

Public Finance Review

<http://pfr.sagepub.com/>

Recruiting Highly Qualified Teachers : Do District Recruitment Practices Matter?

Dana Balter and William D. Duncombe

Public Finance Review 2008 36: 33

DOI: 10.1177/1091142106293949

The online version of this article can be found at:

<http://pfr.sagepub.com/content/36/1/33>

Published by:



<http://www.sagepublications.com>

Additional services and information for *Public Finance Review* can be found at:

Email Alerts: <http://pfr.sagepub.com/cgi/alerts>

Subscriptions: <http://pfr.sagepub.com/subscriptions>

Reprints: <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsReprints.nav>

Permissions: <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsPermissions.nav>

Citations: <http://pfr.sagepub.com/content/36/1/33.refs.html>

>> [Version of Record](#) - Dec 11, 2007

[What is This?](#)

Recruiting Highly Qualified Teachers

Do District Recruitment Practices Matter?

Dana Balter
William D. Duncombe
Maxwell School of Syracuse University, New York

Public Finance Review
Volume 36 Number 1
January 2008 33-62
© 2008 Sage Publications
10.1177/1091142106293949
<http://pfr.sagepub.com>
hosted at
<http://online.sagepub.com>

This article presents results from a survey on teacher recruitment practices used in New York State school districts and analyzes whether the level of use of recruitment practices is related to teacher qualifications. We find that most districts employ a wide variety of practices and that the number of recruitment practices used by districts goes up with district size. To examine the effectiveness of recruitment practices, we estimate a model relating a composite measure of teacher qualifications to the level of use of recruitment practices and labor supply and demand factors. The recruitment regressor is treated as an endogenous variable with factors related to district use of these practices as instruments. While we cannot identify which individual practices are important, we find consistent evidence that districts using only a limited set of recruitment practices have hired less qualified teachers in New York.

Keywords: *recruitment; teacher quality; teacher mobility; recruiting incentives; recruiting practices*

1. Introduction

Decades of research on the determinants of student achievement make it clear that high-quality teachers matter to student success (Ferguson 1998; Goldhaber 2002; Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin 2002). With states under pressure to raise teacher quality to comply with the No Child Left Behind Act and with a significant increase in demand for teachers projected for the next decade (Hussar 1999), many school districts face teacher recruitment challenges. The growing literature examining the determinants of teacher mobility and retention has focused on a limited set of factors within district control

(e.g., wages and class sizes) and outside district control (e.g., demographics of student body and district location) that could affect mobility.

Very little research exists, however, on what types of practices districts use to increase the number of applications for open teaching positions and on whether these recruitment practices are effective. Can school districts, through the strategic use of advertising, partnerships with colleges, and recruitment incentives, increase teacher quality? Using the results of a 2004 survey of school district superintendents in New York State on teacher hiring practices, the objectives of this article are to: (1) describe the actual recruitment practices of New York school districts and (2) examine the effect of teacher recruitment practices on the qualifications of teachers hired by New York school districts. We find that districts in New York use a range of recruitment practices, the number and types of practices vary with the enrollment size of the district, and districts employing only a limited set of recruitment practices have hired less qualified teachers on average. While our results on effectiveness should be viewed as exploratory, they provide some of the first evidence that widespread use of teacher recruitment practices can improve teacher quality.

2. Teacher Recruitment Practices

Research examining the determinants of teacher mobility decisions has focused primarily on two sets of factors affecting teacher labor supply: relative salaries and working conditions. A large body of empirical research confirms that compensation can significantly affect teacher decisions about leaving and moving (Baugh and Stone 1982; Murnane and Olsen 1990; Stinebrickner 1998; Imazeki 2005; Dolton and van der Klaauw 1999). However, several recent studies suggest that teacher mobility decisions may be more strongly influenced by working conditions than by salaries, particularly the characteristics of the students (Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin 2001;

Authors' Note: This project would not have been possible without the financial support of the New York Education Finance Research Consortium (EFRC) and assistance from its director, Jim Wyckoff. We especially want to thank the staff at the New York State Education Department (SED) and the New York State Council of School Superintendents for their support of this project. We also want to thank Dan Goldhaber and Michael DeArmond of the University of Washington for their help with the survey instrument and Eric Isenberg of DePaw University for reviewing a preliminary draft of the article. Errors and omissions are solely the responsibility of the authors. Please address correspondence to William D. Duncombe, Center for Policy Research, Maxwell School of Syracuse University, 426 Eggers Hall, Syracuse, NY 13244-1020; e-mail: duncombe@maxwell.syr.edu.

Scafidi, Sjoquist, and Stinebrickner forthcoming; Falch and Strom 2005). Furthermore, the recent finding by Boyd et al. (2004) that “most public school teachers take their first public school teaching job very close to their hometowns or where they attended college” (p. 117) suggests that teachers may have strong preferences for a familiar teaching environment.

2.1. Research on Teacher Recruitment Practices

In contrast to the research on salaries and working conditions, very little attention has been paid to the practices districts actually use to recruit job applicants for teaching positions and whether these practices are effective in improving teacher quality. Teacher recruitment practices could increase the quality of teachers hired by the district for several reasons. First, if teacher job searches, particularly beyond the local area, are limited by imperfect information about the school district, then districts may be able to increase applications through advertising in newspapers, journals, and other types of media such as the Internet. Second, if applications are limited by the high entry costs into teaching created by state certification requirements and district policies, districts can reduce those barriers by encouraging applications from alternatively certified teachers and by providing assistance for paraprofessionals to become teachers (Glazerman, Mayer, and Decker 2006; Boyd et al. 2006). Third, if uniform salary schedules reduce a district's flexibility in attracting teacher applications, particularly in hard-to-staff fields and schools, then incentives in the form of additional compensation or benefits might expand the applicant pool.

The little evidence that does exist on actual recruitment practices in public education suggests that many districts engage in a fairly limited search for candidates. Based on a detailed survey in 1997 of superintendents, school board presidents, and teacher union presidents in Pennsylvania, Strauss et al. (1998; 2000) found that 75 percent of districts only advertise in Pennsylvania, and 17 percent only advertise locally. The Internet was used at least sometimes by 29 percent of respondents, and 30 percent of districts had partnerships with colleges for teacher training and placement. Strauss et al. (2000) conclude that districts in Pennsylvania focus their hiring process on substitute or part-time teachers and graduates of local colleges, instead of “actively seek[ing] new teacher applications through vigorous advertising and recruiting” (p. 405). Concerns over the quality of the public teacher hiring process have also been raised in several comparisons of teacher recruitment policies in public and private schools (Ballou 1996; Ballou and Podgursky 1998).

2.2. Teacher Hiring Survey

To shed some light on actual district hiring practices, we surveyed New York school superintendents in the spring of 2004. The survey covered three broad topics: (1) teacher recruitment, (2) teacher screening and selection, and (3) interest in training and support. For this article, we will concentrate on the results from the first section of the survey. In implementing the survey, we closely followed the recommendations of Dillman (2000) to maximize the response rate.¹ The resulting response rate was over 71 percent. The survey sample did not include the New York City School District or districts primarily serving special populations.

To examine how representative the sample is of all school districts in New York, we compared characteristics of responding districts to nonrespondents on a range of demographic, fiscal, teacher, and region variables. Districts completing the survey have similar enrollment size and student socioeconomic composition as nonrespondents. The one exception is the share of limited English proficient students, which was higher in districts not in the survey. Regarding district finances, districts in the survey have 6 percent lower spending overall and 3 percent lower operating spending. None of the other differences in fiscal variables are statistically significant from zero. The teacher work force in responding districts is very similar to nonrespondents, except that nonrespondents have slightly less experienced teachers and a slightly lower share of tenured and permanently certified teachers. Respondents and nonrespondents tend to be distributed evenly between urban, suburban, and rural districts; however, respondents are less likely to be located in the New York City metropolitan area (so-called “downstate New York”).

