REPORT TO THE LEGISLATURE

Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In April 2021, the Washington State Legislature appropriated $60,000 of the federal Elementary and Secondary School Emergency Relief (ESSER) III funds of the American Rescue Plan Act to support a technical advisory workgroup to explore recommended residency options for pre-service educators, with a focus on educators of color and bilingual/multilingual speakers. The workgroup will begin meeting in January 2022. The project leads’ preliminary recommendations, which are written to support members of the workgroup, are included in this report. The workgroup will provide final recommendations to the Legislature by November 1, 2022.

In addition to meeting the legislative requirement to provide preliminary recommendations, this report will also be used to inform workgroup members with a set of common resources and broad understandings regarding teacher residencies. First, the report describes the background and context of teacher residencies, including what they are and what they do in terms of relevant candidate, district, and program factors. Then, the report briefly describes the current landscape of educator preparation programming in Washington state. Finally, the report provides descriptions of the work the workgroup will carry out.

To support workgroup members in this work, the project leads provide these initial recommendations:

1. Use distinct and deliberate efforts to ensure workgroup membership reflects historically excluded student, family, and educator communities.
2. Set clear goals for the workgroup that are aligned with the Legislature's requirement and are structured to take place over a one-year period.
3. Use a clear, effective, and generative facilitation strategy to maximize inclusion and insight.
4. Provide the workgroup with robust and accurate resources including, but not limited to, academic research, policy reports, examples from practice, and more to inform and shape the workgroup’s recommendations.
5. Explore learning from multiple organizations in Washington state whose initiatives are aligned with the goals of the workgroup and that specifically support known and emergent needs and challenges among educators of color and multilingual educators.
TECHNICAL WORKGROUP

About the Workgroup
The Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup aims to research and develop a statewide, full-year, pre-service teacher residency program funded by the Washington State Legislature. Using allocated funds, OSPI contracted project leadership to convene a workgroup that develops multiple feasible funding and impact models for a state-funded residency experience for pre-service teachers. Workgroup members will represent a diverse and wide range of state and local education agencies, educator preparation programs (EPPs), district and school-based partners, and organizations that advocate for teachers and families.

Members of the workgroup will meet virtually as a whole group on a monthly basis for six months starting January 2022. Each convening will feature two expert presenters from Washington and beyond to further the group's thinking and present contemporary research and working residency models. The workgroup may elect to convene separate sub-groups that meet periodically to develop specific components of the report and recommendations. The group will begin its work with descriptive data regarding current educator preparation workforce trends and relevant resources on residency models and their outcomes, as well as clear parameters from OSPI describing what the residency experience needs to include in order to satisfy legislative requirements. Project leads from the IDEALS Institute at the Johns Hopkins School of Education and Eastern Washington University’s School of Education will facilitate the workgroup and co-author the report to the Legislature.

Description of the Problem
Although millions of dollars are expended each year to prepare new teachers nationwide and within Washington state, districts and schools still lack enough teachers with the qualifications to meet the needs of students, particularly students in historically underserved groups, including students of color, multilingual/English learners, and students with disabilities (National Center for Teacher Residencies, 2014; Ricci et al., 2019).

Prior to describing the specific Washington state context with regard to teacher retention, preparation, and residencies, this report first describes national trends based on academic and professional literature.

The uneven distribution of highly effective teachers has been a focal point of discussions; that is, how to improve education and opportunity not only among student groups, but also students in urban settings, rural settings, historically low-performing schools, and schools serving families with lower incomes (Harju-Luukkainen et al., 2019; Ingersoll and Smith, 2004; Marinell and Coca, 2013; Newton et al., 2011).

Current approaches to educator preparation continue to evolve, vary, and improve; however, entrenched issues related to teacher recruitment, induction, and retention persist (Professional Educator Standards Board [PESB], 2019; PESB 2021). Although the number of beginning teachers
hired has increased from 1,422 to 3,237 since the 2010–11 school year, the number of individuals completing state-approved preparation programs has decreased by 400 completers per year (PESB, 2019).

While numbers of new teachers hired has increased and the number of program graduates has decreased, the number of limited certificates issued has skyrocketed. Limited certificates are issued to individuals who have not completed educator preparation programming upon specific request by districts. Washington state allows districts that cannot find certificated individuals to hire individuals who do not yet have certification. A limited certificate may be issued if certain requirements are met (e.g., need for specific content area in district and inability to find a candidate holding respective endorsement). Limited certificates tripled, from 2,982 in 2011 to 9,251 in 2018. The gap between newly hired, beginning teachers and preparation program completers, as well as the increasing number of limited certificates issued, suggest a critical need for coordinated preparation, recruitment, and mentoring efforts to support districts’ ability to retain highly effective and well-qualified teachers.

According to national studies, teacher turnover is costly in many ways. Estimates place the cost of replacement of a single teacher at about $18,000 with a total of over $7 billion a year nationally in lost costs due to teacher attrition (Carroll, 2007). One driver of the Washington state educator shortage is high teacher turnover. High teacher turnover results in negative impacts on student learning (Ronfeldt, et al., 2011). In 2019, PESB defined ‘persistence’ as the percentage of beginning educators in a specific year who are still teaching one, three, or five years later. According to these data 1-year, 3-year, and 5-year persistence rates are improving. However, despite these increases, turnover rates remain troublingly high. Among beginning teachers, approximately 13% leave after one year, 22% by the third year, and 35% by the fifth year (PESB, 2019).

