to monitor programs’ total professional coursework requirements.

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

Area 2: Goal A
Alternate Route Eligibility

Rationale

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

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

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

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

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

Rigid coursework requirements can dissuade talented, qualified individuals who lack precisely the “right” courses from pursuing a career in teaching. States can maintain high standards by using appropriate tests to allow individuals to prove their subject-matter knowledge. For instance, an engineer who wishes to teach physics should face no coursework obstacles as long as he or she can prove sufficient knowledge of physics on a test. A good test with a sufficiently high passing score is certainly as reliable as courses listed on a transcript, if not more so.
Area 2: Goal B
Alternate Route Preparation
Rationale

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

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

Induction support is especially important for alternate route teachers.

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

Area 2: Goal C
Alternate Route Usage and Providers
Rationale

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

Many states have structured their alternate routes as a streamlined means to certify teachers in shortage subjects, grades or geographic areas. While alternate routes are an important mechanism for addressing shortages, they also serve the wider-reaching and more consequential purpose of providing an alternative pathway for talented individuals to enter the profession. A true alternate route creates a new pipeline of potential teachers by certifying those with valuable knowledge and skills who did not prepare to teach as undergraduates and are disinclined to fulfill the requirements of a new degree.

Some states claim the limitations they place on the use of their alternate routes impose quality control. However, states control who is admitted and who is licensed. With appropriate standards for admission (see Goal 2-A) and program accountability (see Goal 2-D), quality can be safeguarded without casting alternate routes as routes of last resort or branding alternate route teachers “second-class citizens.”

Area 2: Goal D
Alternate Route Program Accountability
Rationale

Alternate route programs should show they consistently produce effective teachers.

All data that are collected on alternate route programs should focus on the central question of whether they produce effective teachers. Although many components are involved in a good alternate route program, the output of productive teachers is the only true indicator of success. The indicators NCTQ recommends capture a comprehensive vision of teacher effectiveness. Alternate route programs need to be held as accountable for their results as traditional programs are. While the training and time associated with alternate route programs differ substantially from those of traditional programs, the outputs of student learning and teacher effectiveness should be held to an identical standard.

Area 2: Goal E
Licensure Reciprocity
Rationale

Using transcripts to judge teacher competency provides little value.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Area 3: Goal A
State Data Systems

Rationale

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

A. Observation
1. Ratings should be based on multiple observations by multiple persons, usually the principal and senior faculty, within the same year to produce a more accurate rating than is possible with a single observation. Teacher observers should be trained to use a valid and reliable observation protocol (meaning that it has been tested to ensure that the results are trustworthy and useful). The observers should assign degrees of proficiency to observed behaviors.
2. The primary observation component should be the quality of instruction, as measured by student time on task, student grasp or mastery of the lesson objective and efficient use of class time.
3. Other factors often considered in the course of an observation can provide useful information, including:
   - questioning techniques and other methods for engaging class;
   - differentiation of instruction;
   - continual student checks for understanding throughout lesson;
   - appropriate lesson structure and pacing;
   - appropriate grouping structures;
   - reinforcement of student effort; and
   - classroom management and use of effective classroom routines.

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

B. Objective Measures of Student Learning
Apart from the observation, the evaluation instrument should provide evidence of work performance. Many districts use portfolios, which create a lot of work for the teacher and may be unreliable indicators of effectiveness. Good and less-cumbersome alternatives to the standard portfolio exist, for example:
   - The value that a teacher adds, as measured by standardized test scores;
   - Periodic standardized diagnostic assessments;
   - Benchmark assessments that show student growth;
   - Artifacts of student work connected to specific student learning standards that are randomly selected for review by the principal or senior faculty and scored using rubrics and descriptors;
   - Examples of typical assignments, assessed for their quality and rigor; and
   - Periodic checks on progress with the curriculum (e.g., progress on textbook) coupled with evidence of student mastery of the curriculum from quizzes, tests, and exams.

Area 3: Goal B
Evaluation of Effectiveness

Rationale
Teachers should be judged primarily by their impact on students.

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

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

A teacher evaluation instrument that focuses on student learning could include the following components:
Area 3: Goal C
Frequency of Evaluations

Rationale
Annual evaluations are standard practice in most professional jobs.

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

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

Evaluations are especially important for new teachers.

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

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

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

Area 3: Goal D
Tenure

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

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

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

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

Area 3: Goal E
Licensure Advancement

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

Most states grant new teachers a probationary license that must later be converted to an advanced or professional license. A probationary period is sound policy as it provides an opportunity to determine whether individuals merit professional licensure. However, very few states require any determination of teacher performance or effectiveness in deciding whether a teacher will advance from the probationary license. Instead, states generally require probationary teachers to fulfill a set of requirements to receive advanced certification. Thus, ending the probationary period is based on whether a checklist has been completed, rather than on teacher performance and effectiveness.
Most state requirements for achieving permanent certification have not been shown to impact teacher effectiveness.

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

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

Area 3: Goal F
Equitable Distribution

Rationale

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Area 4: Goal A
Induction

Rationale

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

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

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

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

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

Area 4: Goal B
Pay Scales

Rationale

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

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

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

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

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

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

Area 4: Goal C
Retention Pay

Rationale

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

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

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

Area 4: Goal D
Compensation for Prior Work Experience

Rationale

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

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

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

Area 4: Goal E
Differential Pay
Rationale
States should take the lead in addressing chronic shortages and needs.