3. Use of Teacher Recruitment Practices in New York

The high response rate and representative nature of the sample provides us the opportunity to examine in depth the teacher hiring practices of New York school districts. In this section, we present simple bivariate relationships between use of specific recruitment practices and district characteristics, including enrollment size and the fiscal health of a district.² The number of potential applicants aware of teacher openings in the district can be increased by using mass media, the Internet, job fairs, and contact with colleges. Beyond broadening the pool of potential applicants, recruitment practices can help increase the number of applicants by providing financial incentives and reducing barriers to entry into teaching for noncertified

teachers and paraprofessionals. The survey results are summarized by the major categories of recruitment practices.

3.1. Advertising

A simple and relatively inexpensive recruitment strategy, at least in terms of staff time, is to put advertisements in newspapers, trade publications, or on radio or television. The least expensive option would probably be advertising in local newspapers and possibly local access cable or radio stations. We asked districts to identify the media outlets they use and, in the case of newspapers, whether they are local (within fifty miles), in other areas of the state, or based out of state.³ The typical district begins advertising in March or April for the following school year and makes an offer in June (see Table 1); an early advertising date is associated with making earlier offers to prospective teachers.⁴ High-need urban districts begin advertising around the same time as average need and low need districts but make their offers one-half to one month later on average.⁵

The principal media outlet for teacher job advertisements is local newspapers, with 80 percent of districts placing most or all of their advertisements for open teaching positions in local newspapers (see Table 1). A much smaller share of districts (25 percent) place the majority of their advertisements in nonlocal newspapers within New York State. Less than 5 percent of districts make education trade publications, out-of-state newspapers, or radio and television their principal advertising media for teaching positions. Small districts are more likely to use local newspapers and less likely to use other New York newspapers than districts with high enrollment. A lower share of high-need urban districts use newspaper advertising compared to other districts, but they are only slightly more likely to use advertisements in education trade publications. Unexpectedly, high-need rural districts are heavier users of radio and TV advertising than other districts, but even among rural districts, use of radio and TV advertising is very limited.

3.2. Recruiting from Colleges

A potentially effective approach to recruiting new teachers is to work with the colleges producing them. The contact can be fairly passive, such as asking colleges to post job notices on bulletin boards or in placement newsletters, or it can involve more direct contact by visiting the campus or talking to faculty about job candidates. School districts and colleges can establish even stronger partnerships through student teaching arrangements and the interaction of

Table 1
Advertising for Teachers in Media Outlets by District Characteristics

District Enrollment	Low	Medium	High	All Districts	N
Date of first advertisements (months)	4.0	3.6	3.2	3.6	454
Date of typical offer (months)	6.1	5.8	5.7	5.8	472
Percentage of responses indicating most or all advertising placed in these media outlets:					
Local newspapers/periodicals (within 50 miles)	87.7	79.9	70.7	79.6	489
Other advertising:	23.6	24.4	29.3	25.5	447
Other newspapers/periodicals in New York	23.3	23.5	28.3	24.7	474
Newspapers/periodicals in other states	1.8	1.3	0.9	1.3	459
Education trade publications/periodicals	1.7	3.9	4.3	3.4	464
Radio/television	2.7	4.3	0.9	1.1	459
SED Need/Resource Capacity Categories	High Need Urban	High Need Rural	Average Need	Low Need	
Date of first advertisements (months)	3.5	4.1	3.6	3.1	
Date of typical offer (months)	6.4	6.1	5.9	5.4	
Percentage of responses indicating most or all advertising placed in these media outlets:					
Local newspapers/periodicals (within 50 miles)	70.4	86.8	81.7	66.3	
Other advertising:	24.0	28.7	21.0	37.3	
Other newspapers/periodicals in New York	19.2	26.7	19.2	42.0	
Newspapers/periodicals in other states	0.0	3.2	1.1	0.0	
Education trade publications/periodicals	7.7	6.1	1.5	5.0	
Radio/television	0.0	3.1	0.8	0.0	

Note: Low is below the 25th percentile (approximately 1,000 students), medium is the 25th to 75th percentile, and high is above the 75th percentile (approximately 3,500 students). Months are defined as 1 = January, 2 = February, and so on. Bold and italics indicate a statistically significant difference among district enrollment size categories or among need/resource capacity categories (10 percent level) using a chi-square test.

college faculty and district personnel on curricular and pedagogical issues. We asked superintendents to categorize their district's relationships with local colleges (colleges within 50 miles), other New York State colleges, and colleges in other states. Districts work primarily with local colleges; the most common college recruitment strategies include posting job notices at the colleges and more active strategies, such as supervising student teachers and contacting college faculty (see Table 2).⁶ A majority of districts also place job notices in placement newsletters and visit local campuses to actively recruit candidates.

Table 2
Location of Colleges Where Districts Use Recruitment Strategies by District Characteristics

District Enrollment	Local Colleges				Nonlocal Colleges			
	Low	Medium	High	All Districts	Low	Medium	High	All Districts
All strategies	88.9	81.8	97.8	88.9	56.1	52.4	64.2	56.3
List job openings:								
Post job notices at the college	84.8	75.5	89.5	81.5	43.9	41.9	43.1	42.7
Advertise in placement newsletter distributed by college	80.9	80.4	88.8	82.7	41.5	40.7	40.7	40.9
Active strategies:								
Visit campus to actively recruit job candidates	59.6	57.9	70.0	61.7	15.4	16.1	24.4	18.0
Contact specific college faculty to identify potential job candidates	82.8	85.1	97.3	89.4	29.3	33.5	56.9	38.3
Supervise student teachers from the college	51.4	61.1	82.8	67.8	6.5	9.3	30.9	14.0
	81.7	77.6	84.9	80.5	19.5	16.9	30.1	20.9
	89.0	84.9	88.6	86.8	13.0	21.0	35.0	22.5

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

SED Need/Resource Capacity Categories	Local Colleges				Nonlocal Colleges			
	High Need Urban	High Need Rural	Average Need	Low Need	High Need Urban	High Need Rural	Average Need	Low Need
All strategies	85.7	84.6	88.3	96.0	60.7	60.7	59.3	39.3
List job openings:	83.3	74.5	85.6	75.0	28.6	50.5	45.8	27.4
Post job notices at the college	73.9	76.7	86.6	79.2	28.6	47.7	44.0	26.2
Advertise in placement newsletter distributed by college	58.3	57.1	66.9	48.3	14.3	21.5	19.6	9.5
Active strategies:	90.9	82.4	89.8	94.4	53.6	35.5	40.0	31.0
Visit campus to actively recruit job candidates	92.3	46.7	71.9	70.5	14.3	11.2	15.3	13.1
Contact specific college faculty to identify potential job candidates	78.9	81.7	79.9	82.0	21.4	20.6	22.2	16.7
Supervise student teachers from the college	80.0	86.2	86.5	91.2	39.3	18.7	23.3	19.0

Note: Sample size is 494. Percentage of responses using a particular recruitment strategy with a college. Local colleges are defined as colleges within fifty miles. Low is below the 25th percentile (approximately 1,000 students), medium is the 25th to 75th percentile, and high is above the 75th percentile (approximately 3,500 students). Bold and italics indicate a statistically significant difference among district enrollment size categories or among need/resource capacity categories (10 percent level) using a chi-square test.