It is well documented that too many teachers leave the field during the first five years, creating an ever-increasing demand for highly effective and well-qualified teachers (Markow et al. 2013; Mourlam et al., 2019). It is also documented that robust induction and mentoring support create conditions in which early career teachers choose to stay (Elfers, Plecki, & Van Windekens 2017). Workplace conditions appear to be central in teachers’ decisions to leave, including problems associated with instructional leadership, school culture, collegial relationships, time for collaboration and planning, decision-making power, experiences with professional development, facilities, family support or involvement, and resources (see Simon & Johnson, 2015 for a comprehensive review). Administrative support, along with other factors that are often a function of the administrator’s approach (e.g., school culture and collegial relationships, time for collaboration, and decision-making input), affect decisions to leave the profession. Therefore, comprehensive mentoring and support systems for teachers as they transition into their professional teaching roles is crucial to ensure they remain in the classroom beyond the first few years.

Schools, school districts, educator preparation programs, and state agencies have attempted wide-ranging approaches to addressing issues of educator preparation, recruitment, and retention. Yet, issues with tuition affordability for candidates, candidates’ ability and willingness to serve as unpaid
student-teachers while supporting families, availability of well-compensated school-based mentor teachers, and access to clinical experience sites persist. These issues constrain the ability and capacity of the state to meet the needs of all its learners and to ensure an effective and diverse educator workforce.

Taken broadly within the evolving landscape of teacher preparation, teacher residency programs represent a relatively new approach to addressing teacher recruitment and retention, particularly in high-need schools and districts [struggling to recruit and retain teachers] (Silva et al., 2015). Teacher residency programs were created to address teacher turnover and close opportunity gaps for students of color. In general, these programs began to evolve in the early 2000s in Boston, Massachusetts; Chicago, Illinois; and Denver, Colorado (Beck, 2020; Guha et al., 2016; Mourlam et al., 2019). In 2004, these three programs partnered in what became the National Center for Teacher Residencies (Guha et al., 2016). Funding for these early teacher residency programs involved a mix of public and private sources (Berry et al., 2008; Harju-Luukkainen et al., 2019). Since that time, the federal government and numerous private foundations provided funding to pilot and improve residency programs (Papay et al., 2011; Sawchuck, 2011; Washburn & Moses, 2017). In general, these residencies share three common program elements: 1) a yearlong paid, mentored residency experience concurrent with master’s level coursework; 2) participation in a cohort; 3) and intensive induction supports (Gatti & Catalano, 2015; Washburn and Moses, 2017; Mourlam et al., 2019).

Although definitions of the essential elements of an effective residency have differed across studies and program models, early research indicated that, in general, residencies were a viable approach to increasing teacher recruitment and retention in high-needs schools and that candidates from these programs showed increased content knowledge, pedagogy, classroom management, and reflective practice (Boggess, 2010; Washburn & Moses, 2017). However, consistent, sufficient, and sustainable funding, coherent state policy, as well as clear definitions of what constitutes a residency and how to effectively structure partnerships between districts and preparation programs have constrained the growth of these models in Washington state and beyond.

**Theories of Action**

Utilizing the funds allocated by the Legislature, OSPI will pull together the Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup to explore recommended residency policy and funding options that are consistent with current research and best practices in residency-based teacher preparation and can be funded through existing or new legislative dollars.

The workgroup is charged to begin with a set of assumptions based on recent research and best practices on teacher residencies. This set of workgroup guidelines is framed within a theory of action perspective (Argyris, 1997). Framing goals as causal theories, essentially policy hypotheses, can not only help the workgroup identify common goals and devise strategies whose efficacy can be measured, but also can help the workgroup falsify these hypotheses to identify where and when course correction will be needed. The following are the workgroup’s initial theories of action:

If school districts are provided stable funding through state apportionment to compensate pre-service teacher candidates in a state-developed residency program and their school-based
mentors, teacher preparation programs, and local districts develop novel and effective partnerships, then:

- Participating teacher candidates will have a full year of compensated clinical practice support.
- Participating schools and districts will be more likely to attract promising teacher candidates and retain them for multiple years.
- Classroom-based mentor teachers will be compensated for the support to pre-service candidates and preparation programs.
- P–12 students will have access to more diverse and better prepared educators, particularly in historically underserved communities and hard-to-staff schools.
- School leaders and teachers will have opportunities to learn from and with preparation program faculty.
- Preparation program faculty and researchers will have more opportunities to test theories and promising practices through classroom-based research.
BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF TEACHER RESIDENCIES

What Teacher Residencies Are

With the goals of recruiting and retaining high-quality teachers, districts and universities began to collaborate on the development of residency programs to train teachers (see Guha, 2016 for a more thorough historical description). These programs placed pre-service teachers, known as residents, in the classroom of a mentor teacher with specific training who guides the resident’s development over the course of a full school year (Marshall et al., 2020). These programs most often begin through partnerships between districts struggling to recruit and retain teachers, and other groups such as private foundations, state and local education agencies, or educator preparation programs (EPPs). These partners then work together to devise recruitment and admission processes, provide instruction, organize rigorous and relevant residency experiences, and plan for data collection (Berry et al., 2008; Washburn & Moses, 2017).

The residency model builds on yearlong clinical apprenticeships in which residents are immersed and fully participate in the school-life practices of those communities, with the anticipation that those educators will embed themselves in those contexts and thus be better able to understand, apply, and participate in the policies and norms that shape them (Hammerness & Craig, 2016; Williamson, Apedoe, & Thomas, 2016; Ricci et al., 2019). Although abundant variation exists across residency programs, they typically feature a yearlong pre-service teaching experience in a mentor teacher’s classroom, supported by mentoring supports and coursework designed to encourage reflection and learning (Marshall et al., 2020).