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

Area 4: Goal F
Performance Pay
Rationale
Performance pay is an important retention strategy.

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

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

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

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

Area 4: Goal G
Pension Sustainability
Rationale
Many states’ pension systems are based on promises they cannot afford to keep.

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

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

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

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

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

**Area 4: Goal I**

**Pension Neutrality**

**Rationale**

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

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

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

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

The year teachers reach retirement eligibility by age and/or years of service, their pension wealth peaks; pension wealth then declines for each year they work beyond retirement age. Plans that allow retirement based on years of service create unnecessary peaks, and plans that allow a low retirement age create an incentive to retire earlier in one’s career than may be necessary. For every year teachers continue to work beyond their eligibility for unreduced retirement benefits, they lose that year of pension benefits, thus decreasing their overall pension wealth.

**Area 4: Goal H**

**Pension Flexibility**

**Rationale**

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

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

There are alternatives. Defined contribution plans are fair to all teachers, at all points in their careers. These plans are more equitable because each teacher’s benefits are funded by his or her own contributions plus contributions from the employer specifically on the individual employee’s behalf. This is fundamentally more equitable than defined benefit plans, which are generally structured to require new teachers to fund the benefits of retirees. Moreover, defined contribution plans are inherently portable and give employees flexibility and control over their retirement savings. It must also be noted that defined benefit plans can be portable and fair, if structured as cash balance plans or plans that permit the withdrawal of employer contributions.
Although their yearly pension benefits would continue to rise as they earn additional service credit, it would only be at a small percentage per year, which would not make up for the loss of each year of benefits.

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

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

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

Area 5: Goal A
Licensure Loopholes

Rationale

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

While states may need a regulatory basis for filling classroom positions with a few people who do not hold full teaching credentials, many of the regulations permitting this put the instructional needs of children at risk, often year after year. For example, schools can make liberal use of provisional certificates or waivers provided by the state if they fill classroom positions with instructors who have completed a teacher preparation program but have not passed their state licensing tests. These allowances are permitted for up to three years in some states. The unfortunate consequence is that students’ needs are neglected in an effort to extend personal consideration to adults who cannot meet minimal state standards.

While some flexibility may be necessary because licensing tests are not always administered with the needed frequency, the availability of provisional certificates and waivers year after year signals that even the state does not put much value on its licensing standards or what they represent. States accordingly need to ensure that all persons given full charge of children’s learning are required to pass the relevant licensing tests in their first year of teaching, ideally before they enter the classroom. Licensing tests are an important minimum benchmark in the profession, and states that allow teachers to postpone passing these tests are abandoning one of the basic responsibilities of licensure.

Area 5: Goal B
Unsatisfactory Evaluations

Rationale

Negative evaluations should have meaningful consequences.

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

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

Differentiating consequences of a negative evaluation based on whether a teacher has probationary or nonprobationary status puts the interests of adults before those of students. Ideally, weaknesses and deficiencies would be identified and corrected during the probationary period: if the deficiencies were found to be insurmountable, the teacher would not be awarded permanent status. However, in the absence of meaningful tenure processes based on teacher effectiveness, limiting significant consequences to the probationary period is insufficient. Any teacher who receives a negative evaluation, regardless of employment status, should be placed on an improvement plan, and any teacher who receives multiple negative evaluations, regardless of employment status, should be eligible for dismissal.
Area 5: Goal C
Dismissal for Poor Performance

Rationale

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

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

Due process must be efficient and expedited.

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

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

Multiple levels of appeal almost invariably involve courts or arbitrators who lack educational expertise. It is not in students’ best interest to have the evidence of teachers’ effectiveness evaluated by those who are not educators. Teachers’ opportunity to appeal should occur at the district level and involve only those with educational expertise. This can be done in a manner that is fair to all parties by including retired teachers or other knowledgeable individuals who are not current district employees.
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- Eleanor S. Gaines, *Grayhawk Elementary School, Arizona*  
- Michael Goldstein, *The Match School, Massachusetts*  
- Eric A. Hanushek, *The Hoover Institution*  
- Joseph Hawkins, *Westat*  
- Frederick M. Hess, *American Enterprise Institute*  
- Paul T. Hill, *Center on Reinventing Public Education*  
- E. D. Hirsch, *Core Knowledge Foundation*  
- Michael Johnston, *Colorado State Senate*  
- Frank Keating, *former Governor, State of Oklahoma*  
- Martin J. Koldyke, *Academy for Urban School Leadership*  
- Wendy Kopp, *Teach For America*  
- Amy Jo Leonard, *Turtle Mountain Elementary School, North Dakota*  
- Deborah M. McGriff, *NewSchools Venture Fund*  
- Ellen Moir, *New Teacher Center*  
- Michael Podgursky, *University of Missouri-Columbia*  
- Michelle Rhee, *District of Columbia Public Schools*  
- Stefanie Sanford, *Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation*  
- Laura Schwedes, *KIPP: STAR College Prep Charter School*  
- Daniel Willingham, *University of Virginia*