With regard to nonlocal colleges (farther than fifty miles from the district), the only strategy used by a majority of districts is to post job notices at the college. Less than 40 percent of districts use active recruitment strategies with nonlocal colleges. Larger districts are more likely to recruit in both local and nonlocal colleges than smaller districts, particularly visiting campuses and supervising student teachers. High-need urban districts are more likely to visit local colleges and supervise student teachers from nonlocal colleges but otherwise are not any more active in working with colleges than other types of districts.

As part of the survey, we asked superintendents to identify the “five colleges with which you conduct the greatest number of these activities.” Over 40 percent of recently hired teachers (hired in the last three years) in responding districts earned their bachelor’s degrees at these colleges, and 55 percent earned their master’s degrees. If “local college” is defined as a college in the same county or neighboring counties, close to 50 percent of recently hired teachers in New York received their bachelor’s degrees in local colleges, and over 70 percent received their master’s degrees.⁷

3.3. Use of the Internet

The emergence of the Internet provides new opportunities to expand teacher recruitment outside the local area at a relatively low cost compared to traditional advertising. For the cost of posting job notices on teacher recruitment Web sites, assuming such sites are available, a district can potentially have access to a national market of teachers. Districts can post job notices on their own Web sites and can provide recruiting brochures online for candidates to download. Prospective teachers can communicate with the districts by e-mail and submit their applications online.

Over 70 percent of districts use the Internet, most commonly to post job notices on school district Web sites (see Table 3).⁸ Approximately 40 percent of districts also post openings on other teacher recruitment Web sites or allow teachers to submit their applications online. A much smaller share of districts actively use the Internet to search for job candidates. High need urban districts are somewhat more likely than average need districts to use the Internet, particularly to post job openings on district and teacher recruitment Web sites and to search for candidates on the web. While small districts are less likely to use the Internet for recruiting, one exception is small districts that contract with a regional education organization in New York (Board of Cooperative Educational Services, or BOCES) for access to online application systems or online placement of vacancy notices.⁹ Small

Table 3
Use of the Internet for Recruitment by District Characteristics

District Enrollment	Low (Using BOCES)			High	All Districts
	Low	Medium	High	Average Need	Low Need
Total number of Internet strategies used	1.9	1.7	2.1		1.7
Percentage of responses:					
Uses Internet to recruit teachers	77.1	75.8	82.1		72.1
Posts job openings on the Internet:	74.3	72.6	81.3		69.8
School district Web site	42.9	59.7	76.4		57.9
Online recruitment Web sites targeted to teachers	65.7	46.0	44.7		43.5
General online recruitment Web sites	14.2	7.3	16.3		9.9
Other uses of the Internet for recruitment:	45.7	44.8	52.8		43.3
Searches for candidates on a recruitment Web site	31.4	15.7	25.2		18.0
Allows candidates to submit applications online	37.1	40.3	43.1		37.0
SED Need/Resource Capacity Categories	High Need Urban	High Need Rural	Average Need		Low Need
Total number of Internet strategies used	2.0	1.4	1.7		1.7
Percentage of responses:					
Uses Internet to recruit teachers	82.1	65.4	74.5		69.0
Posts job openings on the Internet:	78.6	61.7	72.7		67.9
School district Web site	64.3	47.7	60.7		59.5
Online recruitment Web sites targeted to teachers	57.1	39.3	44.7		40.5
General online recruitment Web sites	10.7	8.4	11.3		7.1
Other uses of the Internet for recruitment:	46.4	33.6	45.1		48.8
Searches for candidates on a recruitment Web site	28.6	13.1	18.9		17.9
Allows candidates to submit applications online	35.7	28.0	37.8		46.4

Note: Sample size is 494. Percentage of responses indicating use of Internet to recruit teachers. Low is below the 25th percentile (approximately 1,000 students), medium is the 25th to 75th percentile, and high is above the 75th percentile (approximately 3,500 students). Sum of Internet strategies is a simple count of the number of strategies (0 to 5). Bold and italics indicate a statistically significant difference among district enrollment size categories or among need/resource capacity categories (10 percent level) using a chi-square test.

districts using BOCES online recruitment services are much more likely to use the Internet for recruitment than other small districts, and their usage rates are similar to those of larger districts.

3.4. Teacher Recruitment Incentives

A range of teacher recruitment incentives has been discussed in the recruitment literature, including signing bonuses, subsidized tuition, and assistance purchasing a home.¹⁰ Districts can also offer extra compensation for teaching in hard-to-staff fields and schools, National Board Certification (NBC), or performing extracurricular activities and administrative duties as an inducement. Superintendents may also be able to increase base salaries by crediting teachers for experience in other districts or in nonteaching occupations.

Almost three-fourths of superintendents responding to the survey said they used some type of recruitment incentive (see Table 4), with the average district using between one and two incentives.¹¹ Only two incentives are used by over half the school districts—extra compensation for supervising extracurricular activities and crediting teachers for experience outside the district. Two-thirds of districts use at least one of these traditional incentives. Approximately 16 percent of districts offer subsidized tuition at local colleges, additional compensation for NBC, or credit teachers for work experience in nonteaching occupations. The only other incentive used by at least 25 school districts is additional compensation in hard-to-staff fields. Slightly over 40 percent of districts use at least one of these nontraditional incentives.

The use of incentives tends to go up with district size, particularly additional compensation for NBC and flexibility in crediting teaching experience in other districts. High need urban districts are more likely than other types of districts to use incentives, particularly signing bonuses, additional compensation for NBC, subsidized college tuition, and additional compensation for hard-to-staff fields or for extracurricular or administrative functions. It is interesting to note that these types of incentives have been recommended by several scholars as tools to attract high-quality teachers to high need schools, particularly in urban areas (e.g., Loeb 2000; Odden and Kelley 2000; Kearney 2000).

3.5. Strategies to Increase Supply

The findings of Boyd et al. (2004) that new teachers tend to teach close to their hometowns or where they went to college suggests that expanding the pool of teachers within the local area might be a more effective strategy

Table 4
Use of Teacher Recruitment Incentives by District Characteristics

District Enrollment	Low	Medium	High	All Districts
Total number of incentives offered	1.4	1.5	1.8	1.6
Percentage of responses:				
District offers recruiting incentives	64.2	70.6	77.2	70.6
Traditional recruiting incentives:	57.2	66.9	74.8	66.6
Additional compensation for extracurricular or administrative functions	45.5	49.2	53.7	49.4
Flexibility in crediting teaching experience in other districts or states	38.2	47.2	55.3	47.0
Nontraditional recruiting incentives:	39.0	39.1	48.0	41.3
Flexibility in crediting job experience in nonteaching occupations	19.5	14.9	18.7	17.0
Subsidized tuition in local college	17.1	14.5	19.5	16.4
Additional compensation for NBC	8.1	13.3	27.6	15.6
Additional compensation for teaching in hard-to-staff fields	8.9	7.3	5.7	7.3
Additional compensation for teaching in hard-to-staff schools	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.4
One-time compensation for new teachers (signing bonus)	0.8	2.8	3.3	2.4
Help with purchase of a home	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8

SED Need/Resource Capacity Categories	High Need Urban	High Need Rural	Average Need	Low Need
Total number of incentives offered	2.0	1.5	1.6	1.4
Percentage of responses:				
District offers recruiting incentives	85.7	72.0	68.7	70.2
Traditional recruiting incentives:	82.1	68.2	65.1	64.3
Additional compensation for extracurricular or administrative functions	64.3	52.3	49.1	41.7
Flexibility in crediting teaching experience in other districts or states	39.3	45.8	48.0	47.6
Nontraditional recruiting incentives:	50.0	43.0	40.7	38.1
Flexibility in crediting job experience in nonteaching occupations	10.7	15.0	17.8	19.0
Subsidized tuition in local college	21.4	14.0	19.3	8.3
Additional compensation for NBC	28.6	9.3	16.4	16.7
Additional compensation for teaching in hard-to-staff fields	17.9	11.2	5.1	6.0
Additional compensation for teaching in hard-to-staff schools	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0
One-time compensation for new teachers (signing bonus)	10.7	4.7	1.5	0.0
Help with purchase of a home	3.6	1.9	0.4	0.0