A prototypical residency program is modeled after a medical residency and is structured as a yearlong mentorship in which the prospective teacher teaches alongside a master teacher. This residency period occurs concurrent to master’s coursework offered by a partnering organization or institution that is also an approved preparation program provider (Zirakparvar, 2015). During and following successful completion of the residency period and preparation program coursework, residents receive financial support in exchange for their commitment to serve in a “high-need” school for a period, typically at least three years (Beck, 2016; Papay et al., 2011; Silva et al., 2015).

Key principles of teacher residencies include connection between residents and the schools, bridging educational theory and practice (Arbaugh et al., 2015; Washburn & Moses 2017; Mourlam, 2019). These programs are often deeply contextualized and committed to social justice and equity in education (Dover, 2013; Boggess, 2010; Matsko and Hammerness, 2013; Beck, 2020) and focused on residents learning through side-by-side mentorship with an experienced, specifically trained, and well-compensated mentor (Berry et al., 2008a; Berry et al., 2008b; Ricci et al., 2019).

Multiple agencies, organizations, and scholars have attempted to examine and clarify what teacher residencies are by defining which elements highly effective programs share. The following section includes several of these lists and definitions, which will be used to support the Technical Advisory
Workgroup in developing its recommendations, in addition to definitions used in practice in Washington state.

Urban Teacher Residency United, a national non-profit network, wrote early examples of residency model standards and helped define quality in this program type (Howey, 2007; Solomon, 2009; Washburn & Moses, 2017, p. 35). Those model standards are:

1. A unified mission and vision for teaching that is common across partners;
2. Strong partnerships and commitment to program evaluation;
3. “Rigorous and competitive” selection of candidates;
4. Rigorous and competitive selection and comprehensive training of mentors;
5. A yearlong residency with wraparound coursework and “intensive classroom apprenticeship;” and
6. Intensive post-residency support, including careful placement of graduates.

Each of these standards is followed by several quality indicators.

In their historical analysis of teacher residency programs, Guha and colleagues (2016) described that “each teacher residency program is unique” and included the following common elements of effective programs (p. 6):

- A rigorous recruitment and selection process for both candidates and mentors;
- Relevant coursework for candidates and mentors focusing on the needs of classrooms and students;
- Systems for coaching and feedback to promote candidate development and engagement;
- Assessment systems in place to assist with candidate, mentor, and residency growth;
- Shared values among school and university (Mourlam et al., 2019, p. 401).

The federal government also has a working definition as related to funding residency programs:

1. High-need districts (struggling to recruit and retain teachers) act as partners in operating the programs. This allows the district’s personnel needs and hiring objectives to influence who is admitted to the program and what the program’s priorities are.

2. Prospective teachers under this model simultaneously complete coursework toward a master’s degree and carry out supervised fieldwork for at least one school year prior to becoming a teacher of record. This fieldwork takes place in a high-need school; it allows residents to practice their craft and take on increased teaching responsibility in a school similar to the one where they will be hired as a regular teacher after their residency—all under the guidance of an experienced, full-time classroom teacher.

3. Residents are offered a stipend or salary during their residency year and in exchange are expected to be a full-time teacher of record in a high-need school within the district for a minimum of three years.

4. Finally, program participants are provided with on-the-job support (induction services) during their first two years of teaching (Silva et al., 2015, p. 2).
This section of the report included several descriptions and considerations of what teacher residency programs are. The following section describes what teacher residency programs do in terms of approach, service delivery, and outcomes.

**What Teacher Residencies Do**

The teacher residency model of educator preparation was developed to address a host of challenges in educator preparation, including recruiting and retaining a workforce that more closely reflects social, cultural racial, linguistic, and ethnic diversity of the U.S. student population. These programs have also been designed to create and sustain thriving partnerships between schools, districts, and EPPs; address teacher shortages in high-need subject and geographic areas; help sustain induction supports; and support high-quality and effectiveness in teacher education.

In their historical analysis of teacher residencies, Guha and colleagues (2016) simplified the outcomes of residencies:

1. Create a vehicle to recruit teachers for high-need fields (identified shortage endorsement areas) and locations;
2. Offer recruits strong content and clinical preparation specifically for the kinds of schools in which they will teach;
3. Connect new teachers to early career mentoring that will keep them in the profession; and
4. Provide financial incentives that will keep teachers in the districts that have invested in them (p. 1).

Similarly, Ron Thorpe, the then-president of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards believed that this model showed potential to:

1. Tighten the match between teacher supply and schools' demand;
2. Strengthen curriculum, instruction, and standards in teacher preparation;
3. Reduce teacher attrition rates, especially for novice teachers; and
4. Improve the confidence in the profession in the eyes of the public (Thorpe, 2014; Washburn & Moses, 2017).

“Although highly touted, research is just beginning to examine these programs” (Washburn & Moses, 2017, p. 33). Based on initial review of recent literature, the following section details several key outcomes that have been associated with residencies. The programs described in the literature are highly varied in their approach and design, the contexts in which they have emerged, and the methods through which they have been studied. And, in all likelihood, the programs described in the literature diverge as well in the overall skill, capacity, and effectiveness with which they have been implemented.

**Address Recruitment and Retention in Schools**

Generally, teacher residencies have their historical roots in recruiting, preparing, and retaining teachers for “high-need” urban schools (struggling to recruit and retain teachers) (Guha, Hyler, & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Hammerness, Williamson, & Kosnick, 2016; Williamson, Apedoe, & Thomas, 2016) and ensuring that future generations of teachers in these schools can support all
students to meet rigorous academic learning standards and develop meaningful life skills for college, community, and career opportunities (National Center for Teacher Residencies, 2014; Ansari Ricci et al., 2019). In some cases, residency programs have been able to address recruitment and retention due to their partnership model and the unique candidate selection, preparation, compensation, and commitment features common in these programs (Silva et al., 2015).

The Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences sponsored a multiyear study of 30 teacher residency programs that received federal grants in either the fall of 2009 or spring of 2010. The study found that:

1. Retention rate was slightly higher for residency candidates (89%) compared to the non-residency candidates (87%) from spring 2012 to fall 2012 (approximately two years after program completion); and

2. Residency program completers who left their schools, but did not leave the profession, joined schools that were similar demographically to the one they did their residency. This was based on the percentage of students who were: Black, Hispanic/Latino, multilingual/English learners, eligible for free or reduced-price meals, scored proficient or higher on state tests in reading, and scored proficient or higher on state tests in math.

A study of a single program using data from 2005–06 through 2010–11 found that teachers prepared in the Boston Teacher Residency were more likely to continue in the district into their fifth year than were their similarly experienced peers who prepared in other programs, and the retention rate was much higher for residency candidates (75%) compared to the non-residency candidates (51%) (Solomon, 2009; Silva et al., 2015).

**Develop and Maintain Strong Mentoring and Induction Support Systems**

Another outcome of residency programs is the development of dynamic interaction between preparation and ongoing mentoring and support. With in-depth and ongoing mentoring combined with providing pre-service preparation, candidates have the opportunity to learn through observation and practice with few barriers to their early growth in the profession (Kolman et al., 2016). The full year of mentored clinical practice is perhaps the most important central characteristic of effective residency programs. Unlike some “traditional” teacher preparation programs where student teaching takes place over a single semester and some “alternative” programs that are either unmentored or loosely mentored while candidates largely go it alone, rigorous residency programs feature extended and intensively mentored placements that allow the resident-mentor relationship to develop over an entire academic year (Garza et al., 2019).

These models allow rich opportunities for multiple types of co-teaching to differentiate instruction, emphasize collaboration among educators, and provide more inclusive education opportunities (Ansari Ricci et al., 2019). Although program models differ, mentoring opportunities typically continue after the residency year for one, two, or three years. The induction supports offered to program completers after the program are perhaps the most highly variable aspects of residency programs in practice. Implementation of this mentoring support is also typically accompanied by a
service agreement on the part of candidates to remain in the same school or district during this induction period (Anderson-Levitt, 2017; Marshall et al., 2020; Harjuu-Luukkainen et al., 2019; Zirakparvar, 2015; Guha, 2016).

**Increase Candidates’ Applied Learning of Complex and Effective Practice**

Teacher residencies focus candidates on teaching practice through intensive, intentional, and deliberate experience that both grounds and guides them through theoretically rich, relevant, and culturally sustaining coursework. Connections between what candidates are learning and how they apply it in the classroom are made explicit and overt so candidates can develop more effective and complex practices (Beasley, Gist, and Imbeau 2014; Ryan et al., 2014). In this process, “teacher candidates have more opportunities to experience the varied ways in which teachers teach and students learn” (Mourlam et al., 2019, p. 397).

In addition to being environments where candidates can learn the complexities of teaching practice, many residency programs also seek to cultivate learning environments in which candidates can experience the social and cultural complexities of schools and teaching and learning. As teacher residency programs have been generally focused on preparing teachers to serve historically underserved student groups, they have also focused on addressing issues of social justice and equity in schools as well as within teacher education programs (Guha et al., 2016; Beck, 2020). Residency models traditionally involve immersing candidates in their mentor teachers’ classrooms, creating opportunities for rich and dynamic co-teaching. This creates opportunities for residents and mentors to use co-teaching models that can help differentiate instruction for P–12 students (Ansari Ricci et al., 2019). This ability to differentiate instruction more widely and in varied ways also creates opportunities for educators to use more inclusive practices in their classrooms to support a diversity of needs for all learners, including multilingual/English learners and students with disabilities.

**Foster Effective Partnerships Among Residents, Districts, and Preparation Programs**

Teacher residency programs have the capability to address the wide range of challenges in teacher education primarily due to the partnerships that sustain them (Washburn & Moses, 2017). Teacher residency programs rely on effective partnership activities and relationships among multiple entities, including community stakeholders, school districts, teacher preparation programs, as well as teachers’ unions, state education agencies, and professional associations representing educators. Residency programs require clear parameters, which are spelled out in articulation agreements that reflect the needs of all parties in order to build the strong foundation of candidate, district, and preparation program partnerships to ensure success. Through these partnerships, residents have opportunities to engage in school communities as fully trained, expertly prepared teachers. In fact, commitment to preparation of future educators through constant engagement in the school community is the model’s bedrock (Berry, Montgomery, & Snyder, 2008; Klein et al., 2013; Washburn & Moses, 2017, p. 34).
How Residencies Differ

Residency Programs Differ From “Traditional” and “Alternative” Routes

Nationwide, beliefs and practices in teacher education and licensing constantly have evolved and continue to take many forms. In recent decades, and in general terms, these forms have included four-year undergraduate programs and one- or two-year graduate programs that offer bachelor’s and master’s degrees respectively as well as state licensure or certification. These programs are often referred to as “traditional programs,” although programs in this category vary dramatically and innovate regularly. Traditional college or university-based teacher education programs have been criticized for having low entry and completion standards, being too far removed from teachers and schools, offering coursework that lacks connection to day-to-day work in classrooms, providing insufficient time in the field, and being financially or geographically difficult to access (Zeichner, 2010; Washburn & Moses, 2017). Due to these concerns, a diverse array of alternatives has grown rapidly in recent decades (Walsh & Jacobs, 2007). By 2007, researchers observed that 1 in 5 novice teachers entered the field through an “alternative program” (Walsh & Jacobs, 2007).

