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The Teach for Florida Project: A Case Study of Alternative Route Certification Policy

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THE TEACH FOR FLORIDA PROJECT: A CASE STUDY OF ALTERNATIVE ROUTE CERTIFICATION POLICY

by

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Dedication

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Abstract

This study examined the policy implementation of the Teach for Florida Project, which was conducted as a grant program in 2003. The project was designed to help alleviate a critical shortage of teachers brought about in part by the passage in the fall of 2002 of Florida Constitutional Amendment 9, a referendum setting specific limits on the number of students who could be taught by one teacher. The project was created and run on a tight timeline, allowing only 6 months from initiation of the request for proposals to placement of new alternatively prepared teachers in their classrooms. Despite the short notice, 23 institutions submitted proposals, of which 19 were considered worthy of funding and 7 were selected. Of the institutions selected, three represented the State University System, three the State Community College System, and one was a consortium of independent private colleges and universities in Florida. Although each institution created its own plan, the programs demonstrated two divergent paradigms. The schools all proposed some form of classroom education methodology, while the consortium created an online training system. The potential to examine in detail the outcomes of the two approaches was lost because, as the literature review points out, there was no requirement in the request for proposals to maintain the data necessary to conduct such an investigation. The Teach for Florida Project was effective in creating alternative programs for teacher certification but could have provided greater insight into the alternative preparation process had evaluation planning been part of the implementation.

Chapter One:

Introduction

In Florida, education has been a critical political issue for as long as there has been public funding of education. For the past 3 decades, Florida's principal focus in educational policy has been on accountability (Herrington & MacDonald, 2001). The state initiated student testing in the 1970s, implemented state educational standards in the 1980s, and instituted high-stakes testing in the 1990s. Florida was the first state to require testing of teachers as part of the certification process, and the state created, through various stages, what has become the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT), a high-stakes test given annually to assess both the students and the schools. The state experienced continuous growth in its school age population over the past 2 1/2 decades that resulted in over-crowded classrooms. This condition, along with Florida ranking as low as 49th in educational achievement nationally, contributed to Florida voters passing two constitutional amendments. The first, in1998, strengthened the wording of the educational clause, making education a "paramount" duty of the State and mandated measurable requirements for an "efficient, safe, secure, and high quality system of free public schools" (Constitutional Accountability Commission, 2005, p. 4). The second, in 2002, set limits on class sizes in public education.

In March of 2003 the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE, 2003) reported on the status of teacher supply and demand. The report, entitled *Imperative One – More*

& Better Teachers: That Was Then; This Is Now, detailed the projections of teacher demand at the time the Teach for Florida Project was developed. A key point in the document was that the FLDOE projected a need for 16,226 new teachers, considering only historical data. FLDOE calculated that the requirements of the Florida Class Size Amendment would add another 6,356 teachers, bringing the total new-hire teachers needed to 22,582 for 2003. The Florida Class Size Amendment (Florida Constitutional Amendment 9) created a demand for more teachers by setting limits on the number of students that may be in a classroom based on grade level. FLDOE figures showed that the State University System and private colleges and universities were graduating approximately 6,000 new teachers each year (Miller, 2003). The data in the *Imperative One* report indicated that of all 2001-2002 traditional teacher education graduates, only 57.4% taught in Florida in 2002. FLDOE projections indicated that the state will need a total of more than 116,000 additional teachers, beyond normal turnover, by 2010 (Aydin, 2005), or more than 19,000 new teachers a year. FLDOE projections continue to point to an increasing demand for teachers. As of February 2007, it was estimated that Florida school districts will need to hire more than 200,000 teachers over the next decade to meet demand. This amounts to more than 120% of the entire 2006 teaching force in the state (Miller, 2007).

Although Florida administrative law has included provisions for temporary certification since 1988, in 2001 the Florida Legislature modified state statutes to permit alternative preparation programs for teachers and specified statewide requirements for districts (FLDOE, 2006; National Center for Alternative Certification, 2006a, 2006b).

Prior to this action the districts hired teachers on temporary teaching certificates, and districts determined candidate success.

In 2003 the FLDOE initiated the Teach for Florida Project, an emergency measure designed to accelerate alternative routes to prepare teachers to enter Florida classrooms by fall 2003. Teach for Florida was a grant-based project designed to provide an incentive to state higher education institutions to construct alternative teacher preparation programs to help meet the projected need for 19,000 additional teachers annually over the next 6 years.

Twenty-three institutions responded to the request for proposals. Nineteen of the proposals were deemed fundable by the FLDOE, and seven were selected. Within the Teach for Florida Project there were seven participating grant recipients; each allowed to create its own program for recruitment, selection, and training. To investigate the effectiveness of the project it was necessary to know how the individual programs were administered, what criteria were used for selection of participants, how the training processes differed, and how these differences affected the completion rates and retention of the program participants and therefore the cost per trained teacher.

The sequence of events (state statutes altered to permit state-sponsored alternative route certification of teachers, passing of the Class Size Amendment, and the development of the Teach for Florida Project) combined to present a rare opportunity to examine policy implementation and tie results directly to policy action. In this study, I attempted to conduct a comparative analysis of the seven programs funded by the Teach for Florida Project, examining the number of teachers prepared for critical shortage areas, costs, candidates' persistence in teaching, and program design. Additionally, the results

of a survey of the program completers were compared to results of a national survey to evaluate how Florida's program completers compared to a national sample.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this case study was to examine the Teach for Florida Project on multiple levels. The Teach for Florida programs allowed some assessment of the project effectiveness in attracting, training, and retaining teachers through the various alternative preparation models piloted by the seven institutions. Additionally, the Teach for Florida Project allowed tracking policy development through its various stages. An integral part of the evaluation was a cost-effectiveness analysis among the programs.

Significance of Study

Many authors have indicated the need for in-depth research into educational policy. Richard Ingersoll and Thomas Smith (2004) in discussing cost-effectiveness analysis of state programs stated, "Such information is of vital importance to policymakers and administrators who must decide among many alternative models" (p. 38). Other authors (Fowler, 2000; Levin & McEwan, 2001) emphasized that a strong consideration of costs prior to launching new projects will provide the best return on the limited resources available to educational leaders. Herrington (2001) described the situation as "The search in Florida for an appropriate role for the state has been clouded by the lack of clear, research-supported knowledge concerning 'what works' in increasing student achievement" (p. 229). Assembling the research foundation on which to base policy decisions is a significant if somewhat overlooked part of the solution

process. The goal of the present study was to track policy actions to outcomes and provide information to assist in designing future alternative preparation programs.

This study has implications for improving policy decisions in Florida. The quality of the teachers recruited and trained through the Teach for Florida Project must reach and maintain the currently required standards for performance if the project is to provide the quality of teachers required by the state. Further, most of the individuals who were brought into the profession through the Teach for Florida Project were selected to meet state-defined critical shortage areas. To be truly successful, the teachers recruited through the project must have remained in the area for which they were recruited. Examining the assignment patterns of the teachers prepared by Teach for Florida would have provided insight into this aspect of the project. If among the seven programs there were models that demonstrated better cost effectiveness or greater impact on critical shortage areas, then judicious application of these more effective models and the deletion of less effective ones may hold the potential to make practical gains in attracting teachers to the areas of greatest need.

Conceptual Framework

This study was grounded in theory from several disciplines in conducting a retrospective comparative analysis of the Teach for Florida Project. A brief description of policy analysis, cost evaluation, and the Florida policy for alternative preparation will orient the reader to the specific areas to be addressed.

Policy analysis. As an area of study policy analysis has been conducted in one form or another for centuries. Sun Tsu (2005), in *The Art of War,* evaluated policy options and decisions in China approximately 500 years before the current era, and Machiavelli (1513/1913), in *The Prince,* discussed similar observations in Italy in the early 16th century. Analysis of policy in education in the United States developed only during the last 4 decades as education moved into an area of national concern (Wirt & Kirst, 2001). Fowler (2000) described policy as the method by which the political system allocates resources. In an ideal world, this allocation would be easy because the resources available to legislators would exactly match all the demands for services placed upon them, and all constituents would agree on what is needed. Unfortunately, we do not live in an ideal world. Elected officials never have enough funding to meet all the needs, let alone all the wants. For this reason policy becomes the means of distributing scarce resources among competing demands. The process is often unwieldy. In the field of education, follow-up to determine the effectiveness of policy implementation is often overlooked, done in a cursory manner, or just overcome by events; that is, something that should be done is let go because the immediate demands of the job require attention and it is unlikely that the responsible person will be reprimanded for failure to complete the item (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Levin & McEwan, 2001).

Attempting to analyze policy requires various skills and a great deal of preparation. A key step in evaluating policy is to determine the intent of the policy and to assess if the desired goal is attained. Numerous authors have defined how policy makers attempt to influence outcomes. The following information is provided as an introduction to key elements of political thinking and will be expanded in the next chapter.

In 1964 Theodore Lowi defined what have come to be known as "techniques of control" (Fowler, 2000) that policy makers use to allocate resources to cause the actions that are desired. The three types of policies described are *distributive, regulatory,* and *redistributive.* Lowi contended that by controlling the resources necessary for action, the policy makers could control the outcomes to achieve desired results.

McDonnell and Elmore (1987) expanded and refined the methods of control used by policy makers. They described four policy instruments used by policy makers to achieve their goals. Along with defining *mandates, inducements, capacity-building,* and *system-changing,* the authors provided recommendations specifying under what conditions to use each of the instruments to get the desired results. Mandates are rules that guide the actions of others. Inducements are the allocation of funds to obtain goods or services. Capacity-building is the allocation of funds to create future benefits. System-changing is the movement of authority among various agencies and individuals to broaden or narrow control. McDonnell (1994) described a fifth instrument, *hortatory policy,* which is the use of persuasive language to convey that items are of a high priority for policy makers. Hortatory policy involves only expressions of concern/interest, but no funds or other actions are attached to the pronouncements.

Fowler (2000) provided a systematic methodology for incorporating policy analysis with cost analysis and stated that "many school leaders adopt new policies without realistically analyzing their cost … a sure recipe for failure during implementation" (p. 260).

Cost evaluation. The discipline of cost evaluation allows a researcher to examine programs from four viewpoints depending on the types of decisions being considered.

The various aspects of *cost-effectiveness analysis, cost-benefit analysis, cost-utility analysis,* and *cost-feasibility analysis* were defined by Henry Levin in 1975 (Levin, 1983) and subsequently refined several times, providing detailed methodology for selection and conduct of the various investigations. This study was designed as a cost-effectiveness analysis of the seven programs funded through the Teach for Florida Project. The cost-effectiveness model is appropriate because all the programs under consideration were designed to create the same output. In this case, the output was certified K-12 teachers for Florida schools.

Alternative routes to teacher preparation. In an era of changing requirements and rapidly shifting demand for professional talent in many fields of teaching throughout the United States, many states have responded by creating programs to attract talented personnel into the areas of critical shortage. These programs are designed to attract teachers currently certified in the shortage areas to relocate to a state or to provide benefits to talented persons already in the state who will seek education and certification in the desired areas. The programs usually take the form of scholarships, loan forgiveness, or tax incentives.

Education is an area of particular responsibility to state legislatures. The state has authority over many educational issues, such as who can become a teacher, quality and requirements of preparation programs, salaries, and licensure and renewal. With the passing of Florida Constitutional Amendment 9, the state has the new requirement of enforcing the quantity issue of teacher-to-student ratios. Recently, various programs have been authorized, funded, and implemented to attract and retain professional teachers. These programs have included the incentives listed above, as well as alternative route

programs designed to attract persons who hold at least a bachelor's degree, but did not complete a traditional teacher preparation program. These alternative requirements can be as simple as applying for certification in the area of specialization as defined by the applicant's current degree and teaching one year, or as complex as requiring all of the traditional course work except the student teaching requirement. Most alternative teacher preparation programs do not require extended formal student teaching because this requirement has proven to pose a significant impediment to attracting otherwise qualified individuals.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as follows for this study:

Costs: All expenditures, direct and indirect, made to accomplish a project (Levin & McEwan, 2001). Costs include the fair market value of donated time and equipment and expenditures made by recipients of the goods or services.

Benefits: Tangible and intangible positive results from a project (Levin & McEwan, 2001). Benefits are often difficult to quantify and may manifest well after the completion of the project.

Outputs: Quantifiable and measurable results from a project (Levin & McEwan, 2001). For the current study the outputs are teachers ready to take full responsibility for a classroom.

Effectiveness: The program that produces equivalent outputs at the lowest cost per output (Levin & McEwan, 2001). In this case study, each of the seven programs' output was the same: new teachers. Therefore, cost per teacher produced is a measure of effectiveness.

Teacher: Any individual licensed by the state to teach full-time in public K-12 schools in Florida (FLDOE, 2006). For the purposes of the current study, individuals holding temporary teaching certificates will be included as teachers. Florida requires all alternative route teachers to apply for a temporary teaching certificate and allows 3 years to complete state requirements for a professional teaching certificate. In Florida, the 5-year certificate that is issued as the professional teaching credential does not indicate whether the individual earned the certification via a traditional or alternative route.

Alternative Route: The process in Florida that allows individuals to obtain a professional teaching certificate without having completed a traditional state-approved teacher preparation program at an accredited private or public university in Florida (FLDOE, 2006).

Research Questions

The study was guided by one primary research question: Was the Teach for Florida Project effective policy? In investigating this issue the study was guided by the following five subordinate research questions:

1. Did the teachers who completed the Teach for Florida Project remain in an area identified by Florida as a critical shortage for at least 2 years after initial hiring?
2. Did the cost-benefit ratios of the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project differ?
3. Did the retention rates among the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project differ?
4. Was program design (e.g., selection criteria, training method, and training schedule) related to the success of candidates among the Teach for Florida sites?
5. Do the survey results on the 2005 *Profile of Alternative Route Teachers* differ between Teach for Florida Project participants and the national sample?

Methodology

This mixed-method, case study assessed the Teach for Florida Project conducted by the FLDOE in 2003. The Teach for Florida Project was conducted as a grant-funded project to create alternatively prepared teachers to start in the classroom for the 2003-2004 school year.

The population for the study was the 548 individuals who were selected for participation in the seven programs funded in the project and the administrative personnel who initiated and ran the programs at the schools. According to the initial data provided by FLDOE, the seven institutions selected numbers of participants ranging from a low of 14 to a high of 229. Further investigation revealed that these data were inaccurate with

the actual range being 30 to 758. I have chosen to use the initial FLDOE data as the starting point for this study because those are the data that anyone requesting information from the FLDOE would have received. I have noted in the tables and the text when data changed. The study examined each of the seven independent programs on the areas of selection criteria, program process and delivery, completion rates, placement rates, and program costs. Additionally, program completers' persistence in teaching and attitudes were assessed by survey.

Data were collected from three major sources. Initially, program documents, such as the request for proposals, the submitted proposals, and other documentation and reports developed by the institutions were examined to determine program parameters, processes and selection criteria, and methodology. Following the document review, interviews were scheduled with key personnel at each of the participating institutions to determine levels of effort and costs for each program. The structured interview questions were provided to the program administrators well in advance of the interview and are listed in Appendix A. Concurrently with the interviews, a survey of the program graduates was sent to the individuals who completed the programs. The survey instrument was adapted from the instrument used in the 2005 *Profile of Alternative Route Teachers* (Feistritzer, 2005) conducted by the National Center for Education Information for the U.S. Department of Education. This instrument described alternative preparation in areas such as entry requirements, college credit-based versus professional development requirements, and frequency of support by mentors and administration. A copy of the survey questions is provided in Appendix B.

Data analysis was conducted to evaluate the various types of selection criteria and the delivery process as defined in the program documentation and through the administrator interviews. Although the data were collected, insufficient tracking information existed to be able to evaluate characteristics among the various programs. Cost information was collected to establish a baseline for cost comparison between various delivery modes and program outputs. The key statistics in this section of the study are the cost-per-completer, cost-per-placement, and cost-per-graduate-retained. After estimating the actual costs for each program, the total was to be divided by the number of individuals in each of the three categories. Again there were not enough tracking data to allow more than cost-per-completer analysis.

The survey of the individual graduates was used to compare the Teach for Florida Project graduates' opinions about the alternative preparation process with the results of the national survey.

Assumptions and Limitations

All of the data for this study were drawn from programs within Florida that are subject to the political and economic environment in that state. Generalization to other states would be problematic, as Florida's total of only 67 independent school districts is unique and thereby affects all aspects of the educational climate. Additionally, all of the applicants for the programs were self-selected, and their participation may have been affected by local or personal situations at the time the program was implemented. Also, there may be other persons who desired to participate and failed to apply for a variety of reasons. Again, these aspects of the study will limit the ability to generalize from the

data. Although the data for this research have the limitations expressed above, the research may be of interest to other states planning alternative route programs as it reports on various methods of reaching the goal of more quality teachers in the classroom.

Much of the data for the study were obtained through surveying or interviewing the various participants. The data collected in this manner were self-reported data provided by the new teachers and training personnel after the programs were completed. Because of the circumstances of the Teach for Florida Project, no initial survey/interview was possible. The retrospective nature of the study may minimally impact the data. Finally, the design of the study may limit the ability to explore all the areas that might be of interest. The Teach for Florida Project was created and run on a very short timeframe. As a result, the examination of the program was ex post facto, and there was no opportunity to construct baseline data or establish control groups.

Other factors also limited the study. Several of the project directors elected not to release names and addresses, mailing or email, to me. They chose to forward the survey themselves, which may have contributed to a low return rate. One institution had destroyed all the records for the project when relocating to a new facility, and one only provided email addresses for about one-third of the participants in that program. None of the institutions maintained the type of detailed records that would allow fine-grained analyses of the programs. Also, a limiting factor was that none of the institutions maintained tracking data on completers beyond initial placement, and there was no requirement for the participants to maintain any contact with the school or the state.

While not a direct limitation of this study, a contextual factor that may have impacted the outcome was the very short timeframe that the state allowed for institutions to prepare and submit their grant applications. The institutions had only 4 weeks from notification to submission, and this time demand may have affected the final product.

Organization of Study

This report on the study is organized into five chapters. Chapter One presents an overview of the study. This chapter defines the problem and purpose of the study, comments on significance of the study, defines terms, and concludes with a statement of the limitations and assumptions.