Note: Sample size is 494. Percentage of responses indicating use of incentives to recruit teachers. Low is below the 25th percentile (approximately 1,000 students), medium is the 25th to 75th percentile, and high is above the 75th percentile (approximately 3,500 students). Sum of recruiting incentives is a simple count of the number of incentives (0 to 9). Bold and Italics indicate a statistically significant difference among district enrollment size categories or among need/resource capacity categories (10 percent level) using a chi-square test.

to increase job applicants than broadening the job search beyond the local area. Strategies to increase the local supply of teachers might include recruiting substitute teachers, retired teachers, former teachers, and alternatively certified teachers or providing assistance for paraprofessionals to become certified teachers. Districts use two supply strategies on average, with recruitment of substitute teachers the most common strategy (see Table 5).¹² Over 40 percent of districts recruit teachers certified through alternative routes, and 28 percent recruit retired teachers or provide assistance to paraprofessionals to become teachers. Only 7 percent of districts recruit former teachers. Use of supply strategies is not strongly related to district size, but larger districts are more likely to recruit substitutes and to assist paraprofessionals. High need urban districts are no more likely to use supply strategies than average need districts, except to recruit paraprofessionals.

3.6. Use of Multiple Practices

Most districts use a variety of practices, but only a small set of practices are used by the vast majority of districts. What is less clear is the portfolio of recruitment practices that districts employ and whether practices of different types are treated as substitutes or complements. If a district posts job notices on the Internet, for example, is it more or less likely than the average district to use advertising in newspapers or other media outlets as well? Table 6 reports for a district using a particular practice how likely they are to also use other practices compared to the average district. For example, if a district uses incentives in recruiting, they are 7.7 percent more likely than the average district to use the Internet for recruiting as well. The predominance of positive percentages suggests that districts view most practices as complements when developing their recruiting plan. This is particularly true for less traditional practices, such as nontraditional recruiting incentives, other uses of the Internet besides posting job notices on school Web sites, recruitment of alternatively certified teachers, and working with non-local colleges. Using one of these nontraditional practices is associated with 15 percent higher use of all other practices on average and 22 percent higher use of other nontraditional practices.

4. Relationship between Use of Recruitment Practices and Teacher Qualifications

In this section, we propose an empirical model of teacher qualifications and present estimates from the model for New York school districts. As far

Table 5
Use of Strategies to Increase Supply of Teachers by District Characteristics

District Enrollment	Low	Medium	High	All Districts
Total number of supply strategies used	1.8	1.8	2.1	1.9
Percentage of responses:				
District uses strategy to increase supply	84.6	86.7	89.4	86.8
Recruit teachers certified through alternative routes	40.7	40.7	52.8	43.7
Other supply strategies:	81.3	83.9	85.4	83.6
Recruit substitute teachers	74.0	80.2	82.1	79.1
Recruit retired teachers	30.1	25.0	31.7	27.9
Recruit former teachers who have left teaching	8.9	6.0	8.9	7.5
Provide assistance to paraprofessionals to become certified teachers	24.4	24.2	35.8	27.1
SED Need/Resource Capacity Categories	High Need Urban	High Need Rural	Average Need	Low Need
Total number of supply strategies used	2.0	1.7	1.9	1.7
Percentage of responses:				
District uses strategy to increase supply	85.7	86.0	89.5	79.8
Recruit teachers certified through alternative routes	46.4	41.1	46.5	36.9
Other supply strategies:	85.7	79.4	86.9	77.4
Recruit substitute teachers	82.1	71.0	83.6	73.8
Recruit retired teachers	28.6	27.1	28.7	26.2
Recruit former teachers who have left teaching	7.1	8.4	7.6	6.0
Provide assistance to paraprofessionals to become certified teachers	39.3	26.2	25.8	28.6

Note: Sample size is 494. Percentage of responses indicating use of strategy to increase supply. Low is below the 25th percentile (approximately 1,000 students), medium is the 25th to 75th percentile, and high is above the 75th percentile (approximately 3,500 students). Sum of supply strategies is a simple count of the number of strategies (0 to 5). Bold and italics indicate a statistically significant difference among district enrollment size categories or among need/resource capacity categories (10 percent level) using a chi-square test.

Table 6
Use of Multiple Recruitment Practices

For Districts Using This Recruiting Practice	Use of Other Practices—Percentage Above (+) or Below (–) Average District														
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	Average
(1) Incentives				7.7	7.1	13.9	4.3	12.7	3.9	10.0	8.7	16.1	0.3	3.3	8.0
(2) Traditional				7.5	7.5	11.0	4.7	11.9	4.3	9.6	7.5	16.8	0.7	2.3	7.6
(3) Nontraditional				19.0	19.3	23.9	6.1	32.3	6.1	22.8	20.5	25.6	0.2	-2.7	15.7
(4) Internet	7.8	7.5	19.1				3.5	15.0	3.8	11.3	12.5	13.1	-0.7	1.9	8.6
(5) Post job openings	7.2	7.5	19.4				3.5	16.0	3.7	13.3	14.0	14.4	-0.8	3.1	9.2
(6) Other uses	14.5	11.6	24.5				4.4	24.0	2.8	13.8	21.4	14.8	-1.6	10.6	12.8
(7) Supply	4.3	4.7	6.1	3.5	3.5	3.9				5.6	6.4	6.6	0.1	5.0	4.5
(8) Use alternatively certified teachers	12.8	11.9	32.2	14.9	16.0	23.4				16.0	17.1	18.6	-3.4	19.7	16.3
(9) Other supply strategies	3.9	4.4	6.1	3.8	3.7	2.4				5.8	7.1	8.2	0.6	4.0	4.5
(10) Nonlocal colleges	10.1	9.6	22.8	11.3	13.3	13.2	5.6	16.0	5.8			77.7	1.1	12.4	16.6
(11) Advertising at college	8.7	7.5	20.6	12.4	14.0	20.9	6.4	17.1	7.1			51.1	1.6	22.1	15.8
(12) Active strategies	16.2	16.8	25.7	13.0	14.4	14.3	6.6	18.6	8.2				1.0	11.9	13.3
(13) Local newspapers	0.9	1.2	0.2	-0.9	-1.0	-2.0	0.6	-2.4	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.5		-0.7	0.1
(14) Nonlocal media	3.7	2.6	-2.9	1.6	2.9	10.0	5.4	20.8	4.5	12.6	22.0	12.3	-0.9		7.3

Note: If this percentage is greater than 0, then districts are more apt to use this practice than the average district. For example, districts using incentives are 7.7 percent more likely to use the Internet than the average district.

as we are aware, this is one of the first attempts to examine the relationship between recruitment practices and the qualifications of recently hired teachers. Given that this analysis is based on cross-sectional data and that proxy measures are used for teacher quality, the results should be viewed as exploratory. Despite these limitations, the results provide evidence on the role that recruitment practices may play in improving teacher qualifications.