Now commonplace, alternative routes to teaching exist in every state and the District of Columbia (Washburn & Moses, 2017). Across the United States, these programs vary widely from one another but differ most distinctly from traditional programs in that traditional programs tend to involve candidates in coursework first, followed by a period of clinical practice before intensive teaching and employment, whereas candidates in one of many alternative routes complete coursework during their first year of teaching (Lincove, Osborn, Mills, & Bellows, 2015 Morey et al., 1997; Harju-Luukkainen et al., 2019). Although, “for some time it has been clear that the boundaries between ‘traditional’ and ‘alternative’ preparation programs are no longer as distinct as originally intended” (Washburn & Moses, 2017).

Fraser and Lefty (2018) described the residency approach as a “hybrid model,” “third way” (Berry et al., 2008a), or “third space” (Klein et al., 2013) combining the best elements of traditional and alternative approaches (Washburn & Moses, 2017). Teacher residency programs have been described as a different approach to preparation designed to address the shortcomings of traditional and alternative models (Zeichner et al., 2015; Marshall et al., 2020). In contrast to typical traditional and alternative preparation programs, teacher residencies place equal and concurrent emphasis on both university-based coursework and practice. (Marshall et al., 2020). Also in contrast to traditional teacher preparation programs, highly effective residencies are co-designed by the program and the district(s) involved in order to “recruit high-ability candidates to meet specific district hiring needs, especially in fields where there are shortages” (Guha et al., 2016, p. 6). Graduates who are hired in these programs also receive financial support including stipends and tuition remission, as well as mentoring support following certification (Beck, 2018; Mourlam et al., 2019). These features distinguish residency programs from traditional and alternative routes programs; however, residency programs differ greatly among themselves.
Residency Programs Differ From One Another

Residency programs differ from traditional and alternative programs and residency programs differ from one another. Initially, these programs emerged to address pressing teacher shortages in urban communities; hence, the term “urban teacher residencies” was used. But descriptions of teacher residencies do not often distinguish “urban teacher residency” from “teacher residency,” nor does the federal government make a place-based distinction. Beyond location, these programs also differ from one another on several key factors related to the residents they serve, the districts with which they partner, and the preparation programs in which they operate (Guha et al., 2016).

Residency programs vary widely upon factors such as which candidates they seek to enroll, eligibility requirements, processes of recruitment, conditional loan commitments, tuition funding mechanisms, and stipends during the residency period. Residency programs also vary based on district-related factors such as partnership agreements, requirements about how much and what kind of support mentors offer, the overall mentorship framework used through the program, and mentors’ stipends. In addition to factors related to candidates and districts, these programs also differ based on factors related to the preparation programs that operate them. Some of these areas of variation include the model’s alignment with the federal definition or research-based definitions of teacher residency, state or local approval or accreditation processes, curriculum requirements, induction supports, and tuition agreements (Washburn & Moses, 2017). The Technical Advisory Workgroup will focus on these areas of because they all have important implications on cost-effectiveness, program effectiveness, community satisfaction, and long-term sustainability of residency programs. Before describing the membership, recruitment, and process of the workgroup, this report provides a brief overview of teacher preparation, and more specifically teacher residencies, in Washington state.
TEACHER RESIDENCIES IN WASHINGTON STATE

The Washington State Professional Educator Standards Board (PESB) is the state board charged with approving, monitoring, and setting quality standards for the teacher preparation programs in Washington. As provided for in state law, PESB establishes policies and requirements for the preparation and certification of educators, including establishing policies for the approval of nontraditional preparation program providers, providing oversight and accountability related to the quality and effectiveness of these programs, constructing rules that address competitive grant processes, and program design (Revised Code of Washington [RCW] 28A.410.210; RCW 28A.660.020, and 28A.660.035; Washington Administrative Code [WAC] 181.80-005). In addition, PESB approves prospective preparation programs, annually evaluates those programs, and works with partners to develop initiatives to increase recruitment and retention of teacher candidates, particularly candidates of color and bilingual/multilingual candidates (WAC 181-78A-100; WAC 181-78A-105).

Washington state is rare in its diversity of educator preparation program providers as well as the variation in candidates’ options. During the 2019–20 academic year, PESB reported that completers of 27 preparation programs earned their first credentials and became beginning teachers. These candidates were prepared by PESB-approved providers in a variety of programs, including some operating within four-year public universities and colleges (8), private universities (13), colleges through the State Board of Community and Technical Colleges (SBCTC) (5), one private for-profit organization, and one educational service district that supports 40 geographically proximal independent school districts (1). The breadth of diversity in program providers is unique and appears to be an asset for the state that allows candidates to find programs that suit them from among multiple options, all of which are held to the same preparation program standards and undergo the same initial and ongoing review processes (WAC 181-78A-100; WAC 181-78A-220; WAC 181-78A-231 through 237). These programs can also be characterized in terms of the common approaches to teacher education described above: “traditional,” “alternative,” or “residency.”

In 2001, the Legislature acted to create “Alternative Routes to Teacher Certification.” These programs involve partnerships between approved preparation program providers, school districts, and other partners. Approved program partnerships are eligible to apply for alternative routes block grant funding as available and a conditional scholarship program to support candidate tuition (WAC 181-80-110; RCW 28A.660.050).