Chapter Two provides a review of the literature. The review develops the context of the teacher shortage in Florida and elaborates on the requirements for policy analysis and cost evaluation in educational decision making.

Chapter Three presents the methodology pertaining to the current study. Details on using surveys in research, the population under study, confidentiality, survey development, and reliability and validity are provided. The chapter concludes with a section discussing data analysis for the study.

Chapter Four presents the findings of the study including demographic data, the cost data associated with each of the seven programs, and a discussion of how the survey results of the Florida alternatively prepared teachers compared with a similar national survey. The chapter concludes with an analysis of the six research questions that framed the study.

Chapter Five provides an overview and summary of the study along with a discussion of the implications of the study. The theoretical framework upon which the study was based is discussed in view of the findings. The chapter concludes with comments suggesting future research related to this study.

Chapter Two:

Review of Literature

This study examined the Teach for Florida Project as a case study of policy development and implementation following legislative and referendum actions in Florida that allowed and created a need for increased numbers of alternatively prepared teachers. As an indicator of success of the policy initiative, the study compared the effectiveness of the seven programs conducted under the Teach for Florida Project. To appreciate the range of inputs that affected the development of the project, the relevant literature was examined in three specific areas that combined to create the need to conduct research on alternative preparation procedures in Florida. This chapter provides background in policy analysis, cost analysis, and the teacher shortage in America in general and those aspects that are specific to Florida. The chapter concludes with a summary that relates the literature to the need for this study.

Policy Analysis

Although many authors discuss policy analysis as a modern phenomenon, citizens have been making critical examinations of government policy for at least several millennia. Sun Tzu wrote policy guidance about 2,500 years ago (Sun Tsu, 2005). Machiavelli described the aspects of governmental leaders of the late 15th and early 16th centuries in great detail in *The Prince* (Machiavelli, 1513/1913). These and other works

throughout history were not written to provide specific research on governmental policies, but they do provide insight into the length of time the populace has been interested in and concerned about how those in charge of a nation make and enforce decisions.

The logical starting point for a discussion of policy analysis is to provide a definition of what will be the subject of the discourse. What is "policy" and why is it important to examine? My simple and useful definition is that policy is the method through which those who govern make their decisions known. This certainly is not the only definition of policy. In fact, Fowler (2000) listed seven varying definitions of policy before she stated her own as follows: "Public policy is the dynamic and value-laden process through which a political system handles a public problem. It includes a government's expressed intentions and official enactments as well as its consistent patterns of activity and inactivity" (p. 9). Arguably the most-cited definition of policy is that of David Easton (1965), who stated that policy is the method "through which values are authoritatively allocated for a society" (p. 57). The definition of policy as the method through which those who govern make their decisions known allows for the subtle differences in the two stated definitions as well as many of the other definitions. Policy is "value laden," and the decision to not take action on any given issue does, to a large extent, establish a policy preference on the part of the policy makers. For this study I will use my broad definition of policy as the method through which those who govern make their decisions known.

If policy is the method by which those who govern make their decisions known, then we should understand the options available and purposes of policy. Thomas Lowi

defined what he called *techniques of control,* which represent three types of policy action available to the decision makers. In his original paper Lowi (1964) named the three techniques as *distributive, regulatory,* and *redistributive*. Later he changed *distributive* to *promotional*. The following discussion of Lowi's ideas is drawn from his later work (Lowi & Ginsberg, 2002).

Promotional techniques are used when policy makers are trying to direct constituent activities through inducements or benefits (Lowi & Ginsberg, 2002). Sometimes these methods have been referred to as "patronage." The benefits may be subsidies and/or grants. The Oklahoma land rush was a method of encouraging settlement of the western part of the country and therefore would fall into the promotional category. Additionally, contracting and licensing are promotional methods. Contracting is the method for the direct purchase of goods or services from a private source while licensing grants permission to do something that is otherwise illegal. For this study the FLDOE contracted with seven institutions to provide the training. The grant funding of these alternative routes to licensing for individuals reduced the costs and shortened the time to complete the process for those selected for the Teach for Florida Project. These were two of the frequently cited reasons for otherwise qualified persons not to attempt a career change to teaching.

Regulatory techniques are generally legal requirements enforceable by the government (Lowi & Ginsberg, 2002). Criminal penalties, civil penalties, regulations, tariff and excise taxes, expropriation, and conditions attached to subsidies, contracts, and licenses are all regulatory in nature. The requirement that all candidates must possess a

bachelor's degree to be considered for a teaching certificate in Florida and therefore admission to the Teach for Florida Project illustrates a regulatory technique.

Redistributive techniques involve the use of taxes (Lowi & Ginsberg, 2002). Policy makers spend tax money to buy needed goods and services. By changing tax rules and regulations, funding patterns can be altered. By manipulating budgets and monetary policy, tightening or loosening the money supply, attempts can be made to control the economy. The allocation of any grant funding—and particularly of the $1 million from FLDOE to the Teach for Florida Project—is a redistributive policy action, because it is an attempt by state officials to alter economic patterns by allocating funding to organizations for changing their methods of operation.

Lowi's framework for evaluating the techniques that policy makers use to affect and implement decisions provided the foundation for what McDonnell and Elmore (1987) called the generation of policy implementation research. McDonnell and Elmore stated that the efforts prior to their contributions were insightful but tended to focus too narrowly on single aspects of policy, such as organizational context or practitioner response to new programs. They contended that to expand the impact of policy research, a method of examining the topic in a more holistic manner must be generated. They proposed focusing on what they called policy instruments and the relationships between the instruments to obtain a more cogent body of data.

McDonnell and Elmore (1987) defined four instruments through which policy decisions could be affected. Although to some extent these instruments parallel the techniques of Lowi and Ginsberg (2002), the emphasis for McDonnell and Elmore was on the desired outcome of the instrument rather than the methodology by which the

decision is invoked. The four instruments are mandates, inducements, capacity building, and system changing.

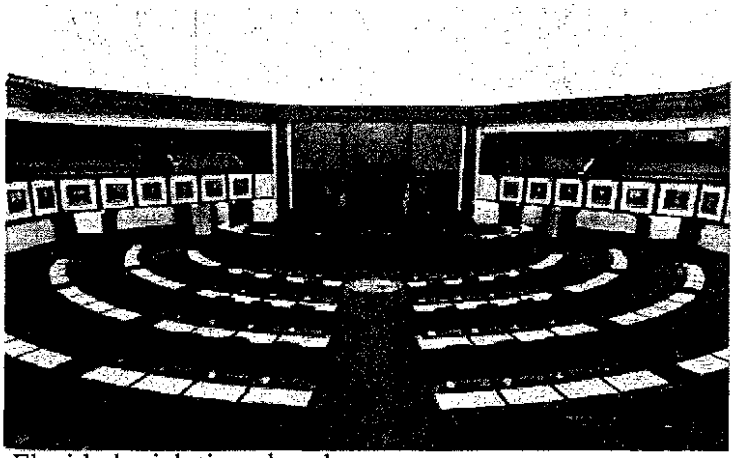
Mandates are the application of rules to gain compliance (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). Mandates, as a category, closely align with Lowi's regulatory techniques. The level at which the mandate is written (for example as a statute, an administrative rule, or an implementation guideline) and the level of enforcement vary. For education, examples of mandates would be the required number of school days per year and the number of years of compulsory education.

The next two categories of policy instruments deal specifically with money. Inducements are the provision of funding for short-term or value production (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). Grants, categorical funding, and waiver of student loans for new teachers are examples of inducements. Capacity building is the investment of funds for long-term gains. Professional development spending and facilities upgrades and preservation lead to increasing capacity. Developing improved instructional methods through applied research would also fall in the area of capacity building.

System changing is the manner by which policy makers change the authority of those within the system (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). By granting or changing the degree of autonomy and authority held by individuals or positions, the structure of the system is modified. Shifting decision-making authority from one level or position to another causes outcomes to be changed. Examples of system changes are that many state departments of education now specify acceptable textbooks from which school districts then choose (moving the authority for textbook selection from local control to state control) and the introduction of alternative teacher preparation programs that shift the

development of new teachers from the traditional teacher preparation programs run by the public and private universities to local boards of education and in some cases, as in Florida, to the community colleges.

Regardless of whether the legislative body is seeking influence through techniques of control or policy instruments, the policy makers attempt to direct and control actions. These are the methods by which values and preferences are conveyed. By applying one of these processes, intentions are made explicit and all concerned can then discuss the merits of the decisions. One of the seemingly mysterious processes of political practice is how any one item ever arrives at the point of a decision. Several authors have provided frameworks for this process. Mitchell (1988) defined a six-stage process for the development of policy. Fowler (2000) defined a slightly different set of six stages for how issues become policy. Their development stages are detailed in Figure 1.



Florida legislative chamber.

Six Stages of Policy Development.[1] Mitchell (1988)	Six Stages of Policy Development.[2] Fowler (2000)
1. Articulation: Stating the issue	1. Issue definition: Issues are enumerated and consolidated into a policy statement
2. Aggregation: Combining similar issues into a single policy	2. Get on policy agenda: The process by which a defined issue gets placed before the appropriate legislative committee
3. Allocation: The selection of what issues will receive resources	3. Policy formation: The formal construction of issues into a bill that can be acted on
4. Regulation: The creation of budget rules and assignment of accountability	4. Policy adoption: The official approval process of the legislative body
5. Implementation: How the rules are interpreted, communicated, and enforced	5. Implementation: How the rules are interpreted, communicated, and enforced
6. Evaluation: The process of analysis of a policy to decide to continue, revise, or delete a policy	6. Evaluation: The process of analysis of a policy to decide to continue, revise, or delete a policy

Figure 1. Policy development stages.

[1] Mitchell acknowledged that many issues that enter the policy process do not become policy. He did not address the process as iterative, but the reader may assume an awareness of the iterative nature of politics.

[2] Fowler explicitly defined the development of policy as an iterative process that may send issues back and forth between stages before the policy moves forward or dies.

Many authors (Cooper, Fusarelli, & Randall, 2004; Dye, 1977, 2001; Herrington, 2001; King, Swanson, & Sweetland, 2003; MacManus & Herrington, 2005; Wirt & Kirst, 2001) have written on policy and policy development from various points of view. The central element of this discussion is that policy development—whether at the federal, state, or local level—follows similar patterns, and this development takes place in a political context that is subject to varying influence and changes over time.

One may ask how issues are surfaced in a democratic system. The widely held and traditional model is that "the people" make their desires known through citizen groups or party affiliations and the system acts on those issues that have the greatest merit. Dye (2001) called this the bottom up model and also called it a myth. He contended that what actually takes place is that powerful individuals representing influential entities such as industrial corporations, financial institutions, and large unions control the issue definition and agenda-setting phases of the policy process and therefore the process itself. Dye called this "top down policymaking" (p. 1). The purpose of this study is not to solve the questions raised by the top down model, but it is necessary to be aware of this design when discussing policy changes in education, especially alternative teacher preparation programs, because until the teacher shortage (discussed later in this chapter) became acute, teacher unions were a strong voice against changes in teacher certification programs (Feldman, 1998, 2000).

Examination of the various aspects and processes concerning policy development provides a bewildering array of ideas on how any one issue transits the process to become policy. Based on Mitchell's and Fowler's stages of policy development and drawing on work by others, I have constructed a flowchart of the process. Figure 2 provides my

model of the policy development process, and brief directions through the diagram follow.

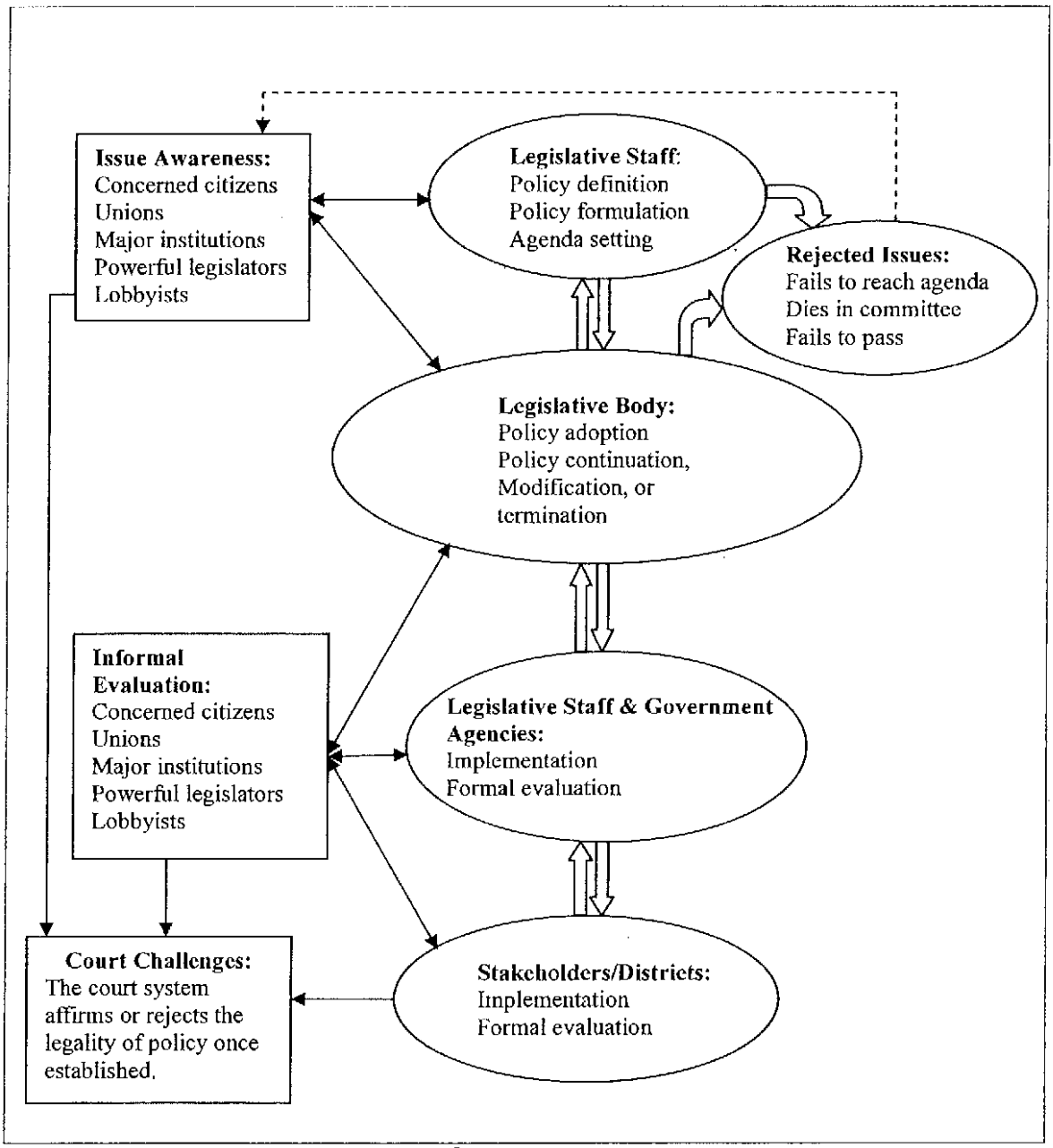


Figure 2. Policy development model.[3]

[3] Derived from Cooper et al., 2004; Dye, 1977; Fowler, 2000; Mitchell, 1988; Wirt & Kirst, 2001.

For clarification, there are instances in the model where groups are shown in separate places, such as legislative staff, concerned citizens, and unions. The placement of these groups in multiple places is to clarify their function at that step in the policy process, not to infer that they are different sets of people.

Starting in the box in the upper left, the initial step for any issue to become policy is for the idea to become known to someone or some group that takes ownership of the idea and seeks to bring the issue to the attention of others who can help make the electorate, or the policy makers directly, aware that action is necessary. Depending on the strength of emotion/concern, the *issue awareness* phase can take from weeks to years. Amber Alert policy (the rapid release of information via the Emergency Broadcast System when a child has been abducted) was enacted quickly, while environmental legislation was developed over a much longer timeframe and is still evolving. Although this initial step shows a representative list of policy players and two communication lines, great effort and expense is generated to get an issue before the policy makers. The communication lines run to both legislative staffs and legislators directly because various groups have different levels of access and financial support. Issue generators who have sufficient access may deal directly with the decision maker, while others who believe in their issue but lack access deal initially with staff personnel to convince them that the constituency considers the issue important.

Once the issue has gained enough awareness to be regarded as worthy of official consideration by the policy makers, the issue will go to legislative staff personnel to be researched. The assignment of the issue to staff personnel will result regardless of whether the awareness was via direct contact with the policy maker or through the staff.

The legislative staff will survey the constituency to ascertain the level of concern with the issue. They will check to see if similar issues exist, which might be combined for a more comprehensive legislation, and write a draft bill for circulation among other staff personnel to garner support and get recommended changes of the wording to gain greater acceptability. The process results in the definition and formulation of an issue into policy statements. If the issue proves to be considered worthy of further effort, the issue will be written as proposed legislation and formally passed to the decision makers, where it will be assigned to the appropriate legislative committee (sub-committee) for discussion and rework and to have estimates of needed resources assigned to it. Getting on the agenda of the appropriate committee is critical for the issue to become policy. Many issues that are researched never leave the staffing office. These issues fail to get put on the agenda for consideration by the policy makers and when this happens, the issue in its current form is removed from consideration. The dotted line from *rejected issues* back to the issue awareness box indicates that some issues that are defeated in their initial presentation may return again, as with the Equal Rights Amendment.

Assuming that the issue is selected for formulation, written as proposed legislation, and gets placed on the agenda for consideration, the issue will be sent to the appropriate committee for analysis, discussion, deliberation, and modification. If acceptable to the committee members, the issue will be sent from the committee to the policy making body for a vote. (In practice, the legislative committees have sub-committees that conduct the initial review of a bill and then report to the larger committee. For simplicity of the model, this additional stratum in the process is not broken out of the committee process.) In the event that following the committee review

the issue is considered not to be ready for a vote, the issue will follow one of two paths. If the committee believes the issue still has merit, it will be sent back to staff personnel for changes as indicated by the upward arrow from the *Legislative Body* to the *Legislative Staff*. If the committee believes that the issue cannot be made acceptable by further rework, then the bill will die in committee and thus be rejected by inaction. Note that as Fowler (2000) stated, inaction on the part of policy makers also establishes policy.