4.1. Measuring Teacher Qualifications

The importance of teacher quality is frequently acknowledged in the education policy literature; however, measures of quality are often poorly defined and inconsistent (Goldhaber and Anthony forthcoming). Teacher quality would preferably be measured by student performance gains (Stone 1999; Sanders, Saxton, and Horn 1997), but the lack of micro student data for New York requires that we take a more indirect approach by measuring teacher qualifications that may be related to teacher quality. While the extensive education production function literature has found inconsistent evidence about the relationship between teacher education and experience and student performance (Hanushek 1986; Greenwald, Laine, and Hedges 1994), there is stronger evidence that certification in the subject taught is related to student performance gains in that subject (Goldhaber and Brewer 2000). There is also fairly consistent evidence that measures of teacher academic proficiency, such as performance on college entrance exams or teacher certification exams, are related to student performance gains (Ehrenberg and Brewer 1994; Ferguson and Ladd 1996). However, recent research by Goldhaber (2005) suggests that teacher certification exams may only explain a small percentage of student performance gains.

To estimate teacher qualifications, we used factor analysis with measures of teacher certification test score performance, certification status in teaching assignments, and college ranking to construct a composite measure of teacher qualifications (Loeb 2000). The data used in the factor analysis come from the teacher certification database and the basic education data system maintained by the New York SED.¹³ To match the time frame in the survey, we used information on recently hired teachers, which are defined as teachers who began working in the district in the 2002-2003 through the 2004-2005 school years.¹⁴ Table 7 presents the factor analysis results, with the scoring coefficients (reported in the second column) used to construct the composite measure of teacher qualifications.¹⁵ We estimated a Cronbach's alpha to examine the reliability of the teacher qualification measure, and found that the reliability of this measure (Cronbach's

Table 7
Factor Analysis of Average Teacher Qualifications at
the District Level (Teachers Hired from 2003 to 2005)

Factors	Factor Loading	Scoring Coefficient
Percentage of very selective colleges	0.441	0.251
Certification exams: score as percentage of passing score (New York State Teacher Certification Exams)	0.758	0.431
Teacher certification (percentage of assignments in):		
Permanent certification	0.604	0.342
Low-level certification	-0.791	-0.450
Cronbach's alpha		0.557

Note: Principal component factor analysis for one unrotated factor.

alpha = 0.56) is below the standard (0.7) often used to identify reliable measures.

4.2. Teacher Quality Model

Observed teacher qualifications in a district reflect both district demand and teacher supply decisions. The cross-sectional nature of our data makes it difficult to estimate structural models of supply and demand for the teacher labor market. The approach we took instead was to estimate a reduced-form model of teacher qualifications, which includes both supply and demand factors. Teacher labor supply can be modeled as a function of four factors: teacher salaries (W) relative to comparable private sector salaries (P_L), working conditions (C), amenities (A), and personnel policies, such as recruitment practices (R) that may affect teacher supply (Hanushek, Kain, and Rivkin 2001). Most studies of teacher retention have focused on the first two categories—salaries and working conditions—and some hedonic models of teacher salaries have also considered amenities, such as urban location (Chambers 1995).

District demand for teacher quality is a function of factors in an education cost model, including the level of student outcomes (S), factor price for teachers and capital (P_K), physical characteristics of the district (N) that could affect costs of production (enrollment and pupil density), and student characteristics (Z) affecting the translation of resources into student outcomes (e.g., poverty, limited English proficiency). As a derived demand, district demand for teachers also reflects citizen demand for education. An

exogenous set of demand variables (D), such as income, state aid, voter tax share, and variables related to voter preference for education, can be substituted for S in the labor demand equation. Solving the demand equation for W and substituting it into the supply equation results in a reduced form model of teacher qualifications (Q):

$$Q = f(P_L, P_K, C, A, R, N, Z, D). \quad (1)$$

We assume for simplicity that equation (1) has a constant elasticity functional form, which implies Cobb-Douglas technology, and constant elasticity functions for labor supply and education demand. The reduced form approach limits our ability to identify the structural parameters, such as the effect of recruitment practices on labor supply. The coefficient on R (c_R) in equation 1 is equal to:

$$c_R = \frac{\beta_K}{(\alpha_L + \beta_K)} \alpha_R, \quad (2)$$

where β_K is the output elasticity for capital as a percentage of returns to scale, α_L is the supply elasticity for teacher qualifications with respect to relative wages, and α_R is the effect of recruitment practices on supply of teacher qualifications. While we cannot identify α_R , it is likely to be larger than c_R as long as β_K and α_L are positive as expected; then $(\beta_K/(\alpha_L + \beta_K))$ will be less than one.

4.3. Factors Affecting District Use of Recruitment Practices

Teacher recruitment regressors have to be treated as endogenous variables, because recruitment practices are likely to be chosen when districts make decisions about staffing and budgets. To identify possible instruments, we evaluated superintendents' responses to an open-ended question asking them to "list the major constraints faced by your district in recruiting new teachers." Among exogenous factors mentioned by superintendents, rural or remote location was the most frequently cited reason. Other limitations mentioned include a small pool of candidates in certain specialties and resource limitations both in terms of staff time and budget constraints. Based on these responses and our evaluation of the descriptive results, we hypothesize that district adoption of a recruitment practice is affected by three exogenous factors: enrollment size, county population, and district wealth. First, the most consistent finding in the descriptive tables is that use of practices is strongly related to district enrollment, with adoption of most practices going up with

enrollment size.¹⁶ Second, districts with low fiscal capacity (property wealth) may be less willing to invest scarce resources in a broad range of recruitment practices with uncertain benefits; thus, use of most practices is hypothesized to go up with property wealth. Third, districts may have less need to use a broad array of recruitment practices if they are located in a large local labor market with a significant number of potential teachers. We might expect then that use of recruitment practices would decline with the population of the county in which the district is located.¹⁷

4.4. Measuring Level of Use of Recruitment Practices

Since most districts use a bundle of recruitment practices, it is difficult to isolate the impact of any one practice. However, the results in Table 6 suggest that districts can be roughly categorized as heavy, moderate, or light users of recruitment practices. For our empirical analysis, we developed several classifications for level of use of recruitment practices by districts. First, we categorized districts as “broad users” of recruitment practices if they use at least one practice from each of the following categories: Internet, supply, incentives, and active college strategies. Approximately 52 percent of districts fall into this category (see Table 10). A smaller share of districts (9 percent) are classified as “innovators,” because they use several nontraditional strategies, including at least one strategy from each the following categories: nontraditional recruiting incentives, active strategies with nonlocal colleges, recruitment of alternatively certified teachers, and other Internet strategies besides posting job notices on the school Web site. We labeled districts as “traditional users” (19 percent of districts) if they do not use any nontraditional strategies. The terms *nontraditional* or *innovator* are used purely for descriptive purposes to describe practices not used by most school districts, not to signify effectiveness.

Another way to classify users is by the number of strategies they employ. We labeled districts as “heavy users” (21 percent of districts) if they use at least two recruitment strategies from each of the following categories: Internet, incentives, and local supply as well as at least three college strategies. By contrast, districts are classified as “light users” if they use two college strategies or fewer and one strategy or fewer from each of the other recruitment categories (8 percent of districts).