These laws were created to address teacher shortages and prioritized the following key program design elements:

- Same standards as traditional programs;
- Residency-based, full-year mentored internships;
- Job-embedded learning;
- Flexible delivery of coursework around candidates’ full-time internships;
• Loan forgiveness for service in shortage areas; and
• Strong partnerships between school districts and preparation programs.

It is noteworthy that alternative route programs in Washington must meet the same standards as traditional programs; as such, the state’s alternative routes do not imply “alternative certification” as is often described in the professional literature (Key, 2012). It is also noteworthy that the program design requirements established in state law for alternative routes programs align with “teacher residency” definitions described above. However, it is not as clear cut in practice which programs are traditional, which are alternative, and which are teacher residencies. There are examples of providers classified as “traditional” who operate residencies, examples of “alternative route” programs that operate residencies, and examples of programs called residencies that do not meet all aspects of the federal or research-based definition of teacher residencies (Silva et al., 2015). The concern among researchers is that continued use of the title “Teacher Residency” without meeting some parts of the federal definition or quality indicators may cause the term to lose its meaning (Washburn & Moses, 2017). The Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup includes members of multiple program types who offer varied forms of teacher education in effort to thoroughly understand these differing approaches and make its recommendations.
TEACHER SHORTAGES IN WASHINGTON STATE

The Washington State Professional Educator Standards Board is also charged with maintaining data concerning educator preparation programs and educator employment trends and needs (RCW 28A.410.210). PESB does so by collecting robust and relevant data from each educator preparation program annually and analyzing those data, in concert with other data elements collected by OSPI, to publish information about teacher employment trends and needs. Over recent years, “steady progress has been made to reduce the educator shortage in Washington state, yet demographic, content area, role, and geographic shortages persist” (PESB Shortage Report 2021, p. 3). According to the PESB 2021 Educator Shortage Report, demographic shortages are extreme; at that time, data from the State Report Card showed teachers of color represent 13% of the workforce but students of color make up 49% of the K–12 students in Washington (Figure 1; see PESB website for more detailed information).
Content area shortages are described in terms of particular indicators such as limited certificates issued and out-of-endorsement placements. PESB reported that content area shortages have been most pronounced for elementary educators, special education teachers, and teachers specially trained in serving multilingual/English learners. The report also describes shortages in the areas of career and technical education (CTE) and subjects related to science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM). Geographic shortages described in the report are not specific, but distinguish rural areas as particularly problematic for recruitment and retention. The agency’s web-based resources include an interactive mapping tool, which provides a list of shortage areas by geographic region.

Teacher residencies in general have emerged as means to address these types of educator shortages (Silva, 2015; Guha, 2016). Alternative routes program models, described as “residency-based” were also specifically designed to redress demographic, content area, and geographic teacher shortages (WAC 181-80-110). Although it may not be sound, for reasons described above, to conflate alternative routes and teacher residencies in all cases, it can be informative to consider educator preparation programs’ output based on their classification as “traditional” and “alternative.” The PESB website provides opportunity for this distinction through its interactive data portal. According to this source, based on the 2016–17 through 2019–20 academic year data, the number of alternative route programs recommending first credential (new) teachers for licensure increased from eight providers to ten providers. The number of new teachers prepared in these programs was more sporadic.
### Table 1: Number of Individuals Recommended for First Credential Teacher Licensure by Program Type*

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of preparation programs classified as traditional or alternative routes recommending at least one candidate for first credential teacher licensure</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** PESB website, retrieved October 25, 2021.

*Note: The total number of preparation programs compared to the number of alternative route preparation programs in this table could be misleading because some providers are counted in both categories. Often, an alternative route program is offered by a provider also operating a traditional program. Occasionally, an alternative route program cohort includes candidates who meet the requirements of alternative routes candidates as well as candidates who do not, and rarely the same program recommends alternative route completers in one year, and not in the following year, depending on the background of candidates involved in the program. Counts do not include career and technical education (CTE) preparation program completers.

**Note: In instances in which a program recommended fewer than six individuals, those values are noted in the data source as \( n = <6 \); in this table figures are provided in a range indicating if such a program recommended 1 or 5 candidates that year.

***Note: Data for the number of candidates in traditional programs is omitted because a value for the largest preparation program provider was not included in the dataset.
MENTORING AND INDUCTION SUPPORTS IN WASHINGTON STATE

Compounding the needs of districts who are short on well-qualified, effectively trained educators, preparation program providers’ output has declined while demand has increased (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Number of Washington State Teacher Preparation Program Completers Versus the Number of Beginning Teachers Being Hired


Recent data collected and analyzed by OSPI indicated that the number of emergency substitute teacher certificates has also spiked in recent years. The timing of this increase in emergency substitute teacher certificates suggests that the global COVID-19 pandemic has also compounded already existing challenges in finding enough teachers for all of Washington’s schools (Table 2). With fewer educators emerging from preparation programs, and more being hired with less preparation, the critical importance of mentoring and induction supports is clear.

Table 2: Emergency Substitute Certificates by Calendar Year*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Calendar Year</th>
<th>Count Issued</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2019–20</td>
<td>4,445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020–21</td>
<td>3,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2021–22 (as of 10/25/21)</td>
<td>4,869</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, October 25, 2021.

*Note: The certificate code for this role C270700.
A robust and systematic mentoring program already exists in Washington state. OSPI has developed a statewide mentoring initiative called the Beginning Educator Support Team (BEST) induction network, which is grounded in evidence-based practices for supporting and mentoring new educators in the state. The BEST program works with districts to provide mentoring for early-career educators as well as information resources, professional development for mentors and leaders, and grants (as appropriated by the Legislature). In 2019–20, 191 of Washington’s 295 school districts were involved in the program. Elfers, Plecki, and Van Windekens (2017) found 94% retention among first-year teachers in districts implementing the BEST program with fidelity, compared to 90% in those who were not doing so. The goals of the program are focused on reducing educator turnover, improving student learning, and providing equity in learning opportunities in schools.