The notional issue has now made it out of committee and is scheduled for a vote by the legislature. If the proposed bill is passed it will proceed to *Legislative Staff and Government Agencies* for development of implementation guidelines and procedures for reporting. In addition to providing guidance, a method for evaluation of the outcomes of the policy should be developed along with the implementation strategy. As Fowler (2000) pointed out, the development of evaluative procedures is often overlooked or done in a cursory manner. If the proposed bill does not receive enough votes to pass in the legislative body, no further action will be taken, as indicated by the arrow from the legislative body to rejected issues.

As indicated in the model there are three ways in which an issue that has been placed into the legislative process can be rejected. When an issue is rejected, the policy makers will consider the issue as decided and expend no further effort. When the originating group learns of the rejection of its issue, it can accept that decision or attempt to garner greater support for the issue and start the process again. (Getting an issue into the legislative process tends to be a very expensive endeavor, therefore most issues that are rejected once are not sent forward again. Notable exceptions exist, such as civil rights issues, environmental issues, and the Equal Rights Amendment.)

A bill that has passed, had implementing directives issued, and formal audit and/or evaluation procedures established will be promulgated to all concerned stakeholders—in the case of educational policy the state boards of education or districts—for appropriate action. During the implementation phase information and input may be provided by and to the groups that initiated the issue. The communication may be formal or informal, with the goal of ensuring that the new requirement effectively meets the needs of those who sponsored it. Sometimes the legislation that emerges from the political system bears little resemblance to the original plan, but once enacted, the policy and the manner with which it is implemented become the law of the land.

Any policy that has been enacted into law is subject to interpretation and may be challenged in court. The ability of any citizen, or group of citizens, to challenge policy in the legal system allows the courts to determine the legality and constitutionality of any law. Because the courts are the final arbitrators of an issue, the court system plays a substantial role in regulating policy in the United States. An interesting aspect of legal interpretation of policy is that court decisions are not final in the sense that subsequent challenges to the policy may result in different findings over time. The principle of "separate but equal schools" had been upheld in the court system on various occasions prior to *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954), which determined that separate was inherently unequal.

The current study examined the policy actions taken by the FLDOE, as the government agency assigned authority for alternative preparation of teachers and the class size amendment, that were promulgated in the Teach for Florida Project. However, understanding policy development only contributes a portion of the information

necessary to evaluate that implementation. The following section will present a brief description of economic methods for evaluating programs.

Cost Analysis

Over 20 years ago Henry Levin (1983) wrote a book with the goal of assisting "educational evaluators and administrators to understand the concepts, uses, and applications" (p. 6) of cost analysis in their decision making. Although there have been great strides in many areas of educational evaluation in the intervening years, Fowler (2000) stated "many school leaders adopt new policies without realistically analyzing their costs. This is a sure recipe for failure during implementation" (p. 260).

Before continuing to discuss cost analysis it is necessary to provide a working definition of the topic. Levin and McEwan (2001) described cost analysis as a set of tools allowing administrators to arrive at better decisions. These tools allow for, presumably, the best allocation of resources among multiple worthy alternatives.

Other authors (Branson, 2001; Dye, 2001; Majchrzak, 1984; Wirt & Kirst, 2001) discussed the need for and difficulty in conducting cost analysis. Levin and McEwan (2001) presented a clear and concise explanation of cost-analysis methodology, and the following description is drawn from their work.

Levin and McEwan (2001) divided cost analysis into four specific subgroups, each with its own purpose and usefulness. The authors stated that these categories are often used interchangeably by others, but each has a distinct function and this loose interpretation by some authors leads to confusion when discussing cost analysis. For the

purpose of this study, the Levin and McEwan approaches as provided below guided my research.

Cost-effectiveness analysis is used when one is able to present a comparison between the costs of various options that create the same outputs (Levin & McEwan, 2001). For example, if a decision maker is presented alternative programs that all will reduce the rate of absenteeism, the program that has the lowest cost per each percentage point of increased attendance (decreased absenteeism) would be the program to select.

Cost-benefit analysis is used when both the costs of alternatives and the derived benefits can be expressed in monetary units (Levin & McEwan, 2001). The decision maker may then create cost-benefit ratios for the alternative programs. The initial decision would be to determine if the benefits (expressed in monetary terms) are at least equal to the costs. Having selected the alternatives that demonstrate positive gains, the decision maker can then analyze those remaining to ascertain the one alternative that produces the greatest benefit for its unit cost.

Cost-utility analysis is similar to cost-effectiveness analysis, but allows a means for comparison based on more than a single measure or output (Levin & McEwan, 2001). In an effort to assess an alternative's value, a qualitative assessment of individual satisfaction, it can be necessary to examine more than one measure of output. If two alternatives have the same cost per output, the decision maker may want to examine such intangibles as ease of implementation and/or how well each program is accepted by the students. Determining utility is an inexact science and requires careful design in the instruments to measure individual satisfaction.

Cost-feasibility analysis has a different purpose than the other three approaches (Levin & McEwan, 2001). Cost feasibility is used to determine if an alternative is appropriate for consideration at all. Its function is to determine if the costs associated with a program are within the resources and budget of the organization. If this is not the case then no further analysis is required. An alternative to providing personal tutors to each student in a school district who fails to achieve a grade of "C" or better in any subject would yield high results. Unfortunately, such an ideal solution to improving poor performance would bankrupt most districts in a short period of time. That solution would not be feasible unless the tutors volunteered their services.

Now that the reader has been introduced to the development of policy and the methods of evaluation of policy actions, the final piece necessary to define this study will be presented. The driving force that led to the Teach for Florida Project was the increasing demand for teachers in the state. The following section will discuss the teacher shortage from a national and state perspective.

The Teacher Shortage

Prior to developing the specific conditions that address the critical shortage areas within the overall teacher shortage, it is helpful to examine the development of the general teacher shortage. The emergence of a teacher shortage in the United States is apparently a relatively recent occurrence. Although there have been localized shortages throughout the history of education in America, recognition of a general shortage of teachers is not represented in literature before the 1980s. Investigation of predictive analyses and research studies from the 1960s and 1970s yielded no voice telling the

educational community to beware of an eminent lack of qualified teachers, let alone a potential crisis. Feistritzer (1998) attributed the beginnings of the crisis to a study written by the National Center for Education Statistics in the early 1980s. The report projected that only two-thirds of the demand for new teachers would be met by 1992.

Another indicator of the lack of a teacher shortage as an emerging problem prior to the 1980s is that the median age of teachers was 41 in 1961 and dropped to 33 by 1976 (Barbieri, 1999). This decline in the median age indicates a significant replacement of the older teachers who were hired to educate the baby boomers and demonstrates an influx of younger teachers without anything significant being written about a teacher shortage. Note that we are now 30 years out from this "retooling" of the teacher force and have a great deal of literature about the existence of a teacher shortage. The last time the nation needed to replace an aging teacher workforce there were ample new teachers available and willing to fill the need. Sometime over the last 2 decades, the ability to hire and retain all the new teachers we need has become a significant problem.

To this point the subject of a teacher shortage has only been discussed in the abstract. Now it is necessary to formulate a working definition of the term. By simple inference the meaning is clear: a teacher shortage means an absence of enough teachers to fill the classrooms, based on projected enrollments. This definition is sound, but incomplete. Somewhere within the definition is the assumption of a "qualified" teacher, and most authors writing before 2002 were purposeful in their inclusion of a "qualified" teacher in their description of the teacher shortage (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Feistritzer, 2001; Gursky, 2001; Ingersoll, 1996, 2001a; Shure, 2001). On January 8, 2002, President George W. Bush signed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). Although NCLB

contains many other requirements, the significant aspect for this research is that the act required all teachers to be "highly qualified" by the end of the 2005-2006 school year for schools to receive federal funds. Since the signing of the bill there has been great discussion about what constitutes a highly qualified teacher. The U.S. Department of Education has recently clarified the definition of "highly qualified" by stating that the term means demonstrating content knowledge in the subject area and holding a valid state teaching certification (Southeast Center for Teacher Quality, 2004). A great deal of literature addresses this interpretation of "highly qualified," but for the purposes of this study any teacher holding a Florida Professional or Temporary Certificate and teaching in field will be considered qualified. This definition is consistent with the Request for Proposals for the Teach for Florida Project (FLDOE, 2004) that states that the project "is specifically designed to address the immediate need for a sufficient number of teachers in the fall of 2003 who meet the federal definition of 'highly qualified'" (p. 17).

The first piece of the definition of a qualified teacher is now in place. A second aspect of the teacher shortage has to do with certified teachers teaching in areas where they are not certified, or "out-of-field" teaching. Based on data from the 1990-91 *Schools and Staffing Survey,* as many as one-fifth of all English classes and one-quarter of all math classes were taught by instructors who were not certified in English or math, respectively (Ingersoll, 1996). The NCLB act addressed this situation and required that all teachers be certified in the area in which they are teaching. For the purpose of this study any teacher who is teaching out-of-field will be counted as an unqualified teacher.

Some authors posit that there are plenty of teachers (Ingersoll, Alsalam, & Quinn, 1997; Murphy, DeArmond, & Guin, 2003; Podgursky, 2003). These writers examined the

records showing the number of active teaching credentials and compared the results to the number of teaching positions required. They found that there are many more individuals holding active certifications than there are required positions. From these data they formed the conclusion that there is no teacher shortage. I consider this a short-sighted view, because if an individual who holds a current teaching credential is not willing to work as a teacher, then that person is not part of the current teacher workforce. For the purposes of this study, only teachers who are actively employed by school districts or actively seeking employment as a teacher will be counted as a teacher.

With the definition of who will be counted as a teacher clarified, it is time to examine the development and depth of the teacher shortage. The earliest writers on the subject viewed the potential shortage as a confluence of demographic and social phenomena. In the 1960s and 1970s the teaching force was substantially replaced without significant disruption (Barbieri, 1999). That period also brought a great deal of social change that resulted in a new definition of the roles of women in society. Throughout most of the last century in America, teaching has been a predominantly female occupation. The first of the social changes that affected the teaching force was the widening of the job market for women (Staiger, Auerbach, & Buerhaus, 2000). Women today have a far greater selection of job opportunities than was available at any previous time, and many have chosen to pursue careers other than teaching.

A second but equally important societal change was brought about through well-intended educational research. In 1966, Coleman et al. published their findings from a substantial project. The short answer to the question, "What is the most important factor in student learning?" came out to be "socioeconomic background." Their landmark study

was interpreted, or misinterpreted, to mean that teaching and teachers were not significant contributors to student success. This conclusion was counterintuitive to say the least. Unfortunately, it was widely circulated and widely accepted. It is difficult to quantify the degree to which this report damaged the teaching profession. It is not difficult to see that such a powerful report, which was so widely circulated, could have long-range negative impacts on teacher morale, public opinion about teachers, and how school boards viewed teachers. Fallon (2004) stated that the Coleman study had significant negative impact on public perceptions of teachers that resulted in a general decline in respect for teaching and the attractiveness of teaching as career.

It is not within the scope of the current study to trace the position and relationship of teaching as a profession to society in general. Other authors have contributed extensively to this area. For more information on this area the concerned reader may see Waller (1932), Lortie (1975), Arum and Beattie (1999), and Hallinan (2006).

Although not as closely aligned with social issues, a third primary factor that affects the decision of individuals considering teaching as a career has been the relatively stagnant pay structure. Over the past 3 decades, starting pay for teachers has lagged behind other careers requiring a college degree (American Federation of Teachers, 2005). The national average starting salary for a first-year teacher in 2004 was $31,704, as compared to $47,112 for engineers, $37,688 for accountants, and $37,000 for nurses (*Nurse*, 2004; *Nursing Salaries & Nursing Salary Surveys*, 2004). The national average salary for teachers in 2004 was $ 46,597 as compared to $78,023 for engineers, $56,102 for accountants, and $47,110 for nurses (American Federation of Teachers, 2005) Although not widely discussed in the literature, a second aspect of the pay issue is the

level at which the profession tops out. Teacher pay scales reach a maximum of $71,000 (in Connecticut and the District of Columbia) while top pay for engineers and lawyers reaches six digits (U.S. Department of Labor, 2006). Anyone trying to make a selection among careers for which they are equally inclined is likely to do the math and choose to go somewhere other than teaching.

Another factor contributing to the teacher shortage is the changing population of the United States. The first of these demographic issues affecting the teacher shortage is known as the "graying" of the teacher workforce. Hussar (1999) stated, "As a group, elementary and secondary teachers are significantly older than the general labor force. The median age of public school teachers in 1993-94 was 44 compared with a median age of 38 for all workers" (p. 1). In 1994, Florida had 65% of its teacher force 40 or over (Hussar, p. 32). Many authors (Bracey & Molnar, 2003; Gursky, 2000/2001; Hussar; Ingersoll, 2001b) addressed the issue of an aging teaching force. Recall that Barbieri (1999) stated that in 1976 the median age of teachers was 33; by 2006 half of those teachers were over 63 or retired. Some authors (Ingersoll, 2001b; Podgursky, 2003) have discounted the affects of the aging of the teaching force stating that the aging workforce represents only a small percentage of the total teachers needed. Others (Bracey & Molnar, 2003; "*Critical Teacher*," 2003; Hussar) have argued that the current 1.5% retirement rate is on an upward trend and will become more significant over the next decade. It is not necessary to reach consensus on this issue as the authors all acknowledged that the "graying" of the teaching force is real and only disagree about the size of the effect.

The second of the demographic factors contributing to a teacher shortage is what can be called the "rebound boom." The children and grandchildren of the baby boomers are now swelling the ranks of our school-age population. The Census Bureau projected that the total number of K-12 students would continue to increase through 2007 and then level off (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2001a; 2001b). Earlier estimates stated that by 2007, 54.5 million students would be enrolled in the nation's elementary and secondary schools (Hussar, 1999; U.S. Census Bureau, 2002). Current information shows there were 52.9 million school-age children in 2005 and projects a school population of 53.0 million students by 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007). With the increasing student population there is a concurrent increase in the demand for teachers. With the advent of NCLB, they must all be "highly qualified," also contributing to demand for teachers.

One additional source of increased demand for teachers does not fall into the demographic or social category. Some states, such as California and Florida, have passed class size amendments (Bracey & Molnar, 2003; Harris, 2004). This political factor also contributes to the teacher shortage. In Florida, the passage of that state's class size amendment is estimated to increase the state teaching force by more than 23,000 (Harris). This number is slightly more than two and a half times the estimated 9,000 additional teachers Florida will need to meet the demand caused by the growth in the student population over the next decade. The political context within which the educational system must work has influenced legislators and citizens who have demonstrated great concern for the condition of our schools. The attention to the details of running education at both the national level, as indicated by the NCLB, and at the state level, as indicated by

class size amendments and other initiatives, attests to the fact that education in no longer solely a local community process.

Now that the foundations of the teacher shortage have been addressed, it is necessary to examine the severity of the shortage. It might seem that there would be a straightforward, definitive answer to that question. As with most multi-faceted and socially dynamic problems, there are diverse opinions on the severity of the teacher shortage. Indeed, there are some who still maintain that there is not a shortage at all (Podgursky, 2003). Others (Gursky, 2000/2001; Ingersoll, 1998) assert that there are problems in certain specific fields but not in the profession as a whole. Moving toward the other end of the continuum, some believe that we are in a crisis and have been for almost a decade (Berry, 2004; Berry, Hoke, & Hirsch, 2004; Bolich, 2001; Capa, Loadman, & Bryant, 2002; Keller, 2004). Richard Ingersoll, one of the foremost researchers on the subject, appears to have evolved his position on the subject as he conducted larger and more detailed studies (Ingersoll, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 1998, 2001a). Initially, his work demonstrated that the idea of the "graying" of the teacher workforce was present but not at a level to create a shortage alone. Further studies showed that teacher retirements were significant, but that there was a greater source of concern. Many studies (Ingersoll, 1995a; Miller, 2003) showed that as many as 40% of entry-level teachers do not remain in teaching beyond 5 years. Government data support these findings and show that by 1994 more teachers left the profession than were hired the previous year (Ingersoll, 2001a). It is apparent that such a negative trend cannot be sustained without detrimental effects.

The methods of estimating the size of the teacher shortage vary but there is a strong degree of consistency in the projected numbers. Hussar (1999) stated "at least 2 million newly hired public school teachers and about 500,000 newly hired private school teachers will be needed between 1998 and 2008" (p. 11). This estimate is consistent with the earlier work of Boe (1996), who estimated the teacher requirement on an annual basis at 9.8%. Using Boe's estimate of 9.8% and the current teacher inventory of approximately 2.5 million teachers, the 10-year demand would be 2.45 million (0.098 x 2,500,000 x 10). Heller (2004) cited U.S. Department of Education estimates of 2.2 million teachers needed over the next decade. The estimates are generally consistent and until very recently have not taken into account the NCLB requirements for "highly qualified teachers." The NCLB requirement can only serve to limit the potential pool of applicants and thereby exacerbate the problem. Regardless of the actual number or whose estimates one chooses to utilize, the consensus of the researchers is that there is a significant problem and that it is getting worse instead of better.

The estimates given above show that over the next decade the U. S. will need to train and hire just about as many teachers as there are currently in the workforce. Preparing and hiring such a quantity of teachers is a daunting task in itself, but within the aggregate data that have been presented there is a more serious and difficult task. The shortage is not just a general shortage. There are more severe shortages in specific areas. Most authors (for example, Ingersoll, 2001b; Milanowski, 2003) list positions in mathematics, science, and special education as particularly difficult to fill. Additionally, positions in reading, English for speakers of other languages (ESOL), and foreign

languages are listed as shortage areas on the local level, especially in rural and low socioeconomic urban schools.

As discussed previously, multiple causes contributed to specific shortage areas. The determination of the exact reasons for shortages, although important to planners for creating solutions, is not a central issue to the present study. The shortages are well documented (Berry, 2004; Capa et al., 2002; Crist, 2001; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Ingersoll, 2001a), and many state legislatures have created programs to alleviate the problems. Some of the more popular programs are loan forgiveness, scholarships for individuals entering shortage areas, cash bonuses for teachers with the appropriate credentials, assistance with mortgages, fellowships, and reduced loads. Alternative route preparation programs also act as a means to fill positions in critical shortage areas.