4.5. Data and Measures

The independent variables used in the empirical model are generally based on information published by the New York SED. To match the time

period used in constructing the teacher qualification factor score, most variables are expressed as a three-year average from 2002 to 2004 (unless noted otherwise). Data from SED include enrollment counts, the share of elementary school students receiving free lunches, the share of students who are nonwhite, pupil density (pupils per square mile), data on teacher qualifications, adjusted gross income, and regional classifications (downstate, rural, and upstate suburbs).¹⁸ Information on county-level unemployment rates and private salaries (average payroll for professional and technical services) is from the New York State Department of Labor. Market values for property are estimated by the New York Office of Real Property Services. Crime rates are supplied by the New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services. County population is estimated by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, and the percentages of the population age sixty-five years or older and five to seventeen years of age are from the 2000 Census of Population and Housing. Several variables in the teacher quality model have been dropped because of high collinearity.¹⁹ Table 8 reports descriptive statistics for model variables.²⁰

4.6. Empirical Results

Models are estimated with linear 2SLS with instruments based on the three factors associated with district adoption of recruitment practices discussed in section 4.2 (enrollment, county population, and per pupil property values). Overidentification tests and weak instrument tests have been run to assess the appropriateness of the instruments.²¹ Hypothesis tests are based on robust standard errors. While these estimates should be viewed as exploratory, they may be suggestive of the effect of recruitment practices on teacher qualifications.

The full regression results are reported in Table 9, when the measure for broad users of recruitment practices is included in the model. The coefficient on this variable is statistically significant from 0 at the 10 percent level. Because the teacher qualification measure has a standard deviation of 1, the coefficient on the broad users indicates that use of a broad range of recruitment practices is associated with a 0.67 standard deviation increase in teacher qualifications. Coefficients for other variables in the model generally have the expected sign, and several are statistically significant from 0. For example, teacher qualifications are estimated to be positively related to private sector salaries and the county unemployment rate and negatively related with the share of free lunch students.

Coefficients on the other recruitment measures are reported in Table 10. The coefficient on the indicator variable for innovative districts (model 2) is

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics for Variables in Teacher Qualification Model

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Sample Size
Teacher qualification factor score	0.231	0.767	-5.817	2.616	433
Variables used in teacher qualification model:					
Average payroll for professional and technical services ^a	10.588	0.320	9.918	11.235	481
K6 free lunch share	0.192	0.121	0.000	0.620	483
Minority student share	0.118	0.180	0.000	0.998	484
County crime rate (crimes per 1,000 people)	23.7	7.4	11.3	42.2	484
Unemployment rate	0.053	0.008	0.037	0.071	484
Pupil density (pupils/square mile) ^a	4.159	1.836	-0.916	8.205	484
Per pupil income (2003) ^a	11.652	0.549	10.407	14.712	483
Share of population 5 to 17 years old (2000)	0.190	0.025	0.102	0.265	482
Share of population 65 years or older (2000)	0.142	0.036	0.039	0.350	482
Downstate districts (1 = yes)	0.238	0.426	0.000	1.000	484
Rural districts (1 = yes)	0.308	0.462	0.000	1.000	484
Upstate suburbs (1 = yes)	0.378	0.485	0.000	1.000	484
Variables related to use of recruiting practices (instruments)					
Enrollment ^a	8	1	4	11	484
County population ^a	12.2	1.3	8.6	14.2	484
Per pupil property values ^a	13	1	11	17	484
College degrees granted by colleges in county divided by K12 enrollment in county (2002)	0.082	0.094	0.000	0.661	484

Note: Independent variables are measured as an average from 2002 to 2004 unless noted otherwise.
a. Expressed as a natural logarithm.

Table 9
Relationship between Broad Use of Recruitment Practices and Teacher Qualifications

Variables	Model 1	
	Coefficient	<i>t</i> -Statistic
Intercept	-7.989	-3.38
Broad use of recruitment practices ^a	0.670	1.75
Private salaries (professional and technical services) ^b	0.394	2.14
Working conditions:		
K6 free lunch share	-1.426	-2.39
Minority student share	-0.141	-0.44
County crime rate (crimes per 1,000 people)	-0.003	-0.56
Amenities/labor market variables:		
Pupil density (pupils/square mile) ^b	0.003	0.07
Unemployment rate	13.505	2.09
Demand variables:		
Per pupil income (2003) ^b	0.242	1.56
Share of population 5 to 17 years old (2000)	1.885	0.81
Share of population 65 years or older (2000)	1.135	0.68
Region:		
Downstate	-0.195	-0.89
Rural	0.007	0.04
Upstate suburbs	0.141	0.89

Note: Estimated with 2SLS with the teacher qualification factor score for teachers hired from 2003 to 2005 as the dependent variable, and recruitment regressors treated as endogenous variables. See text for discussion of instruments. Independent variables are measured as an average from 2002 to 2004 unless noted otherwise. Sample size is 428. Hypothesis tests are based on robust standard errors.

a. Variable set equal to one if the district uses at least one recruitment strategy from all of the following categories (Internet, strategies to increase supply, active college strategies, and recruiting incentives).

b. Expressed as a natural logarithm.

0.91, although it is not statistically significant from 0 at conventional levels. Traditional users (districts not using nontraditional practices) are estimated to have teacher qualifications 0.64 standard deviations below districts using at least some of these practices (model 3). A similar story emerges when we look at measures of the number of strategies used. Heavy users of recruitment strategies (model 4) are associated with teacher qualifications that are 0.74 standard deviations above nonheavy users, while light users (model 5) have qualifications 1.06 standard deviations below nonlight users.

Table 10
Relationship between Use of Recruitment Practices and Teacher
Qualifications (Alternative Recruitment Measures)

	Percentage of Districts	Coefficient	<i>t</i> -Statistic
Model 1: Broad users of recruitment practices ^a	51.9	0.670	1.75
Model 2: Innovators (use nontraditional practices) ^b	8.7	0.909	1.11
Model 3: Traditional users (do not use nontraditional practices) ^c	18.6	-0.643	-1.91
Model 4: Heavy users (use multiple practices of each type) ^d	20.5	0.743	1.39
Model 5: Light users (do not use multiple practices of each type) ^e	8.1	-1.057	-1.83

Note: Estimated with 2SLS with the teacher qualification factor score for teachers hired from 2003 to 2005 as the dependent variable and recruitment regressors treated as endogenous variables. See text for discussion of instruments. Independent variables are measured as an average from 2002 to 2004 unless noted otherwise. Sample size is 428. Hypothesis tests are based on robust standard errors.

a. See Table 9 for variable definition.

b. Variable set equal to one if the district uses all of the following: Internet for recruiting besides posting job notices on school Web site, recruiting alternatively certified teachers, nontraditional recruiting incentives, and active strategies with nonlocal colleges.

c. Variable set equal to one if the district does not use any of the following: Internet for recruiting besides posting job notices on school Web site, recruiting alternatively certified teachers, nontraditional recruiting incentives, and active strategies with nonlocal colleges.

d. Variable set equal to one if the district uses more than one strategy from the following categories: Internet, strategies to increase supply, recruiting incentives, and more than two recruiting strategies with colleges.

e. Variable set equal to one if the district uses no more than one strategy from the following recruiting categories: Internet, strategies to increase supply, recruiting incentives, and no more than two recruiting strategies with colleges.

5. Conclusions

The survey results have provided a rich picture of the teacher recruiting process in New York State. Most New York school districts advertise in local newspapers, work with local colleges to recruit, post job notices on their school Web site, recruit substitute teachers, and use extra compensation for extracurricular or administrative functions as a recruiting incentive. Relatively few districts, on the other hand, advertise outside their local areas, work with nonlocal colleges, search for job candidates on the Internet,

or offer signing bonuses, assistance with home purchase, or compensation for hard-to-staff fields and schools as recruiting incentives.

The most consistent finding from our descriptive analysis is that the use of recruiting incentives goes up with the enrollment size of the school district (except for local newspaper advertising). With regard to fiscal health, high need urban districts are more likely to use some active and innovative strategies than other districts, such as the Internet for recruiting, supervising of student teachers from nonlocal colleges, and nontraditional recruiting incentives.