The program includes seven key supports for early career teachers:

- Induction support as a core component of school improvement;
- School-wide collective responsibility;
- Comprehensive and coherent systems of induction using robust sets of mentor standards and induction standards;
- Healthy school cultures and building leadership;
- Mentoring effective classroom instruction;
- Equity of opportunity for all learners; and
- Use of sophisticated practices in mentoring skills and dispositions.

These supports are provided through legislative funding, and are at no charge to participants and are open to all districts in the state:

- Mentor academies;
- Mentor roundtables;
- Annual mentor-coach Equity in Action conference; and
- Induction leader collaborations.

The BEST initiative allocates funding to grantees to focus mainly on Year 1 teachers and Year 2 teachers. District grant recipients use funds to pay for induction activities such as summer orientations, stipends for mentors, and ongoing professional learning for teachers and mentors. In 2020–21, grantees received $2,000 for each first-year teacher with a colleague mentor and $3,500 for each first-year teacher with a release mentor. In addition, continuing grantees received $1,000 per second-year teacher. In recent years, funding has been differentiated to provide additional funds to teachers of special education and to teachers of multilingual/English Learners.
INITIAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendation One: Membership and Recruitment

Use deliberate efforts to ensure workgroup membership reflects historically excluded student, family, and educator communities. The workgroup will include representatives from educator preparation programs (EPPs), local education agencies, and professional associations, including, but not limited to, the following:

- Community and family supporting organizations active in P–12 education
- EPPs: University and community college-based programs, programs serving candidates in Eastern and Western Washington, programs not housed in institutions of higher education
- Washington State Professional Educator Standards Board (PESB)
- Washington Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (WACTE)
- Washington Council for Educator Administrator Programs (WCEAP)
- Washington Association of Educational Service Districts (AESD)
- Association of Washington School Principals (AWSP)
- Washington Education Association (WEA)
- Washington Early Childhood Workforce Council
- Districts in which residencies have been or are being offered
- Districts that experience acute challenges in racial/ethnic disproportionality between educator and student populations
- Districts that experience significant and persistent teacher shortages
- Districts with significant populations of multilingual/English learners
- OSPI Office of Native Education (ONE)
- OSPI Beginning Educator Support Team (BEST)
- Collaboration for Effective Educator Development, Accountability, and Reform (WA-CEEDAR)
- Pre-service educator candidates

Recommendation Two: Goals of the Workgroup

Set clear goals for the workgroup that are aligned with the legislative requirement and are structured to take place over the course of a one-year period. The Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup has been charged with exploring recommended residency options for pre-service educators, with a focus on educators of color and educators who are multilingual. Specifically, the group will:

- Include a diverse, engaged, and well-informed membership;
- Convene monthly for a period of six months to explore critical residency model factors related to candidates, districts, and preparation programming;
- Develop and define residency options for pre-service educators, with a focus on educators of color and educators who are multilingual;
- Vet recommendations with a wider group of stakeholders; and
• Provide recommendations and cost projections to the Legislature that are resonant with the current policy and practice context of teacher education in Washington.

**Recommendation Three: Conducting the Workgroup**

Use a clear, effective, and generative facilitation strategy to maximize inclusion and insight. The Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup will be formed between November and December 2021. The group will be provided with this initial report as well as the academic literature, reports, and policy documents used to create it. Project leads will orient the group to the structure, goals, and approach prior to the first convening in January 2022. In each of six convenings, participants will engage in learning, deliberation, and discussion on three issues or challenges in sustaining and expanding high-quality paid teacher residencies. During the sessions, outside experts, researchers, community members, school district human resource professionals, preparation program providers, and other informed stakeholders will make presentations that inform and expand workgroup members’ knowledge and awareness of teacher residency model options. The group will not seek consensus in these issues; rather, the group will collaboratively develop multiple feasible recommendations that include cost and impact modeling. See Appendix A for an initial outline of the structure and sequence of the workgroup meetings.

Project leads will employ an effective facilitation and learning method to the Teacher Residency Technical Advisory Workgroup. Authors of this report have used this technique to guide discussion and decision-making meetings when developing complex, and sometimes technical and contentious, policy recommendations. The effectiveness of the model stems from its roots in learning sciences; it works because participants bring what they already know, learn as individuals, and propel the group forward as they collaborate to address specific challenges from multiple perspectives. This model, the “Challenge Cycle,” emerged from anchored instruction learning experiments in the 1990s at Vanderbilt University and were incorporated into the National Academies Press publication, How People Learn (National Research Council, 2000). There are five steps in a Challenge Cycle and each one builds from, and into, the previous and subsequent steps (Figure 3). Each facilitated workgroup would involve participants going through three cycles of steps; these steps are briefly described below.
The Challenge
The challenge is a short, clearly stated, and focused presentation of the focal issue. During each convening, there will be three challenges: one focused on candidate factors, a second focused on district factors, and a third focused on preparation program factors. As the meetings proceed, the challenges in each of these areas build from the challenges addressed in the previous months. Researchers outline the challenges so they can be address sequentially and eventually built into the policy recommendations needed for the workgroup’s final report to the Legislature in November 2022. Participants learn about the challenge through a video or live description that is fewer than seven minutes and are then invited to help address the challenge as a group. Presenting challenges in this way invites participants into a common learning and development effort; this approach is supported by cognitive neuroscience principles such as intrinsic motivation and stimulating existing synaptic pathways and connections.