Teacher Certification in Florida

As was the case in many states, for years Florida had only one certification for teachers. The Professional Teaching Certificate could be earned only through what is known as the "traditional" teacher certification process that consists of graduating from an accredited public or private college with a degree in education. The FLDOE requirements for the traditional certification include college coursework for core education such as pedagogy, psychology of learning, and diversity; concentration-specific coursework such as elementary education or courses in secondary content areas; and field experience. Additionally, Florida requires all teachers to pass the Florida Teacher Certification Examination (FTCE) which consists of three areas: subject area knowledge, general knowledge, and professional knowledge (FLDOE, 2006). Florida

public and private colleges with state-approved programs in education require that all students pass all three sections of the FTCE prior to receiving a teaching degree. The Florida Professional Teaching Certificate is valid for a period of 5 years and is renewable.

In 1988, Florida authorized a Temporary Teaching Certificate (National Center for Alternative Certification, 2006b) to assist districts in meeting teacher needs and facilitate entry into teaching by individuals holding a bachelor's degree from an accredited institution but who had not earned a degree in education. The original temporary certificate was issued at the district level to meet the local requirements. Over the last 2 decades the process changed so that the state issues all teaching certificates. The Florida Temporary Teaching Certificate is issued to individuals who possess an earned bachelor's degree from an accredited college, have passed the content area section of the FTCE or meet the subject area content requirements, and have been hired by a public school district. The general knowledge section of the FTCE must be passed within one calendar year of issuance for the temporary certificate to remain valid. The temporary certificate is non-renewable and valid for a period of 3 years. The temporary certificate allows the holder to be the teacher of record while completing preparation for and passing the professional education section of the FTCE. When an individual completes the requirements for the Florida Professional Teaching Certificate and has satisfactory classroom evaluations, a professional certificate is issued (FLDOE, 2006).

Summary

In Chapter One, the sequence of events that set the stage for investigating the emergency alternative certification programs in Florida was presented. Tracing these events through the policy model on page 25 provides an illustration of the development process and places the Teach for Florida Project in clearer perspective.

The first policy action in the sequence was the changing of Florida Statute 1012.56 (14) to place responsibility for alternative route preparation of teachers at the state level. This action represents the most straightforward path through the model. Issue awareness rose to a level that legislative discussion was deemed necessary. Staff members worked out the policy formation and definition issues, and the statute revision was placed on the legislative agenda where it was passed during the 2001 Florida legislative session. Following legislative approval, the FLDOE became the government agency responsible for implementation of the new requirements.

In 2002, Florida Constitutional Amendment 9, the Florida Class Size Amendment, was placed on the ballot through the actions of concerned citizens with legislative support. The measure was approved by the electorate and became a constitutionally mandated requirement of the state. Again, the FLDOE became the government agency responsible for the implementation of the amendment requirements. The immediate impact of Florida Constitutional Amendment 9 was to increase the demand for teachers needed to fill classrooms in the fall. For 2003 alone, the state estimated that more than 6,000 additional teachers, beyond normal attrition, would be required (Miller, 2003).

The third piece of the policy implementation was the creation of the Teach for Florida Project. This step was implemented by the FLDOE as the responsible government agency for alternative route preparation and implementation agency for meeting the class size amendment. Using Federal Title II funds, FLDOE created the emergency project (FLDOE, 2004) under authority granted as implementing agency for alternative preparation and Florida Constitutional Amendment 9. The sequence of events and the actions taken by FLDOE were consistent with the literature and the model constructed from the various sources.

The pressures that led Florida to work through the policy process and create the Teach for Florida Project remain. This project provided an excellent opportunity to conduct an evaluation of a single policy effort designed to help alleviate a specified problem in the state. The Teach for Florida Project funded seven individual programs each of which created the same output. Therefore, using Levin and McEwan's (2001) cost-analysis approach, the analysis was a policy study, which includes a cost-effectiveness component. The specifics of how this study was constructed and managed are the subject of the following chapter.

Chapter Three:

Methodology

This study examined policy processes that led to the development and implementation of the Teach for Florida Project, which was created as a pilot project in 2003 to fill the gap between the number of teachers the state was producing and the projected number of teachers needed. An integral part of the study was to be a cost-effectiveness analysis of the program utilizing the "ingredients model" proposed by Levin (1983). The purpose was to assess the costs associated with each of the delivery methods of the seven institutions funded by the FLDOE to recruit and train individuals through alternative preparation as teachers in Florida. Further, the project graduates were surveyed to develop information for comparison of delivery methods and to ascertain the persistence of graduates in the teaching profession. In addition to collecting data from the direct participants, key informants from the FLDOE who participated in the development of the Teach for Florida Project were interviewed to gain insight into the state perspective.

Research Questions

The primary and overarching question for this study was whether the Teach for Florida Project is effective policy. In investigating this issue the study was guided by the following five subordinate research questions:

1. Did the teachers who completed the Teach for Florida Project remain in an area identified by Florida as a critical shortage for at least 2 years after initial hiring?
2. Did the cost-benefit ratios of the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project differ?
3. Did the retention rates among the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project differ?
4. Was program design (e.g., selection criteria, training method, and training schedule) related to the success of candidates among the Teach for Florida sites?
5. Did the survey results on the 2005 *Profile of Alternative Route Teachers* differ between Teach for Florida Project participants and the national sample?

Design of Study

This study was designed as a retrospective case study including both quantitative and qualitative data. To place the study in context, key informants from the FLDOE were interviewed. This background and perspective was provided to place the study in its political and educational environments relevant to the implementation of the Teach for Florida Project.

This policy analysis was conducted in two phases. The initial phase was comprised of conducting interviews with key administrative personnel from the seven institutions participating in the Teach for Florida Project. The interviews were structured to gain insight into the actual costs associated with each program, utilizing Levin's

ingredients model, as well as to distinguish key elements of selection and training methods. Sample questions for guiding the interview process can be found in Appendix A, and the interviews each took 60-90 minutes. The questions were provided to the project directors well in advance of the interview date to allow them to prepare needed data and to expedite the time required to complete the interview process. When questions arose as the data were compiled, it was necessary to re-contact institution personnel to obtain clarification on emerging issues. In addition to the interview data, each institution was asked to provide an email list of the graduates of their programs (or was provided with a survey enclosure to email to their participants, if the institution preferred) to allow for phase two to begin.

The second phase of data collection was a survey of the project graduates. The survey was adapted with permission from *Profiles of Alternate Route Teachers* (Feistritzer, 2005). Using this survey permitted a comparison between the results from the Teach for Florida Project and a national sample of individuals having entered teaching through alternative routes. The survey is contained in Appendix B. The survey provided demographic and employment data as well as participants' opinions and attitudes about their programs and teaching as their profession.

Data Analysis

Following data collection, an estimate of the total cost for each program was made. Once the total cost was established for each of the seven programs, an attempt was made to determine the number of participants in each program at several key points. Not all information that was sought was actually available. Each program was examined to

determine how many persons were admitted, how many graduated, how many obtained teaching contracts for the fall of 2003, and how many accepted teaching contracts for their second year. Additionally, records were examined to determine how many of the participants taught in "critical shortage areas" as designated by the FLDOE. The purpose of this effort was to create a comparative analysis at each of these check points to determine if there were significant differences in the production cost function between programs. These data would have allowed an effectiveness study based not only on initial recruiting success but also on the more significant value of teachers returning for a second year for the project as a whole. Unfortunately, the data to conduct fine-grained analysis between the individual programs was not maintained, retained, or ever collected at the institutional level. Additionally, an assessment was attempted based on defined selection criteria from each program to determine if there were any selection criteria that may have impacted the persistence of individuals in teaching. Again, insufficient data were available to complete this effort.

A discussion of the effectiveness of the Teach for Florida Project as policy appears in Chapter Five. The following discussion provides the intended data analysis procedures for each of the subordinate research questions:

An analysis of whether teachers who completed the Teach for Florida Project remained in an area identified by Florida as a critical shortage area for at least 2 years after initial hiring was attempted. Using state and institution data, all of the Teach for Florida participants who accepted contracts for their second year and were teaching in a critical shortage area would have been counted and compared to the number of original completers and the total number still teaching to determine the percentage of all

completers and the percentage of those still teaching who were in critical shortage areas in total and by institution. The determination of the effectiveness of attracting new teachers to critical shortage areas would have allowed evaluation of one of the key goals of the Teach for Florida Project. These data were not planned for or captured by the institutions in a manner that allowed critical area analysis.

Cost-benefit ratios for the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project were examined to determine if they differ. Using the estimation of total costs and the number of completers, initial contracts, and second-year contracts, a comparison of the programs attempted to determine if any of the programs was more cost-effective than the others and if the cost-effectiveness relationships changed over time. These data could contribute to designing follow-on programs that are more cost-effective in providing alternative route teachers.

The Teach for Florida Project retention rates were to be examined for differences. An attempt was made to calculate each program's percentage of initial hires and second-year contracts to determine the persistence of the program graduates in remaining in teaching. If any of the programs demonstrated greater retention of graduates, then incorporation of program criteria into future alternative route preparation could provide long-term benefits and contribute to a more stable teacher force. Again, these data were not planned for at the program level and could not be derived from available information.

A comparison of program design (e.g., selection criteria, training method, and training schedule) was attempted in order to determine if these characteristics were related to the success of candidates among the Teach for Florida sites. Each of the programs in the Teach for Florida Project established program-specific designs. By

examining the various aspects of the individual designs, certain characteristics of each design might have emerged as more powerful indicators of completion and persistence. A qualitative examination of the design factors was conducted to search for any aspects of the design that could improve future programs. Although a determination of design factors was successful, there were no usable data available that allowed tracking of the completers back to the originating institution, therefore no comparison was possible.

Teach for Florida Project participants were surveyed using a modified form of the 2005 *Profiles of Alternate Route Teachers*, and the results were compared to the national sample. A version of the National Center for Education Information (NCEI) survey was sent to completers of the programs so that a comparison of the Teach for Florida participants with the national sample results could be made.

Because this evaluation of the Teach for Florida Project was conducted after-the-fact, descriptive statistics, non-parametric measures, and qualitative analysis guided the research.

Participants and Confidentiality

The participants for this study fell into two groups. The first group was the administrative personnel who directed the grant at the state level and the project directors at the seven participating institutions. These administrators were asked to provide information on the costs associated with and the procedures used in the program at their schools. Sample questions for the administrators are in Appendix A. The second group was comprised of the participants who completed the program. These individuals were surveyed to ascertain their views on the program that led them into teaching as well as if

they were currently still employed in K-12 education. The survey, which was adapted with permission from the 2005 NCEI survey of alternate-route teachers, is provided in Appendix B.

Each participant, regardless of his/her group, was provided an Informed Consent Form delineating the voluntary nature of participation and that participant identity would be protected. All data were aggregated to the institution level for reporting and publication. Additionally, all participants were informed that all data were stored in locked cabinets and all digital data were processed on password-protected systems. The Informed Consent Forms can be viewed in Appendix C.

Prior to commencement of the research, a proposal was submitted to the University of North Florida Institutional Review Board for approval. The document granting Institutional Review Board permission to conduct this research is in Appendix D.

Summary

This study was designed to evaluate the Teach for Florida Project that was created to implement policy decisions made in the state and assigned to the FLDOE as the implementing agency. The study included a cost effectiveness evaluation utilizing the ingredients model (Levin, 1983), however, this portion of the design had to be modified because many of the "ingredients" were not available. The current study was able to track and evaluate related policy legislation, referendum passage, and a resulting policy action by the FLDOE.

Chapter Four:

Results

The current study examined state policy as it relates to the implementation of the Teach for Florida Project, which was designed to recruit, prepare, and place alternatively prepared individuals into Florida classrooms during the summer of 2003. The FLDOE (2004) *Teach for Florida Project Report* stated:

> The programs will provide participants with as much professional training as possible prior to their continuation in state-approved teacher preparation programs or entry into Florida's competency-based Alternative Certification Program or approved district competency-based professional preparation alternative certification programs. (p. 17)

The FLDOE distributed a request for proposals on March 14, 2003, and required proposals to be submitted by April 15, 2003. Twenty-three institutions submitted proposals. Of these, 19 were considered worthy of funding, and from those 7 were selected. Notification of the institutions was sent on May 1, 2003. All funds for this project had to be expended by September 30, 2003. The seven institutions selected for grants consisted of three 4-year schools, Florida Gulf Coast University, University of Central Florida, and University of South Florida, St. Petersburg Campus; three community colleges, Broward Community College, Florida Community College at Jacksonville, and Indian River Community College; and the Florida Independent College Fund, which is a private nonprofit organization representing a consortium of private 4-year colleges and universities in Florida.

Institutional Program Profiles

In order to set the framework under which the individual grants were planned, a short synopsis of each of the institutional programs is presented below.

Broward Community College. Broward Community College (BCC), in collaboration with Florida Atlantic University and Broward County Public Schools, designed the *Teach for Broward Project.* The *Teach for Broward Project* was designed to increase the number of teachers in the critical shortage areas of special education, mathematics, science, and language arts/English by providing the participants with a model alternative program that contained all of the components of proven certification programs. Candidates in the program completed a minimum of 210 hours of pre-service training, with emphasis on the Florida Educator Accomplished Practices and subject-area instruction. The program featured (a) a high level of support for the participants, (h) an extensive mentoring component, (c) individualized learning plans for each participant, and (d) an extensive evaluation component. The Teach for Broward Project was conducted as professional development training rather than for college credit. Its goal was to recruit, screen, prepare, place, and support at least 32 new teachers in critical shortage areas identified by the Broward County Public Schools District. Special emphasis was placed on recruiting underrepresented populations and placing teachers in high-need schools. Additionally, the project incorporated research-based strategies from the Just Read, Florida! initiatives in the candidate's initial preparation.

Florida Community College at Jacksonville. Florida Community College at Jacksonville (FCCJ) designed the Teach First Coast Florida initiative to recruit, support,

and retain new teachers. Aimed at holders of non-education baccalaureate degrees, the program was planned to prepare participants to obtain temporary teaching certificates, pass the General Knowledge section of the Florida Teacher Certification Exam, and provide competency-based instruction to prepare for initial classroom success. FCCJ planned and conducted the program in partnership with local school districts. The program, which emphasized recruitment and placement in high-need schools, consisted of 9 credit hours of educational foundation coursework combined with subject-area workshops conducted over an intensive 6-week session during the summer.

Florida Gulf Coast University. Florida Gulf Coast University (FGCU), in partnership with Barry University, Edison College, and area school districts, created the *Teacher Immersion Program* (TIP) to recruit and prepare 90 new teachers. The TIP program was designed to recruit and provide accelerated preparation emphasizing science, math, and special education. Priority was given to applicants expressing interest or willingness to work in high-need schools. Candidates for English, social studies, or elementary education positions were admitted only if 90 critical-needs area slots were not filled. The TIP preparation consisted of completing 9 graduate credit hours of professional education classes taught in a full-time, 4-week period. Each candidate received a scholarship for 6 hours of graduate credit. FGCU and its partners provided in-class mentoring of the graduates and provided 6 hours of additional graduate credit to complete the state professional preparation requirement.

Florida Independent College Fund. The Florida Independent College Fund (FICF), a consortium of the 27 independent colleges and universities in Florida, constructed the *Yes Teach! In-Reach Campaign* designed to attract graduates from

consortium member schools to teaching, especially in high-need schools. Unlike the other programs, Yes Teach! was a method of matching consortium graduates to school districts with needs. The program was therefore statewide rather than a local partnership. No direct instruction was provided and no credit was earned as part of the program. An extensive web-based tutorial was created for the *Yes Teach!* program to allow candidates to obtain professional development instruction online. FICF contracted for the *Yes Teach!* online math and science tutorials and the *Teaching Skills Assessment Program* (TSAP). These web-based tools are still available at this writing at http://www.yesteach.org . Additionally, participants were eligible for *Teachers Now Scholarships* ($500) to assist in completing professional certification coursework.

Indian River Community College. Indian River Community College (IRCC) created *A Bridge to Teaching* as a means to address the immediate teacher needs of Indian River, Martin, Okeechobee, and St. Lucie county school districts. The program emphasized recruiting individuals with non-education baccalaureate degrees from under-represented populations and provided an intensive 4-week summer program to prepare graduates to start teaching in the fall of 2003. The instruction combined traditional classroom teaching with web-based modules in subjects designed to have the participants ready to teach and to complete their professional certificate requirements. IRCC committed to provide support to the graduates throughout their critical first year of teaching. This support included certification test preparation, mentoring, and weekly support sessions.

University of Central Florida. The University of Central Florida (UCF) developed the *Helpful Experiences for Alternative Degree-holders Systematic Training to Accelerate the Route to Teaching* (HEAD START) in partnership with the School District of Osceola County and the Osceola Campus of Valencia Community College. HEAD START's goal was to accelerate the development of highly qualified teachers in Florida through the recruitment, preparation, and placement of degree-holding individuals into a competency-based training program. The program targeted high-need areas, such as mathematics and science, and provided the tools for participants' early success. HEAD START had all participants work with principals to develop an Individualized Professional Development Plan (IPDP) and then provided intensive training in classroom management, instructional strategies, and methods. The preparation classes were at the graduate level and based on UCF courses as well as *Just Read, Florida!* and subject-content standards. Although the funding for the program ended September 30, 2003, UCF, like IRCC, committed to provide faculty mentors for the program graduates through the following school year. Additionally, as part of the partnership, the School District of Osceola County provided mentors to all the participants.

University of South Florida, St. Petersburg. The University of South Florida (USF), St. Petersburg Campus, instituted a special summer Master of Arts in Teaching Institute for persons holding at least a baccalaureate degree in an area other than education. The institute recruited participants for a college-credit program that provided an alternative pathway to teacher certification in the critical shortage area of special education. The USF program supported Pinellas County Schools and provided program graduates to work in exceptional student education (ESE) classrooms at the middle and

high school levels. USF's recruitment effort focused on substitute teachers, the WorkNet Pinellas dislocated workers pool, spring semester Arts and Sciences and Business graduates from USF, St. Petersburg College, Eckerd College, and other local efforts. Additionally, USF focused on underrepresented populations in education including men and minorities.