While all districts employ a portfolio of recruitment practices, some districts appear to have a much more diversified portfolio than others. The use of recruitment practices in one category (e.g., college strategies) is positively related to recruitment strategies in other categories (e.g., incentives), particularly for nontraditional recruiting strategies. In other words, some districts are heavy users and some are light users of recruitment practices. The overlap in use of practices makes evaluating the effects of individual practices difficult, but we can categorize districts by the level of use of recruitment practices to determine if there are benefits to utilizing a broad array of recruiting strategies.

In the second part of the article, we carried out an analysis of the relationship between level of use of recruitment practices and teacher qualifications. To measure teacher qualifications, we developed a composite measure, which includes certification test score performance, selectivity of the college(s) the teacher attended, and certification status in their assignments. The cross-sectional nature of the survey did not permit the use of time series data to identify effects of recruitment practices. Instead, we estimated a reduced-form model of teacher qualifications with the recruitment measures treated as endogenous variables. Instruments were selected among exogenous variables associated with the adoption of these practices. While the regression results should be viewed as exploratory, they provide some of the first evidence available that district recruitment practices affect district teacher qualifications.

One consistent finding from the regression analysis is that using a limited set of recruitment practices is negatively related to teacher qualifications. This finding holds for both light users of recruitment practices and for districts not using any nontraditional recruitment practices. The size of the effects appears to be quite large, at least one standard deviation. We also found that broad use of recruitment practices was associated with higher teacher qualifications. Focusing on heavy users of practices, particularly nontraditional practices, the results are less definitive. While the coefficients on the measures of innovative users or heavy users are positive, they are not statistically significant at conventional levels.

What are the potential implications of these findings for state education policy makers? First, if our findings are correct, then state governments may want to target assistance to light (or traditional) users of recruitment practices, primarily small rural districts. If states want to encourage the use of a broader set of recruitment practices by rural districts, they need to help lower the costs of recruitment practices for these districts by providing technical assistance, access to teacher recruitment Web sites, and financial assistance with recruiting incentives. Regional education organizations, such as New York's BOCES, could assist rural districts to design, manage, and implement recruitment programs. Second, state governments can help to reduce the uncertainty surrounding the benefits of adopting particular recruitment practices by improving the quality of and access to information, including funding program evaluation research to help identify which methods are successful and which are not for particular types of districts; and supporting regional organizations to provide training and assistance in adopting successful strategies.

Notes

1. The New York State Council of School Superintendents endorsed the survey, put a link to the online survey on their Web site, and sent a joint cover letter with the survey. We sent four waves of mailings to superintendents over a two-month period, and the survey was available in both hard copy and online.

2. Fiscal health is measured using a classification scheme developed by the New York SED based on the ratio of a poverty measure (share of K6 free lunch students) and a measure of fiscal capacity called the combined wealth ratio, which averages statewide indices of property values and income. The fiscal health ratio is used to place districts into categories for high need (high ratio), average need (average ratio), and low need (low ratio). In addition, high need districts are broken down into high need urban districts (large cities, small cities and suburbs), and high need rural districts.

3. The survey asked, "What share of your advertisements for open teaching positions do you place in each of the following media outlets?" with the following four categories of use: none, some, most, and all).

4. Months are numbered based on a calendar year (1 = January, 2 = February, etc.) The correlation between the date of advertising (in months) and offering date is 0.44. For districts that gave us a range of months for advertising date and offer date, we used the middle date in the calculations (using fractions of months).

5. See note 2 for a discussion of the fiscal health categories.

6. The survey asked, "Where are the colleges at which the district uses each of the following recruitment strategies?" The locations included the following: colleges within 50 miles, other colleges in New York, colleges in other states, and not applicable.

7. For school districts on the border with other states, we included any college in the other state that was within fifty miles of the district.

8. The survey asked, "How does the district use the Internet to recruit teachers?" One of the response categories was "The district does not use the Internet to recruit teachers."

9. There are 38 BOCES across the state that offer a range of services—from special education to teacher recruitment services—to encourage districts to share resources and realize economies of scale.

10. Despite the increased attention given to the use of teaching incentives, the existing research on incentives tends to be anecdotal and prescriptive in nature (Hirsch 2001; Clewell et al. 2000).

11. The survey asked, “Which of the following are offered to prospective teachers as recruiting incentives?” One of the response categories was “The district does not offer recruiting incentives.” Several of the response categories included the phrase “additional compensation.” We did not clarify on the survey whether additional compensation involved a one-time payment or an increase in the teacher’s base salary.

12. The survey asked, “Which of the following does your district do to increase the supply of teachers?” One of the response categories was “None of the above.”

13. A college was rated as very selective if it was classified by Barron’s as highly competitive or most competitive or identified as more selective in the Carnegie classification for undergraduate programs. Certification categories were based on the percentage of a teacher’s assignments when they had either permanent certification or a low level of certification (temporary certification, no certification, or unknown certification). The measure for New York State Teacher Certification Exams is based on percentage of the passing score (300) for the Liberal Arts and Sciences Test, and either the Assessment of Teaching Skills Elementary or Secondary.

14. Specifically, we matched certification data for teachers in the fall of 2005 with information on salary and experience of teachers working in the 2004-2005 school year. We kept teachers for the analysis with less than four years of experience in the district. The data set does not include teachers who left the district from 2002 to 2004. The survey first asked superintendents, “How difficult has it been over the last 3 years to recruit certified teachers?” for several categories. It then went on to ask about a range of recruitment practices.

15. Given that the purpose of this factor analysis is to develop one composite measure of teacher qualifications, we decided that the most appropriate method to use was principal components analysis without rotation (Gorsuch 1983). The factor loadings indicate how the variables correlate with the latent factor. The measures of high qualifications (highly selective college, certification exam scores, and permanent certification) all load positively and low-level certification loads negatively. The factor scores are used to construct a linear combination of the variables, where the variables are normalized to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

16. Enrollment is typically included in an education cost function, so it could be included in the teacher qualification model. Because of the importance that enrollment appears to play in the adoption of recruitment practices, we have included instead in the cost model measures of urbanicity (pupil density and rural location). Once we control for these factors, enrollment does not appear to have an independent effect in the teacher qualification model.

17. We also examined a measure of the availability of college graduates from local colleges (measured by the number of college degrees issued by colleges in the county relative to total K12 enrollment in the county) as an instrument. One concern about the college degree variable is that districts, through their recruitment practices, could influence the types of degrees issued in local colleges. We tested for this possibility using an overidentification test (Murray 2005) and found that for some recruitment measures, we could reject the null hypothesis that the set of instruments with this variable was uncorrelated with the error term in the teacher qualification model. We dropped this variable as an instrument in all of the models.

18. Large and small cities that are not in the New York City metropolitan area (upstate) is the omitted district type.

19. The only measures we could find that are related to the price of capital are county-level average payroll in the construction industry or average salaries in construction occupations for labor market areas. Both measures were strongly related with average payroll in professional and technical services. The share of limited English proficiency students was also dropped because of a high correlation with the share of nonwhite students. Finally, state aid is correlated with both income and the share of free lunch students and so was dropped from the model.

20. Over fifty observations had to be dropped from the regression analysis because of missing information on teacher qualifications or because there were no teachers with less than four years of experience in the district. The districts dropped from the analysis are similar to included districts in most respects, but they are more likely to be rural districts in upstate New York with lower pupil density and to have significantly higher property values per pupil.