Analysis of Program Costs

Data presented below were provided on request from the FLDOE. Table 1 provides summary data showing information that the FLDOE reported as the number of participants in each program and the amount of funding provided by the state to each institution for conducting the programs. A cost-per-participant was calculated by dividing the number of participants reported into the amount of funding provided.

Table 1

Summary of Teach for Florida Funding

Institution	Participants	Funding	Cost per participant
BCC	74	$85,385	$1,153
FCCJ	50	$219,276	$4,385
FGCU	90	$150,045	$1,667
FICF	229[a]	$300,000	$1,310
IRCC	60	$68,139	$1,135
UCF	14[a]	$99,955	$7,139
USF	30	$77,200	$2,573
Totals	547	$1,000,000	Average $1,828

[a] These data were provided by FLDOE in response to an initial request. Further investigation showed these data to be in error. The initially provided information is included here because that is what would have been provided to anyone seeking data on the Teach for Florida Project.

The *Teach for Florida Project Report* (FLDOE, 2004) reported a cost-per-participant and a cost-per-initially-hired-participant at $1,713 and $2,005 respectively. Table 1 clearly shows that although the state-reported cost per teacher is near $1,800, there is considerable deviation from the mean across the various programs. These data are aggregate and only represent state funds allocated to the institutions for the programs. In-kind funding is omitted, and actual costs are not reported.

The data for this study were collected in two phases. The initial effort was to interview the project directors of the seven institutions participating in the Teach for Florida Project to learn about each program's specific implementation and the actual costs involved in complying with the grant requirements. It was assumed that gaining the

project directors' insights and perceptions of areas of strength and needs for improvement would provide a more thorough understanding of the outcomes.

After completing phase one, a survey of the participants was undertaken. The survey was based on *Profile of Alternative Route Teachers* (Feistritzer, 2005) conducted by the NCEI. After ascertaining from the respective project directors that all the participants had been communicated with by email, the decision was made to create the survey for online administration as that would make responding faster and easier.

The first phase was conducting interviews with key informants at each institution. A set of 17 questions was provided in advance to each informant, along with a request for a 60-90 minute interview. Five of the seven program leaders agreed to be interviewed, one emailed a limited response to the questions, and one institution was unable to provide any information. Tables 2-9 present the cost elements for each participating institution. Personnel costs were provided as salary for full-time employees and contract rates for adjunct faculty. A uniform rate of 28.5% was used to calculate benefits for full-time personnel. Adjunct faculty members do not receive full benefits, but federal income taxes are withheld and paid. The rate of 7.65% was used to calculate the institution's contribution to federal taxes for adjunct professors.

Table 2 presents the costs associated with preparing and submitting the proposal from the participating institutions. One institution provided insufficient data with which to make a reasonable estimate of the preparation costs, and one institution provided no data for this study. The data presented are based on responses to the following interview questions:

How many people worked on preparing the proposal?

What are the pay grades of each of these workers?

How many hours did each of these persons spend on this effort?

Table 2

Proposal Preparation Costs

Institution	Total
BCC	No data
FCCJ	$ 9,579
FGCU	No cost provided
FICF	$10,000
IRCC	$ 2,069
UCF	$12,798
USF	$ 5,227

Table 2 provides only part of the proposal preparation costs because 23 institutions submitted proposals. Only seven of the submissions were selected, but the 16 institutions that were not selected spent time, effort, and money to apply for the grant funding. These schools were not reimbursed; however, the preparation costs for these institutions must be considered as costs incurred as a direct result of the project. The non-selected schools were not surveyed. To estimate the expenses for these institutions the average costs ($7,935) of the five known schools from Table 2 was multiplied by 16, yielding $126,960. Although one might argue the exact figure, this estimate does imply an order of magnitude to the proposal preparation costs for the project. Proposal preparation costs for those institutions not selected to receive grants accounted for more than 10% of the

total funds allocated. This amount is not reported or considered in Teach for Florida Project documentation.

Table 3 presents the costs of administering the project at each of the participating institutions. The data are based on responses to the following questions:

Who was assigned to administer the project?

What percentage of this person's time was spent administering the grant?

What was the pay grade of this individual?

Was there any administrative support staff provided for the grant?

If so, how many persons supported the grant?

What percentage of their time was allocated to the grant?

What was the pay grade of each staff member?

Who screened the applications?

What was the pay grade of each screener?

How many hours did each spend screening applications?

If candidates were interviewed after initial screening, how many persons conducted the interviews?

What were their pay grades?

How many hours did each spend conducting interviews and evaluating candidates?

Table 3

Project Administration Costs

Institution	Total
BCC	No data
FCCJ	$32,225
FGCU	$13,402
FICF	$27,006
IRCC	$19,506
UCF	$ 2,800
USF	$ 9,582

Administrative costs varied greatly across the participating schools. Much of the variation is attributable to the manner in which the institution conducted the project. USF and FGCU folded the project into the normal credit operation of the school and assigned associate deans/professors to administer the program, while UCF assigned a graduate assistant to oversee the daily operation. IRCC and FCCJ utilized more senior personnel and greater numbers of them to administer their programs. FICF is a small organization, and the director was the sole administrator for the project.

Table 4 presents direct instructional costs for professors and workshop leaders. The data presented are based on responses to the following questions:

Who taught the classes?

What percentage of their time was assigned to the project?

What was the pay grade for each of the instructors?

Table 4

Instructional Costs

Institution	Total
BCC	No data
FCCJ	$14,675
FGCU	$27,018
FICF	None [a]
IRCC	$11,782
UCF	$5,947
USF	$9,500

[a] FICF contracted for development of an online tutorial package that provides web-based instruction. The cost was not allocated to direct instruction.

The variance in instructional costs was directly related to the number of credit hours earned, which ranged from three to nine across the schools, and the grade of the instructor, which ranged from adjunct to full professor. FICF did not provide any direct instruction, therefore no instructional costs are shown. FICF did create an online instructional tutorial, but those costs are presented in Table 7.

All of the schools participating in the project paid the tuition costs for the students from grant funding. Table 5 presents the costs for tuition paid for the project.

Table 5

Tuition Costs

Institution	Total
BCC	No data
FCCJ	$26,055
FGCU	$84,150
FICF	None
IRCC	$41,760
UCF	$30,000
USF	$39,960

Tuition costs were directly computed from the number of students, the number of credits, and the level of instruction (graduate or undergraduate).

Table 6 presents the costs for instructional materials used for the project. The data presented are based on responses to the following questions:

Were books and notes provided to the students?

If so, what was the total cost of the required books?

If not, did the students have to purchase their own books?

What was the total cost of the required materials?

Table 6

Instructional Materials Costs

Institution	Total
BCC	No data
FCCJ	$11,250
FGCU	$9,000 [a]
FICF	None
IRCC	$9,300
UCF	$250 [b]
USF	$4,500

[a] FGCU had students purchase the textbooks. Costs are included to capture total project cost.
[b] UCF provided course packets/handouts

Instructional materials varied directly with the number of students and the number of courses requiring books. UCF used only handouts for instruction, resulting in the small expense relative to the other schools.

Table 7 presents the additional costs that did not fall into one of the categories already covered. The data presented are based on responses to the following questions:

Where were the classes held?

Did you rent space or use existing space?

If space was rented what was the cost of rented space?

If existing space was utilized, what is the per-hour rental charge to use the space by an outside agency?

How many classroom hours were used by the program?

Were there any other costs for this program that have not been covered in the above questions?

Table 7

Miscellaneous Costs

Institution	Type	Amount	Total
BCC	No data		
FCCJ	Assessment instrument	$10,000	
	Assessment administration	$1,927	
	FTCE costs	$2,500	
	Marketing	$75,000	
	Mentor Stipends	$70,500	$159,927
FGCU	Printing	$157	$157
FICF	Online tutorial	$175,000	
	Scholarships	$100,000	$275,000
IRCC	Printing, materials	$1,650	$1,650
UCF	Space rental	$4,000	
	Completion stipend	$50,000	$54,000
USF	Mailings	$62	$62

Only one school did not utilize existing classroom space. UCF rented classroom space from the Valencia Community College, Osceola Campus, so that the instruction would occur closer to where the students lived and were going to work. Two schools provided a form of cash incentive to the participants. UCF provided a stipend of $1,000 to each of the school's 50 participants (The term stipend may be misleading as the funds were provided to defray the costs of additional course work at UCF. I use the term as provided by the project director.). FICF provided a scholarship of $500 to the first 200 candidates to complete the certification process and receive a teaching contract from a Florida school district. FCCJ was unique among the institutions in the program. Expending $75,000 for marketing its program yielded overwhelming results. Whereas the other

institutions reported interest in their programs at several hundred applicants or less, FCCJ had more than 1,450 applications for the 50 spots.

The project director stated that the response was so great that the number of calls on the first day exceeded the school's phone system capacity. FCCJ also used a commercial teacher assessment tool to evaluate the 250 candidates who were selected from the initial screening of more than 1000 applications that met the minimum criteria for consideration. Additionally, although all the programs prepare the students for the Florida Teacher Certification Examination, FCCJ paid for the student's General Knowledge and Professional Education portions of the exam. FCCJ also included $1,500 stipends for the mentor teachers.

Each of the institutions participating in the Teach for Florida Program focused on individual aspects of the teacher production function. All estimated the costs and submitted their budgets to the DOE and were funded based on those estimates. Table 8 shows the results of the institutions' estimated actual costs and the differences between state data presented in Table 1 and school data presented in Tables 2-7.

Table 8

Adjusted Summary of Teach for Florida Program

Institution	Completers	Calculated costs	Cost/completer	Difference in cost/completer from original FLDOE data
BCC		NO DATA		
FCCJ	50	$255,422	$5,108	$ 723
FGCU	90	$125,666	$1,396	$ 229
FICF	209[a]	$314,006	$1,502	$ 192
IRCC	60	$ 86,038	$1,434	$ 299
UCF	50[a]	$101,717	$2,034	$ - 5,105
USF	29	$ 70,823	$2,442	$ - 131
Totals	488 [b]	$953,672	$1,954 Average	$ 209

[a] The original data provided by FLDOE differed from the information provided by the institution.
[b] BCC provided no data for this study. To compare only the study data, BCC completers were omitted from the totals computations

Table 8 shows reasonable variances between estimated and actual costs for creating the new teachers. Unfortunately Table 8 does not cover all of the costs involved in the project. For example, an estimated $126,960 was expended by the schools that submitted proposals but were not selected for funding. In addition, FGCU had the students purchase their books for $9,000, and FGCU and Osceola School District committed to fund additional tuition for completers for $113,725 and $31,050, respectively. No cost data are presented for BCC because no interviews were conducted. The items above add $280,735 to the Teach for Florida costs.

All of the costs discussed to this point were generated by the participating institutions or those schools attempting to become a participating institution. No mention has been made of the costs borne by the FLDOE in preparing, administering, and reporting on the Teach for Florida Project. All the costs for the Grants Management division can be allocated to sunk costs. The personnel in Grants Management are hired to deal with grants, and therefore their participation in the Teach for Florida Project is part of the normal duties assigned. However, the *Teach for Florida Project Report* states that this grant was developed and operated out of the Department of Colleges and Universities and was vetted through personnel in several other departments, including the Office of Accountability, Research, and Measurement and the Office of the Commissioner.

Additionally, three readers independently scored each proposal and then a meeting was held in Tallahassee, Florida, to select the proposals that were to be funded. Twelve individuals with requisite knowledge and background to grade the proposals served as readers. These readers were from various institutions around the state and had to travel to the capital for the meeting. An estimate of $6,000 in additional state-level costs was provided by the FLDOE supervising administrator for the Teach for Florida Project. Including all of the costs incurred outside of the direct costs from the participating institutions yields a more accurate assessment of the true cost of the Teach for Florida Project. Table 9 presents the cumulative costs for the Teach for Florida Project.

Table 9

Cumulative Cost Adjustments

Cost item	Amount
Institution estimated costs	$953,672
Broward Community College [a]	$85,385
Costs outside direct grant funding	$280,735
Florida Department of Education costs	$6,000
Total costs	$1,325,792

[a] The actual amount paid by the state to Broward Community College was added into the total as an estimate of the actual costs because cost per completer calculations include the 74 students from BCC.

Using the cumulative cost estimate and the original state number of students completing the program at the seven institutions, a new cost-per-new-teacher value of $2,431 is obtained. The *Teach for Florida Project Report* (FLDOE, 2004) stated that only 464 of those who completed their programs were hired as full-time teachers in the fall of 2003. Since "new teachers in the classroom" was the State goal for the Teach for Florida Project, one might use the value of $2,857 ($1,325,792/464) as the actual cost per new teacher.

Although costs were an overriding issue of this study, there is one further set of data that will help define the success of each of the programs. Actual placement rates for the seven programs are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Program Completion and Placement Rates

Institution	Admitted	Completers	Percent completers	Teaching contracts	Percentage of completers getting teaching contracts
BCC [a]	33	33	100	33	100
FCCJ	50	50	100	35	70
FGCU	90	90	100	71	78.9
FICF	758	213	28.1	213	100
IRCC	79	78	98.7	39	50
UCF	50	50	100	50	100
USF	30	29	96.7	23	79.3
Total	1090	543	41.6	414	76.2

[a] The data for this table are from state sources that include BCC information.

The data in Table 10 show a distinct difference in the two paradigms inherent in the Teach for Florida Project. The individual schools involved showed a 99.4% completion rate for those admitted to the programs, while the FICF project had only a 28.1% completion rate. Of those who completed the FICF program, all 213 (45.9% of all contracts from the project) obtained teaching contracts, while only 76.1% of the completers of the various school programs were hired as teachers by the end of the 2003-2004 school year. Potential causes of these differences will be discussed in Chapter Five.

Not all of the interview responses can be quantified into cost categories and not all benefits to the institutions, the state, and to the individual participants in the project

carry a direct cost benefit. Nonetheless, these valued returns on investment need to be discussed as results.

When asked what benefits the institution derived from participating in the Teach for Florida Project, most (5 of 6) of the project directors started with the benefit of the new students, but the statement was delivered in a cursory manner, almost as if it were the anticipated answer. Following that perfunctory remark, each quickly proceeded to discuss intangibles such as good media reporting of the project and the resulting good will brought about by meeting a community need. Two of the project directors stated that the project pointed out how great the demand was for alternative programs leading to certification as a K-12 teacher. The FCIF director, the only non-teaching institution involved, stated the Teach for Florida Project represented an area that was not in the FICF mission statement but fell within their charter. She was pleased that FICF had become a leader in recruitment and preparation of non-traditional teachers. All of the project directors stated that conducting the Teach for Florida Project strengthened the relationship between the institution and the supported school districts, and that yielded continuing positive interactions. For example, one project director stated that the program was so well received by the local school districts she now had make time in the follow-on program schedule for the area school principals to come in and interview the perspective teachers for positions in the principals' schools. The two community college directors stated that the Teach for Florida Project had a major impact on defining a large need in their respective communities. Each of those schools is now approved to start offering bachelor's degrees in the 2008-2009 school year, and IRCC will have 5 of the 7 approved bachelor's degree programs approved for that school in education. As previously stated,

Broward Community College did not participate in the interview process; however, BCC is also applying for authority to offer bachelor's degree programs.

Responses to the question about what policies/procedures would change if the project were repeated concentrated on three areas. First of all, more than half of the project directors wanted more time for the project. The Teach for Florida Project allowed only 30 days to prepare and submit the proposals to FLDOE, and only 3 months following award announcements to recruit, train, and deliver the new teachers to classrooms. The Teach for Florida Project was conducted on a very short timeframe, and all funds had to be expended by the end of September. Many of the school districts that the participating institutions were serving started classes in the second week of August, so even the short funding window was not the controlling time issue. Related to the short timeframe for execution of the grant requirements was the near-universal comment that more time and stricter screening procedures would improve any future program. Having such a short time budget forced institutions into rapid processing and selection, because every day spent recruiting and screening decreased available training time by a day. Several interviewees suggested that this type of program should be funded on a multi-year basis.

Five of the six responding institutions continued to offer some form of alternative program for teacher certification at the time of the interviews. The 4-year schools tend to provide the educational coursework to support students in preparing for the Professional Education section of the Florida Teacher Certification Examination (FTCE), while the community colleges and FICF concentrate on the Professional Education and the General Knowledge sections of the FTCE. The FTCE consists of three sections. In addition to the

Professional Education and General Knowledge sections mentioned above, there is a subject area exam for each of the various subjects that require certification by the state. All of the institutions defer to the individual's bachelor's degree program to have provided the knowledge base necessary to pass the subject area exam.

Many of the "lessons learned" responses focused on the selection process and paralleled the answers provided to the procedures/polices question. Rather than being redundant, the reiteration of the need to screen carefully and select only the best candidates accentuates the desire to truly provide high-quality teachers, even if they follow a non-traditional track. The strength of this recommendation from all the key informants demonstrated that the participants in the project believed that quality in the candidates was paramount and that there was sufficient demand to allow the schools to be selective. Other recommendations arising from this question were to work closely with local districts so that employment could be guaranteed to all completers and include stipends so that quality candidates who cannot afford to go 3 months without income could participate in the program.

Follow-up by the participating institutions on the program completers was spotty at best and in some instances nonexistent. Two of the schools provided some mentoring assistance during the first year, but beyond that timeframe no records or tracking of success existed at the institution level. No requirement in the request for proposals called for any tracking of program graduates, so none was made. According to state records, 376 of the program completers were still employed in 40 of the 67 counties in Florida in 2005. No information on the institution of origin is included in the state-provided data. Without those data, no comparison of the percentage of completers from each institution

can be made. For the program overall, 69% (376/547) of the new teachers created by the Teach for Florida Program were still employed as teachers in Florida 2 years later. The cost per teacher remaining from the program in 2005 is $2,540 based on grant funds expended by the FLDOE, and $3,537 based on computed actual costs.

Attempts to address the research questions that guided this investigation at its outset were thwarted by both the lack of detailed information at the institution or state level and the absence of any requirement to track and maintain records of completers beyond initial placement. A review of the research questions follows:

Project completers remaining in critical shortage areas. Although all of the participating schools' proposals stated that preference would be given to critical-shortage areas, only USF held fast to the policy of only addressing critical-need areas. USF's program was based on training all of the participants for special education classrooms. No data were available on exactly where each completer was hired and what the initial or continuing assignment was for any individual. Many of the new teachers produced by the Teach for Florida Project were in critical-need areas, but the records system in use does not allow tracking participants by name, school, and assignment so no specific answer could be derived for this guiding research question.

Differences in cost-benefit ratios between programs. Defining a "new teacher" as the benefit of the various programs, the cost-per-completer data can serve as a proxy for cost-benefit analysis. Two computations can be derived from Table 8. Using the original state reported data yields the following descriptive information:

Minimum Cost/Teacher: $1,135

Maximum Cost/Teacher $7,139

Range:	$6,004
Average Cost/Teacher	$1,745

Using the cost estimates from the interview data yields the following descriptive information:

Minimum Cost/Teacher:	$1,396
Maximum Cost/Teacher	$5,108
Range:	$3,712
Average Cost/Teacher	$1,954

The data reflect a 12% increase in the average cost/teacher when the additional costs attributed to the institutions and the 36 additional completers claimed by UCF (Platt & Crouse, 2005) are included in the computation. Without these additional teachers the average cost per teacher was $2,110.

Differences in retention rates between programs. No requirement to maintain longitudinal data on the participants in the Teach for Florida Project resulted in insufficient information being available to track the program participants by source. Therefore, retention rates between institutions could not be derived. It may be appropriate to note that although no data were maintained to determine the retention rates of the teachers hired from the various programs, information can be gleaned from Table 10 about overall retention and about program models. Three of the programs had 100% placement of completers, while the other four had placement rates between 50 and 79.3%. In a state where published data indicate the need to hire almost 20,000 teachers a year for the foreseeable future (Miller, 2007), not finding placements for program completers could be viewed as a retention failure at the outset. Failure to obtain teaching

contracts for 14.5% of the new teachers created by the Teach for Florida Project points to a flaw in the system that needs to be researched further.

Effects of program design on completion rates. If success is considered to be completion of the program, then no significant differences exist between programs. For the schools, only two candidates departed from the preparation process prior to completion, so all programs exhibited near total success. The different paradigms between FICF and the individual schools in the Teach for Florida Project provided an opportunity to examine program design on a gross scale. FICF created an online tutorial and provided directions to assist candidates through the process of following an alternative route to teacher certification. No direct training or education was provided by the FICF model. In essence, anyone with a bachelor's degree from an accredited institution who wanted to start the program was allowed in. There were no time or financial commitments on the part of the candidates, so those with even a minimal interest could begin and attempt to become a teacher through the process. The outcome of this design was that only 28.1% of those who started actually completed the program. On the positive side, 100% of the completers of the program received teaching contracts. The individual schools in the project all used selection criteria and screened applicants in manners ranging from interviews alone to conducting a full battery of diagnostic tests. The results were that 99.8% completed the program, but only 76.1% received teaching contracts. Clearly, there is a difference in the two models. Unfortunately, again the data maintained by the institutions and the state on this project do not allow closer scrutiny of the retention rates by institution, so no further measures of success can be calculated and additional comparisons between program internal processes are impossible.

Participant Perceptions and Survey Comparisons

The research question that guided phase two was whether the survey results on the 2005 *Profile of Alternative Route Teachers* differed between Teach for Florida Project participants and the national sample. In Chapter Three of this study I detailed a plan to conduct a survey of all the individuals who completed any of the seven programs funded by the Teach for Florida Project. The survey was created to be taken online to make accessing the survey easier and to minimize the time required for taking the survey itself. All of the project directors had indicated, during the interviews, that the participants had been contacted using email during the recruitment and selection process.

One of the key elements of a plan is that unforeseen events may intervene that cause a reevaluation of the original goal. Having started with a population of 547 program completers and access to the project directors who ran each of the programs, the ability to send a survey to all the participants was thought to be reasonable. Unfortunately, this failed to be the case.

As noted in phase one, one of the schools had destroyed all the records for the program when the sponsoring division was relocated to a new building. One school was able to provide only the names of the program participants without mailing or email addresses. Attempts to find addresses for these individuals through the state system failed. Another project director provided email addresses for 36 of the 90 persons who completed the program. When the survey was distributed to the addresses provided, 15 of the 36 emails were returned as undeliverable.

The remaining four institutions agreed to forward the survey to the completers so that they did not have to release names and addresses to me. In one case the original project director, who was interviewed, had subsequently left the organization. The new director and his assistants were helpful and made me an information recipient on the email distribution of the survey. Again, there was a small problem. This program had processed candidates in five separate groups, and only the first group was addressed on the distribution list. A phone call to the action person for this item resulted in an assurance that the others would be sent the survey right away. I was not made an information addressee on the follow-up email but was assured that it had been sent.

All of the participants in one of the programs were hired by a single school district. The project director forwarded the survey to the district for distribution. I was not made an addressee on the email to the participants and do not know for sure that the email was forwarded.

The sixth program discussed here received the email for forwarding but sent the request out to all of the participants by U.S. Mail. Fourteen of these were returned as undeliverable by the post office. Thirty-six individuals received a letter that was designed to be an email that asked them to click on a link (URL) that was more than 70 characters long. It is likely that few people would/did take the time to try to type the following email address:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=9L7_2b4T_2ffHJXFAxAOw_2bxL0Q_3d_3d .

Finally, one project director sent the survey request to all of the participants and made me an information addressee on the email. I do not know how many, if any, of the email addresses were returned as undeliverable. I can only be certain that 131 of the 547

potential recipients actually had a chance to receive the survey in a form that would have made it simple and easy to reply. Twenty-two actually did, so the comparison of my sample to the national sample is limited because of the inability to generalize from a small sample. The return rate for the survey in this study is between a low of 4% (22/547) and a high of 16.8% (22/131). The preceding data represent a significant finding about policy evaluation that will be discussed more thoroughly in Chapter Five.

Table 11 presents the demographic comparison of the two surveys. With the caveat that there is no statistical significance to the comparison, there are some interesting similarities and differences. The key similarities are in the areas of gender—where only one percentage point keeps the data from being an exact match—and in salary—where the data from both surveys have greater than 70% of respondents in the $30,000 to $45,000 range.

Most of the differences result from variations in program design or from the data collection problems that occurred in my survey. The national survey reported that 14% of the alternative program teachers were Hispanic or Latino. In the Florida survey, none of the respondents were Hispanic or Latino, a result that would not be expected considering 16.8% of Florida's population fall into this category (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007). Also, only 23% of the Florida sample worked in large cities, while 50% of the national sample worked in large cities. Both of these discrepancies could be attributed to the fact that for the two schools in the Teach for Florida Project that serve large cities in southern Florida where the Hispanic and Latino population is highest, none of the completers of the program received surveys.

None of the Florida participants held a bachelor's or master's degree in education, while 22% of the national survey group responded with these degrees. The Teach for Florida Project was specifically designed for individuals with non-education degrees.

Table 11

Demographic Profile Comparison

	Florida ($N = 22$)	National ($N = 2647$)
	% of participant responses	% of participant responses
Age at entry to alternative route		
18-19	32	37
30-39	18	24
40-49	27	28
50+	23	11
Gender		
Male	36	37
Female	64	63
Ethnic background		
American Indian/Alaskan Native	0	1
Asian American	0	2
Black/African American	9	12
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	0	1
Hispanic/Latino	0	14
White	82	68
Multiracial	9	2
Years of teaching experience		
1 year or less	14	27
2 years	23	26
3 years	14	17
4 years	14	10
5 years	26	7
More than 5 years	9	13
Highest academic degree held		
Bachelor in education	0	3
Bachelor in other field	68	57
Master in education	0	19

Master in other field	23	18
Doctorate in education	4	0
Doctorate in other field	0	1
Law degree	4	1
Other	0	1
Type community teaching in		
Rural areas (less than 10,000)	18	8
Small town (10,000 – 19,999)	6	6
Small city (20,000 – 49,000)	12	10
Medium city (50,000-249,999)	35	16
Large city (250,000+)	23	50
Suburban or outside central city	6	30
Grade level teaching in		
Pre-K	0	4
Elementary/Kindergarten	22	36
Middle/Junior high	22	30
Senior high	50	30
Other (Administration)	6	0
Salary		
Less than $25,000	11[a]	2
$25,000-29,999	0	6
$30,000-34,999	17	28
$35,000-39,000	44	32
$40,000-44,999	11	20
$45,000-49,999	6	9
$50.000-54,999	6	2
$55,000+	6	2
Subjects teaching		
General Elementary	10	22
Mathematics	15	20
Reading	15	10
Science	20	28
English	15	Not Reported
Social Studies	5	Not Reported
Vocational/Technical	0	2
Special Education, all	10	42
Other	10	0
Main activity one year prior to program entry		
Working outside of education	67	47
Working in education (not teaching)	14	5
Working in education (substitute)	5	10

Student	9	12
Military service	0	9
Teaching (not certified)	0	7
Out of labor market/unemployed	0	5
Other	5	4

[a] Florida has a minimum of $30,000 for an annual salary for full-time teachers. The data reporting current salaries of less than $25,000 were from individuals who had left teaching.

Participants were asked their opinions on how well the Teach for Florida Project prepared them and how they view themselves as teachers. Table 12 provides the compiled data for this set of questions. Again there are similarities and differences, but in this area there are two comparisons that may not be explained by program design and data collection problems.

The national and the Florida groups align well in most of the areas examined in the table; however, several variations merit discussion. The Florida teachers value the mobility of the teaching profession as a reason for staying in teaching more than 3 to 1 over national survey (36% to 10%). In satisfaction with current textbooks, again the Florida response of 75% was greater than the national sample, where only 58% were satisfied with their textbooks.

An area of potential concern is shown in the Florida respondents' opinions on both guidance from a mentor and school-based personnel. Both of these areas were more than 25% below the national response. Studies by Richard Ingersoll (1996, 2001a, 2001b) and others have shown that mentoring of new teachers, regardless of entry program, is an essential element to retention. Having low satisfaction in these two areas may indicate a weakness in the program that needs to be addressed, although more research would be necessary to draw that conclusion.

Additionally, in the Florida survey, 86% of the respondents had completed 1-12 college credits as part of the program, while the national survey reported 66% with 13 or more college credits. The Teach for Florida Project was implemented in accordance with FLDOE requirements for alternative route preparation and provided only initial college credits as part of the abbreviated time period specified in the request for proposal, which may have skewed these data.

Table 12

Preparation and Teaching

	Florida ($N = 22$)	National ($N = 647$)
	% of participant responses	% of participant responses
Would you have become a teacher if an alternative route were not available?		
No	43	47
Yes	24	28
Not sure	33	25
Main reasons for entering/staying in teaching (select all that apply)	entering / staying	entering / staying
Desire to work with young people	67 / 64	61 / 62
Significance of education in society	52 / 64	42 / 45
Interest in subject matter field	57 / 57	27 / 27
Long summer vacation	38 / 57	22 / 24
Spend more time with family	29 / 36	20 / 20
Job security	10 / 21	20 / 20
Sense of freedom in classroom	19 / 21	11 / 19
Employment mobility	19 / 36	12 / 10
Need a second income in family	4 / 7	5 / 5
Financial rewards	5 / 14	7 / 5
One of a few professions open to me	14 / 0	5 / 3
Influence of college counselor or teacher	19 / 0	5 / 3
Very and somewhat satisfied with each aspect of teaching?		
Job overall	92	89
General working conditions	92	72

Relationship with students	100	95
Relationship with parents	92	82
Relationship with principals	75	88
Relationship with other teachers	92	94
Sense of freedom and classroom autonomy	92	79
Salary	42	44
Present curriculum	75	71
Present textbooks	75	58
Status of teachers in community	67	56
How long do you plan to stay in teaching?		
One year	0	3
2 years	0	3
3 years	7	3
4-5 years	7	10
6-9 years	14	9
10-14 years	7	11
15 or more	29	14
As long as I am able	21	24
Undecided	14	24
Very and somewhat satisfied with TFF/alternative certification program.		
Receiving a teacher's salary & benefits	75	92
Being able to teach while getting certified	100	93
Length of program	95	95
Out-of-pocket costs	100	87
Convenience of course schedule	90	85
TFF program fit my lifestyle	90	79
Spend more time with your family	70	65
Guidance from a mentor	40	67
School-based personnel	40	69
Guidance from college faculty	50	46
How competent do you feel in these areas?		
Ability to teach subject matter	68	80
Ability to motivate students	58	66
Ability to manage time	47	66
Ability to manage classroom	42	66
Ability to handle classroom discipline	42	63
Ability to organize instruction	58	70
Ability to deal with fellow teachers	63	78
Ability to deal with administration	52	68
Did you take college credit education course?		
Yes	67	61
No	33	39

How many credits did you earn in your program?		
1-6	43	14
7-12	43	20
13-18	0	10
19-24	0	6
25-30	7	7
31+	0	25
Don't remember	7	18
Very and somewhat satisfied with the following parts of your development as a teacher.		
Teaching full-time as teacher of record	88	92
Working with a mentor teacher	63	69
Working with other district staff	44	66
Working with college faculty on college campus	56	33
Working with college faculty at your school	19	19
Taking college campus-based courses in education methods/pedagogy	44	48

Table 13 provides data that report perceptions on the amount and quality of support the participants received from their Teach for Florida institution as well as the schools systems in which they worked. The significant data from Table 13 are that, with the exception of the questions on mentor teacher and the participant's principal, the dominant answer on frequency of support in each category was "Never," for both the Florida and national surveys. These data may result from teacher development being considered a local—even building-level—responsibility, but further research will be necessary to substantiate that hypothesis.

In the mentor teacher area, the Florida data showed 46% of the participants getting mentor support twice per month or less, while 70% of the national survey reported mentor support of once a week or more. These data are consistent with the responses in Table 12 about guidance from a mentor or other school-based personnel and

may represent an area needing attention in Florida. When reporting on the frequency of principal support, 31% of the Florida respondents interacted with their principal at least once per week, which is identical to the national sample.

Table 13

Program and Teaching Support

	Florida ($N = 22$)	National ($N = 2647$)
	% of participant responses	% of participant responses
Mentor teacher frequency of support		
Never	16	8
All day, every day	16	6
A few hours a day	5	8
Several hours per week	10	25
Once per week	21	23
Twice per month	5	10
Once per month	10	8
Once every two months	10	3
Once a year	5	1
School principal frequency of support		
Never	47	18
All day, every day	5	3
A few hours a day	0	2
Several hours per week	10	10
Once per week	16	16
Twice per month	5	10
Once per month	10	12
Once every two months	5	5
Once a year	0	5
College instructors frequency of support		
Never	67	44
All day, every day	5	1
A few hours a day	0	1
Several hours per week	5	13
Once per week	5	13
Twice per month	11	5
Once per month	0	9
Once every two months	0	4
Once a year	0	2
Non-college instructors frequency of support		
Never	65	46

All day, every day	6	1
A few hours a day	6	2
Several hours per week	6	11
Once per week	0	12
Twice per month	6	8
Once per month	12	9
Once every two months	0	3
Once a year	0	1
Public/private agency personnel frequency of support		
Never	78	76
All day, every day	0	1
A few hours a day	0	0
Several hours per week	5	3
Twice per month	5	3
Once per month	11	4
Once every two months	0	2
Once a year	0	2
State agency personnel frequency of support		
Never	89	74
All day, every day	0	1
A few hours a day	0	0
Several hours per week	0	2
Once per week	0	2
Twice per month	5	3
Once per month	5	4
Once every two months	0	2
Once a year	0	2

A primary indicator of the success of any program is to what degree the participants will recommend the program to others interested in similar training. Table 14 presents the data answering this question. The raw data demonstrate strong support for alternative route programs both in Florida and nationally. It is important to reiterate that although 70% represents a high level of belief that the programs were worth completing, 92% of the Florida participants who were still teaching when surveyed would recommend the program that they experienced. Ninety-two percent represents the true comparison, because only currently working alternatively prepared teachers were surveyed in the national sample.

Table 14

Program Recommendation

	Florida ($N = 22$)	National ($N = 2647$)
	% of participant responses	% of participant responses
Would you recommend your program to others considering becoming teachers?		
Yes	70[a]	82
No	20	3
Maybe	10	15

[a] The Florida survey consisted of individuals who had left teaching after completing the alternative certification program as well as those still teaching; 92% of the individuals still teaching answered yes to this question and none answered no. The national survey consisted only of individuals who were currently teaching.

Table 15 provides insight into how willing participants were to relocate to areas where teachers may be in greater demand. Immediately the fact that only 6% of the Florida respondents were willing to move to a large city stands out. These data are most likely highly skewed, as participants from two of the Teach for Florida schools supporting large cities were not surveyed at all and the third school sent out the survey by mail which resulted in the problem discussed in the introduction to phase two.

A more intriguing finding is that 57% of the Florida respondents were willing to leave the state to find employment in education, which is 30% higher than their willingness to move within the state. Why would the same group of people be far more willing to move out of the state than to move within it? Even though this is a very small sample, this could represent an area that needs to be examined further.

Although not discussed extensively in the literature, some opponents of alternative routes to teaching have proposed that many of the individuals who seek this

path to teaching are frequent job changers who will not stay in the profession. Data from both surveys tend to refute this claim. In the Florida survey 75% of the respondents indicated that they had changed careers three or less times, while the percentage was 80 in the national sample.

The final two questions presented here give some indication of the general mobility of the teaching population. The data for Florida and for the national survey show that slightly more than 40% of respondents earned their undergraduate college degrees within 150 miles of their birthplace. These data may be representative of the power of in-state versus out-of-state tuition differentials more than an indication of mobility in general. However, when compared with the responses to whether one taught within 150 miles of where they were born, there may be more substance than just tuition costs. In the national survey, there was only a 3% difference between those who went to college within 150 miles of where they were born and those who teach within that distance. No information is available to track the overlap in the percentages, so it cannot be assumed that about 40% of the nation's teachers remain within 150 miles of their homes, but it might be interesting to examine further. In the Florida sample, only 10% of the teachers taught within 150 miles of their birthplace. This finding may be a result of Florida being one of the fastest-growing states over the last decade.