21. We tested for overidentifying restrictions using a version of the Sargan test (Murray 2005) and found that we could not reject the null hypothesis that the instruments are uncorrelated with the error term in the teacher quality model. Using the procedure outlined in Bound, Jaeger and Baker (1995), we tested for weak instruments and found that the bias of the IV estimate relative to an OLS estimate was well under 3 percent for the traditional users and light users measures (Table A.1. in Bound, Jaeger, and Baker 1995). For the other recruitment variables, the bias of the IV estimate is between 3 percent and 9 percent of the OLS estimate. To check for the possible effects of weak instruments on the accuracy of 2SLS estimates, we reran the teacher quality models using a couple of Fuller's k-class estimators ($k = 1$, $k = 4$), which are considered to be better estimators when instruments are weak (Murray 2005). The results using the Fuller estimators are very similar to those with 2SLS; results are available from the authors on request.

References

- Ballou, Dale. 1996. Do public schools hire the best applicants? *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 111 (1): 97-133.
- Ballou, Dale, and Michael Podgursky. 1998. Teacher recruitment and retention in public and private schools. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management* 17 (3): 393-417.
- Baugh, William, and Joe Stone. 1982. Mobility and wage equilibrium in the educator labor market. *Economics of Education Review* 2 (3): 253-274.
- Bound, John, David Jaeger, and Regina Baker. 1995. Problems with instrumental variables estimation when the correlation between the instruments and the endogenous explanatory variables is weak. *Journal of the American Statistical Association* 90 (June): 443-50.
- Boyd, Donald, Hampton Lankford, Susanna Loeb, and James Wyckoff. 2004. The draw of home: How teachers' preferences for proximity disadvantage urban schools. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management* 24 (1): 113-32.
- Boyd, Donald, Pamela Grossman, Hampton Lankford, Susanna Loeb, and James Wyckoff. 2006. How changes in entry requirements alter the teacher workforce and affect student achievement. *Education Finance and Policy* 1 (2): 176-216.
- Chambers, Jay. 1995. Public school teacher cost differences across the United States: An analysis to develop a teacher cost index (TCI). Washington DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Clewell, Beatriz, Katherine Darke, Thonaa Davis-Google, Laurie Forcier, and Sarah Manes. 2000. *Literature review on teacher recruitment programs*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education.

- Dillman, Donald. 2000. *Mail and Internet surveys, The tailored design method*. New York: John Wiley.
- Dolton, Peter, and Wilbert van der Klaauw. 1999. The turnover of teachers: A competing risks explanation. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 81 (3): 543-52.
- Ehrenberg, Ronald, and Dominic Brewer. 1994. Do school and teacher characteristics matter? Evidence from high school and beyond. *Economics of Education Review* 13 (1): 1-17.
- Falch, Torberg, and Bjarne Strom. 2005. Teacher turnover and non-pecuniary factors. *Economics of Education Review* 24 (6): 611-31.
- Ferguson, Ronald. 1998. Can schools narrow the black-white test score gap? In *The black-white test score gap*, edited by Christopher Jencks and Michael Phillips, 318-74. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Ferguson, Ronald, and Helen Ladd. 1996. How and why money matters: An analysis of Alabama schools. In *Holding Schools Accountable*, edited by Helen Ladd, 265-98. Washington DC: Brookings Institution.
- Glazerman, Steven, Daniel Mayer, and Paul Decker. 2006. Alternative Routes to teaching: The impacts of Teach for America on student achievement and other outcomes. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management* 25 (1): 75-96.
- Goldhaber, Daniel. 2002. The mystery of good teaching. *Education Next* 2 (1): 50-5.
- . 2005. Teacher licensure tests and student achievement: Is teacher testing an effective policy? Unpublished paper, University of Washington, Seattle.
- Goldhaber, Daniel, and Emily Anthony. Forthcoming. Can teacher quality be effectively measured? National Board Certification as a signal of effective teaching. *Review of Economics & Statistics*.
- Goldhaber, Daniel, and Dominic Brewer. 2000. Does teacher certification matter? High school teacher certification status and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 22: 129-45.
- Gorsuch, Richard. 1983. *Factor analysis*. Hove, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Greenwald, Robert, Richard Laine, and Larry Hedges. 1994. A meta-analysis of studies of the effects of differential school inputs on student outcomes. *Educational Researcher* 23 (3): 5-14.
- Hanushek, Eric. 1986. The economics of schooling: Production and efficiency in public schools. *Journal of Economic Literature* 24 (3): 1141-78.
- Hanushek, Eric, John Kain, and Steven Rivkin. 2001. Why public schools lose teachers. NBER Working Paper Series no. 8599, National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, MA.
- . 2002. Teachers, schools, and academic achievement. NBER Working Paper Series no. 6691, National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, MA.
- Hirsch, Eric. 2001. *Teacher recruitment: Staffing classrooms with quality teachers*. Denver, CO: National Conference of State Legislatures.
- Hussar, William. 1999. *Predicting the need for newly hired teachers in the United States to 2008-09*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Imazeki, Jennifer. 2005. Teacher salaries and teacher attrition. *Economics of Education Review* 24 (4): 431-49.
- Kearney, C. Philip. 2000. National Board Certification: An underutilized resource for New York State? Proceedings from the Symposium on the Teaching Workforce. Albany, NY: Education Finance Research Consortium.
- Loeb, Susanna. 2000. How teachers' choices affect what a dollar can buy: Wages and quality in K-12 schooling. Proceedings from the Symposium on the Teaching Workforce. Albany, NY: Education Finance Research Consortium.

- Murnane, Richard, and Randall Olsen. 1990. The effects of salaries and opportunity costs on length of stay in teaching: Evidence from North Carolina. *Journal of Human Resources* 25 (1): 106-24.
- Murray, Michael. 2005. The bad, the weak and the ugly: Avoiding the pitfalls of instrumental variable estimation. Unpublished paper, Bates College, Lewiston, ME.
- Odden, Alan, and Carolyn Kelley. 2000. Addressing teacher quality and supply through compensation policy. Proceedings from the Symposium on the Teaching Workforce. Albany, NY: Education Finance Research Consortium.
- Sanders, William, Arnold Saxton, and Sandra Horn. 1997. The Tennessee value-added assessment system: A quantitative, outcome-based approach to educational measurement. In *Grading teachers, grading schools: Is student achievement a valid evaluation measure?*, edited by Jason Millman, 137-62. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Scafidi, Benjamin, David Sjoquist, and Todd Stinebrickner. Forthcoming. Race, poverty, and teacher mobility. *Economics of Education Review*.
- Stinebrickner, Todd. 1998. An empirical investigation of teacher attrition. *Economics of Education Review* 17 (2): 127-36.
- Stone, Joe. 1999. Value-added assessment: An accountability revolution. In *Better teachers, better schools*, edited by Marci Kanstoroomm and Chester Finn, 231-49. Washington, DC: Thomas B. Fordham Foundation.
- Strauss, Robert, Lori Bowes, Mindy Marks, and Mark Plesko. 1998. *Teacher performance and selection in Pennsylvania*. Report prepared for the Pennsylvania State Board of Education.
- . 2000. Improving teacher preparation and selection: Lessons from the Pennsylvania experience. *Economics of Education Review* 19 (4): 387-415.

Dana Balter is earning her PhD in public administration at the Maxwell School at Syracuse University, New York. She received an MPA from the University of Connecticut and a BA in speech from Northwestern University. Her research interests include education policy and finance, nonprofit studies, and the privatization of public services.

William D. Duncombe is a professor of public administration and senior research associate at the Center for Policy Research, the Maxwell School, Syracuse University. He is also the associate director of the Education Finance and Accountability Program at Syracuse University. His research specialties include estimating the cost of educational adequacy, school aid design, educational costs and efficiency, demand and costs of state and local government services, budgeting, and financial condition assessment. His work has appeared in numerous journals in public administration, education, and economics. Professor Duncombe received a BA in economics from the University of Washington and an MA and PhD in Public Administration from Syracuse University.