Table 15

Mobility and Willingness to Relocate

	Florida ($N = 22$)	National ($N = 2647$)
	% of participant responses	% of participant responses
What type of community would you be willing to teach in? (check all that apply)		
Rural area (less than 10,000)	63	43
Small town (10,000-19,999)	79	52
Small city (20,000-49,999)	79	63
Medium city (50,000-249,999)	68	66
Large city (250,000+)	6	66
Suburban area or outside central city	53	53
How likely would you be to move from where you live now to where the demand for teachers is greatest? (very + somewhat likely)		
To rural area in state	27	31
To urban area in state	27	36
Out of state	57	31[a]
How many career changes have you made in your life so far?		
None	0	9
One	20	33
Two	20	27
Three	35	20
Four	5	6
Five	5	2
More than five	5	2
Did you complete your undergraduate college education within 150 miles of the place where you were born?		
Yes	43	41
No	57	59
Are you teaching within 150 miles of where you were born?		
Yes	10	38
No	90	62

[a] The Florida survey did not separate leaving the state by rural and urban areas as the national survey did. The percentage for the urban area was used here because it was the larger value.

Chapter Summary

The data collection process for this study has provided considerable insight into the alternative routes to teacher certification in Florida as well as the policy implications of such a large program. Interviewing the project directors about the process allowed a greater understanding of their perspectives as well as being informed on actual costs and numbers of applicants. Although a great deal of data was collected and evaluated, a lack of a detailed evaluation plan calling for specific data collection limited the results of this case study.

The process of conducting the survey provided an understanding of pitfalls in the system as well as important data that might inform FLDOE planners of future grants. Finding that program completers were not required to maintain contact with the original institution or the FLDOE proved to make contacting potential survey candidates difficult and limited the response rate. Additionally, tracking respondents back to the institution of origin became impractical. These issues will be addressed further in Chapter Five.

Chapter Five:

Conclusions

The current study examined the Teach for Florida Project in the context of the policy actions that made the project possible and necessary. Determining if the policy was effective in meeting its goal of increasing the pool of available teachers for the fall of 2003 was a central theme of the research. The Teach for Florida Project was initiated by the Florida Department of Education (FLDOE), Division of Colleges and Universities, and administered as a competitive grant. The project was designed to help alleviate the increasing demand for teachers brought about by the passing of Constitutional Amendment 9, Florida's Amendment to Reduce Class Size in November 2002, and the continuing population growth in the state, and was consistent with legislative action taken in 2001 that added language authorizing state direction of alternative methods of teacher preparation in Florida. The *Teach for Florida Project Report* (FLDOE, 2004) stated the purpose of the project was to "increase the pool of highly qualified teachers for fall, 2003, and subsequent years" (p. 3). FLDOE envisioned attracting candidates from four areas and placed the following emphasis on recruitment:

1. Students in non-education baccalaureate degree programs, especially in areas in high demand in K-12 schools, such as mathematics, science, reading, exceptional education, English for speakers of other languages, foreign languages, technology education/industrial arts

2. Recent graduates holding non-education degrees in high-demand fields
3. Displaced professionals with baccalaureate degrees in fields such as engineering and information technology
4. Other baccalaureate degree holders interested in a career change to teaching.

The clear purpose of the Teach for Florida Project was to increase the number of available teachers in critical shortage areas, defined in the project report as high-demand fields, but allowing for inclusion of individuals who held baccalaureate degrees in other areas needed in the public schools. One significant element of the project was that individuals who completed the accelerated training would be moved into the state or a district competency-based alternative preparation program. The *Teach for Florida Project Report* (FLDOE, 2004) stated, "An additional benefit of moving 'Teach for Florida' participants into the alternative certification programs would be that they would receive mentoring during their induction period" (p. 3).

The Teach for Florida Request for Proposals (RFP) was distributed on March 14, 2003, and 39 institutions indicated interest in the project. When the April 15 deadline arrived, 23 proposals were delivered for consideration. Of these, 19 were scored as fundable and 7 institutions were actually selected for grants. The funded institutions consisted of three state universities, three state community colleges and the Florida Independent College Fund, a nonprofit consortium of private colleges and universities in Florida. The RFP did not allow private organizations to submit proposals unless the organization was partnered with a public or nonprofit institution because it is against FLDOE policy to award grants to for-profit entities.

The Teach for Florida RFP called for creative designs to accelerate the recruitment, selection, and training of individuals to be ready to enter Florida classrooms in the fall of 2003. At the time of the project most school districts in Florida started classes in August; many in the second week of the month. On May 1, 2003, the seven institutions were notified and the first installments of grant funds were released. Recruitment began and the institutions, which had only 30 days to prepare and submit their proposals, now had 13 weeks to conduct the recruitment, selection and training prior to the start of classes in August.

Summary of Findings

This study examined the effectiveness of the FLDOE policy implementation of the Teach for Florida Project. The following research questions guided the study:

1. Did the teachers who completed the Teach for Florida Project remain in an area identified by Florida as a critical shortage for at least 2 years after initial hiring?
2. Did the cost-benefit ratios of the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project differ?
3. Did the retention rates among the seven programs of the Teach for Florida Project differ?
4. Was program design (e.g., selection criteria, training method, and training schedule) related to the success of candidates among the Teach for Florida sites?
5. Did the results on the 2005 Alternative Route Teachers Survey differ between Teach for Florida Project participants and the national sample?

To determine the elements that contribute to answering Questions 1 through 4, the project directors from the participating institutions were interviewed. To evaluate Question 5, the individuals who completed the programs at the seven institutions were surveyed. Drawing on the data from Chapter 4, each question will be discussed with regard to results and the policy implications of those results.

The first research question addressed how well the Teach for Florida Project attracted and retained new teachers for critical shortage areas. The structure of the record keeping for the Teach for Florida Project was such that a determination of the exact composition, by subject taught, of the 69% of the program completers who remained teaching into their second year was not possible. From Table 11, 60% of the survey respondents reported teaching subjects designated critical shortage areas in 2003. Given the exceptionally short timeframe the institutions had to prepare and conduct the programs, achieving a 60% success rate in attracting new teachers to critical areas is commendable.

The Teach for Florida Project presented great potential for comparison of multiple methods of recruiting and preparing teachers through alternative programs. The fact that the data were unavailable should not be a surprise. Fowler (2000) and Cooper et al. (2004) both addressed the lack of evaluation planning in educational policy design. To get significant information from policy implementations, it is necessary to plan for the required data collection as part of the project and include data requirements in the request for proposal. Additionally, funding for the data collection should be included if the collection effort is extensive or the collection requirements are specified as "in kind" but required for completion of the grant/contract requirements. The inclusion of data

collection requirements and funding for data collection was not part of the Teach for Florida Project RFP.

Examining the cost-benefit ratios among the seven institutions met with marginally more success. As shown in Tables 3 and 10, calculations of the individual institution costs were made and differences were seen. From the state-reported data, Table 1, the range of costs-per-completer was $1,310 to $7,139 with a mean of $1,828. From the calculated cost-per-completer using the estimates from the project directors, Table 8, the range was $1,396 to $5,108 with a mean of $1,954. The data presented in Chapter Four demonstrate that most of the cost differences could be accounted for in the various methods that the institutions chose for their delivery systems. Although there are computations reported with some degree of precision, it is doubtful that the accuracy of the calculations would stand up to critical analysis. I faithfully followed the same collection procedures for each interview and recorded the information provided, but every one of the project directors stated, in some form, that they were providing their best guess at the percentage of time and pay level of personnel involved. From the interview process, it is my opinion that with the exception of knowing that courses were taught as part of regular faculty load or by an adjunct professor, the rest of the information provided was largely estimates based on memory and subject to some distortion over time. This is not a criticism of the project directors. Each made every effort to be as precise as possible. There was no requirement in the RFP for maintaining records at a level that would allow follow-on examination of project costs, and therefore none were maintained.

A determination of the individual retention rates of the seven programs within the Teach for Florida Project was unattainable. The individual institutions did not have a requirement to maintain contact with or follow the progress of those individuals who were in their program beyond the initial hiring period. The state data system is not set up to track teachers by individual education source, although the state was able to provide the number of teachers having earned certification through the Teach for Florida project who were still teaching in 2005. The 69% of program completers remaining 2 years after initial hiring is consistent with the literature on new teacher retention. Again there was no requirement in the project RFP for tracking participants and no requirement for the participants to maintain an address with the state for any length of time following the state providing funding for the participants' preparation.

The lack of any tracking method of the individuals who completed the Teach for Florida Project prevented an analytical examination of the various program designs between the seven institutions. Selection criteria covered a wide range. One institution took all the candidates who met the minimum requirement of a bachelor's degree from an accredited college or university. Another devised a process to cull the best 250 applicants from more than 1,400 and then administered diagnostic tests to find the 50 candidates for the program. Most of the project directors interviewed recommended concentrating on selection criteria. The short duration of the project led to creative delivery systems. One program created online tutorials to help candidates pass the Florida Teacher Certification Exams and streamlined the process of applying to the state for temporary teacher certification. One institution used professional development training and provided no college credits as part of the program. Most of the institutions provided accelerated

college courses at the undergraduate or graduate level. Although having no tracking and monitoring system built in to the project precluded examining internal differences in the various programs, two distinct paradigms are discernable from the data. All of the individual schools involved in the project created course credit or continuing education courses to fulfill the training requirements. The Florida Independent College Fund (FICF), a consortium of private colleges and universities in Florida, developed a program that placed tutorials online to prepare candidates for the Florida Teacher Certification Examinations and provided assistance in navigating the process for completing the requirements for teacher certification through alternative means.

The difference in the two paradigms is demonstrated in the data presented in Table 10. The individual schools interviewed and screened to varying degrees and had a program completion rate of near 99%. FICF essentially took all those who applied who had the prerequisite bachelor's degree and allowed them to complete or not. The completion rate for FICF was just over 28%. When it came to getting teaching contracts, the individual schools achieved a placement rate of 76%, while FICF placed 100% of the program completers. Because percentages alone can be misleading, actual teachers produced will help put these numbers in perspective. FICF may have had more than 500 candidates fail to complete the program, but the 213 who did complete all obtained teaching contracts and accounted for 45% of all contracts. Had data been available to conduct a fine-grained analysis of the retention rates between the two paradigms, some indication of the relative cost effectiveness might have emerged. Under the existing circumstances, it appears a golden opportunity was lost.

The final research question addressed comparing Teach for Florida completers with a national sample of alternative route teachers conducted by the National Center for Education Information. Although the Teach for Florida sample size is too small to allow strong generalizations, the comparison did provide some potential areas for research in Florida.

According to Richard Ingersoll (2001a, 2001b), mentoring of new teachers plays a vital part in teacher retention. As stated in the introduction to this chapter, one of the reasons for including the Teach for Florida Project completers in the Florida competency-based alternative route certification programs was to ensure that they would have mentors in the first year. Survey results show that only 40% of the Teach for Florida teachers were somewhat or very satisfied with guidance from mentors. Additionally, 46% of the Teach for Florida teachers reported the frequency of mentor support as twice a month or less. The small sample size does not allow drawing inferences, but there may be a disconnect between what FLDOE believed was happening with the mentoring of new teachers and what the new teachers experienced.

The area of mobility of teachers may point to another concern worth investigating further. Fifty-seven percent of the respondents were willing to leave the state to find employment in education. By itself this datum may not be significant because of the small sample, but when tied to the 58% of respondents who were somewhat or very dissatisfied with their pay there may be a need to research this further.

Fowler (2000) and Cooper et al. (2004) stated that evaluation of policy is often of low priority, done in a cursory manner, or allowed to be overcome by the needs of the moment and not done at all. The experience of conducting this study would lead me to

support that opinion. No requirements for program evaluation were included in the RFP, nor were any requirements for keeping records that would allow close scrutiny of the programs included. The policy development model presented in Chapter Two showed formal evaluation as a responsibility of the government agency that has implementation authority. In the case of the Teach for Florida Project, no long-term or fine-grained evaluation was planned for, and no funds were allocated to evaluation.

To be fair, the Teach for Florida Project was planned, distributed, funded, implemented and completed in about 8 months. This timeframe restricted the focus of those crafting both the RFP and the proposals to the immediate necessity of meeting the goal of the project. Examining the Teach for Florida Project shows how creative and dedicated the education planners were. On short deadlines FLDOE staff created a plan that would allow institutions to compete for funding on a pay-for-performance grant. Twenty-three responded and seven were funded. The net result was that approximately 550 potential new teachers were created at a cost of less than $3,000 each. Traditional teacher education programs last almost 2 years and cost about $7,000 in tuition alone. Yes, the candidates in the Teach for Florida Project had to have earned a bachelor's degree to enter the program, but at the time of entry to the program that was a sunk cost for them and for the state if their degrees were from state schools. The bottom line of this research is not a criticism of the project. The Teach for Florida Project was successful at meeting its stated goal of having more teachers available for Florida classrooms in the fall of 2003. Was there more that could have been learned if one were able to trace the details of each program and compare them? Yes. There may be evaluation criteria that

should be incorporated into all FLDOE grant RFPs that exceed a minimum dollar value. These ideas will be discussed in the next section.

Recommendations for Policy Makers

The following recommendations are based on the premise that if one wants to be able to analyze the results of a project, then some planning for the analysis must be done prior to project implementation. The recommendations are worded for consideration at the state level.

1. For all grants or projects designed to recruit and/or retain teachers that will expend greater than $250,000, a data analysis plan should be included in the request for proposals or specifically noted as not necessary. The dollar amount of this recommendation is somewhat arbitrary, but believed to be in a range of acceptability. The state does not need to expend funds on small projects from which the total number of participants would yield samples too small to be useful. Some projects may have higher expenditure but not be of a type that would yield needed information. These projects would be allowed to state that fact in the project plan and omit evaluation if properly justified. Fowler (2000) and MacManus and Herrington (2005) have pointed out the evaluation of educational projects is a weak link in the policy chain, and implementation of this recommendation or one similar could strengthen the educational policy process in Florida.
2. Create a generic survey for administration to all candidates entering a state-funded program leading to becoming a teacher of record in K-12 public

schools in Florida. Any individual receiving state funding for their teacher preparation, including all students enrolled in traditional education programs at state colleges and universities, would be given the survey and a database could be generated to evaluate trends and factors contributing to success. These data would be used to evaluate persistence by institution, by program type, and by attitudes held at entry. Private institutions, such as the Florida Independent College Fund members, could be invited to participate in building the state teacher database.

3. Create uniform standards and guidance for institutions conducting teacher training on what data must be maintained and for what duration. The results of this study could have provided greater insight had necessary data been collected and maintained by the originating institutions. It is my observation that the institutions would collect and maintain data if there were clear directions on what information was needed and for how long it should be available. The ability to evaluate projects is data-specific; however there is no current requirement in place to keep the data that will allow for analysis to support future policy decisions.
4. If a project requires extensive data collection beyond routine demographics, grades, and courses, include funding for data collecting in the grant. Data for some large projects may require additional effort to collect and maintain. If a project falls into this category then including funding for the additional work will increase the probability of obtaining usable consistent data from all

reporting entities. To paraphrase James Sinegal, CEO of COSTCO Wholesale Corporation (Shapiro, 2004), you will get what you pay for.

5. Require participants who receive state funding for their teacher training to maintain contact information with FLDOE for a defined period following completion of training. Three years is recommended, as that would allow follow-on data collection for retention purposes. Keep this simple, such as a once-a-year email to a specified email address so that the process is not a burden.
6. Establish closer working relations with supported school districts so that program completers can be guaranteed a teaching contract. Fifteen percent of the Teach for Florida completers were not initially hired as full-time teachers for the fall of 2003. Miller (2007) projected approximately 20,000 new teachers will be needed each year for the next decade. If 15% of the potential pool of new teachers are not offered contracts that will increase the demand by approximately 3,000 (20,000 x 0.15) teachers per year.

Recommendations for Further Research

The lack of available data to conduct a fine-grained analysis of the Teach for Florida Project along with the survey results leaves several important questions unanswered. To gain a greater understanding of alternative programs leading to teacher certification and policy evaluation requirements, further study is necessary. The results of this study imply research is needed in the following areas of evaluation:

1. The quality and retention between teachers who prepared through alternative programs and traditionally prepared teachers. Arguably, the evaluation of this area is a requirement of Florida Statute 231.625 which requires FLDOE to develop and implement a system to identify best practice to retain high-quality teachers.
2. The quality and retention between alternatively prepared teachers who were trained in a classroom setting versus those trained using the online model. This study revealed two distinct paradigms for alternative preparation. Although the data were not available to track retention, and the quality of new teachers who were hired through the project was beyond the scope of this study, an understanding of these issues could lead to more efficient and effective approaches to alternative preparation of teachers.
3. The effectiveness of mentoring in Florida alternative preparation programs and, by extension, in traditional teacher preparation programs. The *Teach for Florida: Project Report* (FLDOE, 2004), stated that an advantage of moving the Teach for Florida completers into the district alternative-preparation programs was that they would receive mentoring during their induction periods. Survey results from this study indicate that mentoring may not be accomplishing all that is planned or hoped for. Ingersoll (2001b) stated that mentoring was one of the key elements in new teacher retention, and gaining detailed information on how mentoring is conducted in Florida may contribute to higher retention rates for new teachers.

4. The attractiveness of teaching as a profession in Florida. FLDOE has stated that the state will need approximately 20,000 teachers per year between 2007 and 2017 (Miller, 2007). Survey results in this study indicate that teaching as a profession may not be considered an attractive or "first choice" profession in Florida. More detailed information in this area could lead to creating programs that make teaching more attractive as a career.
5. Alternative preparation programs across multiple states. This study was confined to examination of alternative preparation programs as a direct linkage to policy in Florida. Many states have similar programs, and a multi-state study may provide assistance to all states developing alternative preparation programs by pointing out successful strategies as well as potential pitfalls.

Conclusion

Although often stymied by incomplete or missing data, this study highlights the success of the Teach for Florida Project. The project was planned, implemented, and administered on a short timeframe with a specific objective: to increase the number of available teachers for the fall 2003 school year. The Teach for Florida Project effectively met this goal. More than 500 teachers were prepared for the classroom in 3 months. Unfortunately, this study also demonstrates that Fowler (2000) and MacManus and Herrington (2005) were correct in their criticism of a lack of evaluation in educational policy analysis. To get the most value from any endeavor one must learn from the undertaking. There is much to be learned from both the positive and negative aspects of

any project. Policy makers need to recognize that bad results of a project do not necessarily mean failure. Not knowing what the outcomes of projects were can have greater impact on future planning than the short term admission that a project did not achieve the desired results.

Appendix A

Interview Questions

1. How many people worked on preparing the proposal? What are the pay grades of each of these workers? How many hours did each of these persons spend on this effort?
2. Who was assigned to administer the project? What percentage of this person's time was spent administering the grant? What was the pay grade of this individual?
3. Were there any administrative support provided for the grant? If so, how many persons supported the grant? What percentage of their time was allocated to the grant? What was the pay grade of each staff member?
4. Who screened the applications? What was the pay grade of each screener? How many hours did each spend screening applications?
5. If candidates were interviewed after initial screening, how many persons conducted the interviews? What were their pay grades? How many hours did each spend conducting interviews and evaluating candidates?
6. How were candidates notified of admission/non-admission to the program? Who did the notification? If letters were sent, how many candidates were notified? Who wrote/signed the letters? How many hours did they spend in notifying candidates?
7. Did you hold an introduction meeting for those accepted to the program? Who set up the meeting? How many hours did they spend working on this meeting? How were the attendees notified of the meeting? Was it a separate mailing?
8. Who taught the classes? What percentage of their time was assigned to the project? What was the pay grade for each of the instructors?
9. Where were the classes held? Did you rent space or use existing space? If space was rented what was the cost of rented space? If existing space was utilized, what is the per hour rental charge to use the space by an outside agency? How many classroom hours were used by the program?
10. Were books and notes provided to the students? If so, what was the total cost of the required books? If not, did the students have to purchase their own books? What was the total cost of the required materials?
11. Were there any other costs for this program that have not been covered in the above questions?
12. What benefits did your institution gain from participation in the Teach for Florida Project?
13. What, if any, procedures/policies would you change if you were to do this project again?
14. Have you continued to offer an alternative route program at your institution? Why/why not?
15. What "lessons learned" would you offer to others starting a similar program?
16. Have you conducted follow-up on your Teach for Florida completers? If so, is there aggregated information that I can have access to?
17. Are there any other comments/observations that you would like to share?

Appendix B

Survey Questions

Participant Survey (Adapted from National Center for Education Information NCEI 2005 survey, sponsored by U.S. Dept. of Ed.)

1. Are you still employed in education? _____ Yes Subject/position_____
_____ No Date last employed in education _____

Demographic Information

2. What was your age on entry into the Teach for Florida (TFF) program?
____ 18-29
____ 30-39
____ 40-49
____ 50+

3. What is your gender?
____ Male
____ Female

4. What is your race/ethnic background?
____ American Indian or Alaskan Native
____ Asian American
____ Black or African American
____ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
____ Hispanic or Latino
____ White
____ Multiracial

5. Highest academic degree held on entry to the TFF program?
____ Bachelor in education
____ Bachelor in other field
____ Master in education
____ Master in other field
____ Doctorate in education
____ Doctorate in other field
____ Law degree
____ Medical degree
____ Other

6. Type of community currently teaching in?
____ Rural area (less than 10,000)
____ Small town (10,000-19,999)
____ Small city (20,000- 49,999)
____ Medium city (50,000- 249,999)

____ Large city (250,000+)
____ Suburban or outside central city

7. Grade level teaching?
____ Pre-K
____ Elementary/kindergarten
____ Middle/junior high
____ Senior high
____ Other; please explain _____

8. Primary Subjects Teaching
____ General Elementary
____ Mathematics
____ Reading
____ Biology
____ Chemistry
____ Geology
____ Physical Science
____ Physics
____ General and other science
____ Social Studies
____ English
____ Vocational-technical
____ Special Education, general
____ Emotionally disturbed
____ Mentally retarded
____ Speech/language impaired
____ Mildly handicapped
____ Specific learning disabilities
____ Other; please explain _____

9. Other Subjects Teaching
____ General Elementary
____ Mathematics
____ Reading
____ Biology
____ Chemistry
____ Geology
____ Physical Science
____ Physics
____ General and other science
____ Social Studies
____ English
____ Vocational-technical
____ Special Education, general
____ Emotionally disturbed
____ Mentally retarded
____ Speech/language impaired
____ Mildly handicapped
____ Specific learning disabilities
____ Other; please explain _____

10. Years of teaching experience
    - ____ 1 year or less
    - ____ 2 years
    - ____ 3 years
    - ____ 4 years
    - ____ 5 years
    - ____ more than five years

11. Salary
    - ____ Less than $25,000
    - ____ $25,000-29,999
    - ____ $30,000-34,999
    - ____ $35,000-35,999
    - ____ $40,000-44,999
    - ____ $45,000-49,999
    - ____ $50,000-54,999
    - ____ $55,000-59,999
    - ____ $60,000-64,999
    - ____ $65,000-69,999
    - ____ $70,000 or more

Survey Questions

12. Main activity one year prior to beginning TFF program
    - ____ Working outside of education
    - ____ Working in education field (not teaching)
    - ____ Working in education field (substitute teaching)
    - ____ Student
    - ____ Military service
    - ____ Out of labor market
    - ____ Other

13. Would you have become a teacher if an alternative route were not available?
    - ____ No
    - ____ Yes, I would have returned to school for traditional training
    - ____ Yes, I would have found work in a private school of setting not requiring certification.
    - ____ Not sure

14. Main reasons for entering teaching (Select all that apply)
    - ____ Desire to work with young people
    - ____ Significance of education in society
    - ____ Interest in subject matter field
    - ____ Long summer vacation
    - ____ Influence of a prior K-12 teacher
    - ____ Desire a change in work experience
    - ____ Spend more time with family
    - ____ Job security
    - ____ Sense of freedom in classroom

_____ Employment mobility
_____ Need a second income in family
_____ Financial rewards
_____ One of a few professions open to me
_____ Never really considered anything else
_____ Influence of college counselor or teacher

15. Main reasons for staying in teaching (Select all that apply, skip to 17 if not teaching)
_____ Desire to work with young people
_____ Significance of education in society
_____ Interest in subject matter field
_____ Long summer vacation
_____ Spend more time with family
_____ Job security
_____ Sense of freedom in classroom
_____ Employment mobility
_____ Need a second income in family
_____ Financial rewards
_____ No longer in teaching

16. How satisfied are you with each of the following aspects of teaching?

	Very satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Not sure
16.1 Job overall	0	0	0	0	0
16.2 General working conditions	0	0	0	0	0
16.3 Relationship with students	0	0	0	0	0
16.4 Relationship with parents	0	0	0	0	0
16.5 Relationship with principal	0	0	0	0	0
16.6 Relationship with other teachers	0	0	0	0	0
16.7 Sense of freedom and classroom autonomy	0	0	0	0	0
16.8 Salary	0	0	0	0	0
16.9 Present curriculum	0	0	0	0	0
16.10 Present textbooks	0	0	0	0	0

16.11 Status of teachers in the community	0	0	0	0	0

17. How long do you plan to teach in K-12 ?

___ one year
___ 2 years
___ 3 years
___ 4-5 years
___ 6-9 years
___ 10-14 years
___ 15 or more years
___ undecided at this time
___ as long as I am able

18. What do you expect to be doing five years from now?

___Teaching K-12
___Employed in education, other than teaching
___Teaching postsecondary
___Employed in an occupation outside of education
___Retired
___ Homemaking/child rearing full time
___Fulltime college student
___Other: Explain_____

19. Reasons for choosing the TFF program (alternative certification)

	Very Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not at all important	Not sure
19.1 Receiving a teacher's salary and benefits	0	0	0	0	0
19.2 Being able to teach while getting certified	0	0	0	0	0
19.3 Length of program	0	0	0	0	0
19.4 Out of pocket costs	0	0	0	0	0
19.5 Convenience of course schedule	0	0	0	0	0
19.6 TFF program fit my lifestyle	0	0	0	0	0
19.7 Spend more time with your family	0	0	0	0	0
19.8 Guidance from a mentor	0	0	0	0	0
19.9 School based personnel	0	0	0	0	0

19.10 Guidance from college faculty	0	0	0	0	0

20. How competent do you feel in these areas?

	Very competent	Somewhat competent	Not very competent	Not at all competent	Not sure
20.1 Ability to teach subject matter	0	0	0	0	0
20.2 Ability to motivate students	0	0	0	0	0
20.3 Ability to manage time	0	0	0	0	0
20.4 Ability to manage classroom	0	0	0	0	0
20.5 Ability to handle classroom discipline	0	0	0	0	0
20.6 Ability to organize instruction	0	0	0	0	0
20.7 Ability to deal with fellow teachers	0	0	0	0	0
20.8 Ability to deal with administration	0	0	0	0	0

21. Did you actually teach as a part of your alternative certification program?

____ Yes, full time as the teacher of record
____ Yes, a few hours a day
____ Yes, a few hours a week
____ Yes, a few hours a month
____ Yes, 6-10 weeks during a semester
____ Yes, one semester
____ No
____ Other _____

22. Did you take college credit education courses as part of your training?

____ Yes (please answer 22a)
____ No

22a. How many credits did you earn during your program

____ 1-6
____ 7-12
____ 13-18
____ 19-24
____ 25-30
____ Don't remember

23. Please rate the following as part of your development as a teacher:

	Very helpful	Somewhat helpful	Not very helpful	Not at all helpful	Not part of prog.
23.1 Teaching full time as teacher of record	0	0	0	0	0
23.2 Working with a mentor teacher	0	0	0	0	0
23.3 Working with other district staff	0	0	0	0	0
23.4 Working with college faculty on college campus	0	0	0	0	0
23.5 Working with college faculty in the school where teaching	0	0	0	0	0
23.6 Taking college campus based courses in education methods/pedagogy	0	0	0	0	0
23.7 Taking off campus courses in education methods/pedagogy	0	0	0	0	0

Helpfulness of support provided as part of your program.

24.Frequency of support provided.

24.1 Mentor teacher

____ Never
____ All day, every day
____ A few hours a day

____ Several hours per week
____ Once per week
____ Twice per month
____ Once per month
____ Once every two months
____ Once a year

24.2 School principal
____ Never
____ All day, every day
____ A few hours a day
____ Several hours per week
____ Once per week
____ Twice per month
____ Once per month
____ Once every two months
____ Once a year

24.3 College instructors
____ Never
____ All day, every day
____ A few hours a day
____ Several hours per week
____ Once per week
____ Twice per month
____ Once per month
____ Once every two months
____ Once a year

24.4 Non-college instructors
____ Never
____ All day, every day
____ A few hours a day
____ Several hours per week
____ Once per week
____ Twice per month
____ Once per month
____ Once every two months
____ Once a year

24.5 Public/private agency personnel
____ Never
____ All day, every day
____ A few hours a day
____ Several hours per week
____ Twice per month
____ Once per month
____ Once every two months
____ Once a year

24.6 State agency personnel

____ Never
____ All day, every day
____ A few hours a day
____ Several hours per week
____ Once per week
____ Twice per month
____ Once per month
____ Once every two months
____ Once a year

25. Would you recommend your program to others considering becoming teachers?

____ Yes
____ No
____ Maybe

26. What type of community would you be willing to teach in? (check all that apply)

____ Rural area (less than 10,000)
____ Small town (10,000-19,999)
____ Small city (20,000-49,999)
____ Medium city (50,000-249,999)
____ Large city (250,000+)
____ Suburban area or outside central city

27. How likely would you be to move from where you live now to where the demand for teachers is greatest?

	Very likely	Somewhat likely	Somewhat unlikely	Very unlikely	Not sure
26.1 Rural area within Florida	0	0	0	0	0
26.2 Urban area within Florida	0	0	0	0	0
26.3 Out of Florida	0	0	0	0	0

28. How many career changes have you made in your life so far?

____ None
____ One
____ Two
____ Three
____ Four
____ Five

____ More than five

29. Did you complete your undergraduate education within 150 miles of the place where you were born?

____ Yes
____ No

30. Are you teaching within 150 mile of where you were born?

____ Yes
____ No

Thank you for your participation and support.

Appendix C

Informed Consent Documents

Informed Consent - Participant
University of North Florida
Division of Sponsored Research

Please **DO NOT** put your name anywhere on this form or on the attached survey.

Your participation in this survey is entirely voluntary. **By completing and submitting this survey, you are giving your consent to participate in this research study.** If at any point you decide that you do not want to complete the survey, please return the blank survey in the envelope provided. If you are not willing to complete the entire survey, the information in question 1 is most significant to the study and your participation is greatly appreciated.

You are being asked to complete this survey to help researchers better understand the processes that are most effective for attracting and retaining teachers through alternative procedures. If you are no longer teaching, answer only question one and return the survey in the envelope provided. If you remain employed in education please complete the survey and return it in the envelope provided. The survey should take about 15 minutes to complete. This research is being conducted through the Department of Leadership, Counseling and Information Technology at the University of North Florida and supported by the Florida Department of Education.

The results of each individual's participation will be strictly confidential. No names or individual identifying information will be maintained. All data for this study will be aggregated to the program level. You will notice the program (institution) name on your survey. This is to allow your information to be tracked to the school you attended only and your responses will be combined with others in your program and reported in group form.

No foreseeable physical, psychological, social, legal, or other risks will be incurred by you as a survey participant. No type of compensation or inducement will be offered to you for your participation. The potential benefits of the study is to obtain a better understanding of the alternative preparation process and improve the effectiveness in attracting and retaining teachers in Florida.

Please feel free to ask any questions you may have regarding this survey. I can be reached at (904) 620-2990 or by email at n00031489@unf.edu . Thank you for your participation in this study. If you have any questions or concerns please contact me or Dr. Katherine Kasten, my dissertation committee chair, at kkasten@unf.edu.
You may get further information about UNF policies, the conduct of this study, and the rights of research participants from the Chair of the University of North Florida Institutional Review Board, Dr. Kathaleen Bloom, at (904) 620-2684.

Informed Consent - Administrator
University of North Florida
Division of Sponsored Research

Your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary. If at any point you decide that you do not want to participate please inform the interviewer and he will respect your decision.

You are being asked to agree to be interviewed to help researchers better understand the processes that are most effective for attracting and retaining teachers through alternative procedures. This research is being conducted through the Department of Leadership, Counseling and Information Technology at the University of North Florida and supported by the Florida Department of Education.

Specifically, you are being asked to participate in a 60-90 minute interview concerning how your institution conducted the selection, preparation, and placement of the candidates in the Teach for Florida grant project. I will provide a list of the questions to be asked well in advance so that you will have time to gather information and to expedite the interview.

No foreseeable physical, psychological, social, legal, or other risks will be incurred by you as a research participant. No type of compensation or inducement will be offered to you for your participation. The potential benefits of the study is to obtain a better understanding of the alternative preparation process and improve the effectiveness in attracting and retaining teachers in Florida.

Please feel free to ask any questions you may have regarding the interview. I can be reached at (904) 620-2990 or by email at n00031489@unf.edu . Thank you for your participation in this study. If you have any questions or concerns please contact me or Dr. Katherine Kasten, my dissertation committee chair, at kkasten@unf.edu.

You may get further information about UNF policies, the conduct of this study, and the rights of research participants from the Chair of the University of North Florida Institutional Review Board, Dr. Kathaleen Bloom, at (904) 620-2684.

I have read and understand my rights as described above:

_____ _____
Signature Date

_____
Printed Name

Appendix D

IRB Approval Document

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
4567 St. Johns Bluff Road South
Jacksonville, FL 32224-2665
904-620-2455 FAX 904-620-2457
Equal Opportunity/Equal Access/Affirmative Action Institution

MEMORANDUM

DATE: March 15, 2007

TO: Robert Todd Parrish

VIA: Dr. Katherine Kasten,
Leadership, Counseling and Instructional
Technology

FROM: Dr. Kathaleen Bloom, Chair,
UNF Institutional Review Board

RE: Review by the UNF Institutional Review Board IRB#07-016:
"A Comparative Study of Alternative Teacher Preparation
Programs in Florida: The Teach for Florida Project"

This is to advise you that your project, "A Comparative Study of Alternative Teacher Preparation Programs in Florida: The Teach for Florida Project," has been reviewed on behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board and has been approved (Expedited/Category #9).

This approval applies to your project in the form and content as submitted to the IRB for review. Any variations or modifications to the approved protocol and/or informed consent forms as they relate to dealing with human subjects must be cleared with the IRB prior to implementing such changes. Any unanticipated problems involving risk and any occurrence of serious harm to subjects and others shall be reported promptly to the IRB.

IRB approval is valid for **one year**. If your project continues for more than one year, you are required to provide an annual status report to the UNF IRB.

Should you have any questions regarding your project or any other IRB issues, please contact Nicole Sayers, Asst. Director for Research Integrity, at 620-2498.

Thank you.

c: Dr. Joyce Jones, LCIT Chair

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Vita

Robert T. Parrish

Education

Ed.D., University of North Florida, Educational Leadership, April 2008

M.S.B.A., Boston University, October 1989

B.A., History, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, May 1973

Professional Experience

2003 to Present, Graduate Assistant, University of North Florida, Jacksonville, Florida

Academic advisor, research assistant, adjunct professor, graduate teaching assistant, grant assistant, NCATE preparation, and other duties as assigned.

1999 to 2003, Program Director, Computer Science and Information Technology, Kent Campus, Florida Community College at Jacksonville, Jacksonville, Florida

Planned curriculum, prepared semester schedules, wrote and administered grants, advised students, and directed the daily activities of the department

1993 to 1998, Senior Software Analyst/Engineer, PRC, Inc., McLean, Virginia

Software testing, configuration management, implementation instruction, corporate liaison to the Naval Sea Systems Command, Requirements and Analysis Working Group, and report writing.

1973 to 1993, Surface Line Officer, LCDR, U. S. Navy

Curriculum Developer, Defense Business Management University, Washington, DC; Lecturer, Defense Resources Management Institute, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, CA; Staff and administrative positions of increasing responsibility.