Initial Thoughts
After hearing about the challenge, participants are asked to engage in solution finding and make a commitment to meaningfully address the issue. Individuals then take fewer than 10 minutes to be generative with regard to their prior knowledge by quietly and privately answering questions such as, What do I already know about this? What would I like to know more about this? What might an expert in the field say about this? Moving from open idea generation to more directed idea generation has been shown to facilitate the adaptive learning needed to address entrenched challenges (Martin et al., 2007). Writing these thoughts down in a way where no one else can see them begins a process of active engagement that has been found to help develop two important aspects of adaptive expertise—multiple perspectives and metacognition. This encourages participants to take responsibility for what they already know as they make it visible to themselves. This step also creates an opportunity for them to observe shifts in their thinking in a later step of the cycle. These first two steps take fewer than 20 minutes together.
Perspectives and Resources
After the self-insight involved in initial thoughts, participants then experience together multiple perspectives related to the key challenge at hand. As the longest step in the cycle, this will involve focused expert testimony and discussion with invited guests with a range of relevant expertise and positionality relative to the challenge at hand. These resources may also form of key findings of relevant research or descriptions of working models in which others have addressed the challenge. Project leads would not serve as these experts but rather would invite others from outside the group, from within Washington and beyond, to speak to the group. These outside experts and resources would be collected, organized, and coordinated by the project leads in a way that maximizes the group’s learning and expediency in developing recommendations. Multiple perspectives are shared in focused descriptions and short videos to maximize engagement and minimize cognitive overload. Participants are encouraged to ask clarifying questions, not to engage in lengthy discussion, and to take notes during this section to help them structure their revised thoughts in the next step of the cycle.

Reflect and Revise
This step of the cycle has two distinct but connected elements that support metacognition. First, participants reflect on the presentations they have just heard and on any new knowledge while it is fresh in their minds. They are scaffolded through this step with questions such as, What was surprising? What did I already know, but now see in a new light? What still needs to be explained? These metacognitive processes have been shown to improve learning and increase positive affect in the process (Efklides, 2006), both of which are foundational to advisory workgroups as they make complicated and sometimes competing recommendations. The Challenge Cycle is designed to have this individual reflection followed by rich discussion in small groups around individuals’ responses to the follow up questions above, and an additional question such as, How can I apply, or relate to, what I have learned in my own context? As participants take part in these small group discussions, they can clarify misconceptions and help others connect new knowledge to prior understanding in meaningful ways.

Report Out
Once small groups have had sufficient time to talk through their questions, they join in a large group discussion facilitated by project leads. This supports the group learning process as participants have now had opportunities to consider what they already know about a key challenge, to hear perspectives of multiple and varied experts, to consider new information, and to share their new understandings and questions in small groups. Together, the group assembles these perspectives into multiple approaches to addressing that focal challenge. It is not essential that technical advisory workgroup members all agree, and the process does not seek unanimity of thought, rather the process is designed to create a learning environment where the participants together pose multiple feasible, even if competing, approaches to addressing shared barriers to common goals. Project leads will record this section of the meeting in order to review it at later stages and use it to advance the group’s work before and during subsequent meetings.
Continue the Cycle
In this context, IDEALS researchers would propose one or two challenges per workgroup over four workgroups. The result of each challenge cycle would be incorporated in the framing of the next challenge. In this way, participants would have an experience of considering what they already know, learning together from others, then collaboratively generating new knowledge to make their policy recommendations.

Recommendation Four: Learning Broadly and Focusing on Diversifying the Educator Workforce
Explore learning from multiple organizations in Washington state whose initiatives are aligned with the goals of the workgroup and that specifically support known and emergent needs and challenges among educators of color and multilingual educators. Project leads will invite workgroup members and feature expert speakers who are involved in state and local initiatives that aim to diversify the educator workforce.

Recommendation Five: Creating Recommendations
Provide the workgroup with robust and accurate resources including, but not limited to, academic research, policy reports, examples from practice, and more to inform and shape the workgroup’s recommendations. In addition to convening workgroup meetings with featured speakers, project leads will provide all workgroup members with a resource library. The information will include academic and professional papers on teacher residency models, their impacts, and their variations. The resources will also include the experiences of educators, district leaders, mentors, and teacher candidates.

In accordance with the legislative requirements, the project leads will provide final recommendations to the Legislature based on the learning of the workgroup by November 1, 2022. Workgroup members, a wider group of invested stakeholders, and OSPI will have the opportunity to provide input on the draft report prior to finalizing the report.
REFERENCES

Alternative routes to teacher certification, RCW 28A.660.050.


# APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Workgroup Calendar and Topical Outline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge 1</th>
<th>January 12, 2021</th>
<th>February 9, 2022</th>
<th>March 9, 2022</th>
<th>April 13, 2022</th>
<th>May 11, 2022</th>
<th>June 8, 2022</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prime Candidates:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Candidate Recruitment:</strong> Extensive, ongoing, data-informed recruitment and orientation practices</td>
<td><strong>Candidate Commitments:</strong> Conditional loans, service agreements, and eligibility</td>
<td><strong>Candidate Funding:</strong> Available and existing funding opportunities, contemporary models from other contexts, and new funding possibilities</td>
<td><strong>Resident Stipends:</strong> Amount, type, impact, and funding sources for resident stipends currently used in Washington state and beyond</td>
<td><strong>Recommendations on Candidate Factors:</strong> The workgroup will make recommendations on funding and impact models that include different approaches to these candidate factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focal Districts:</strong> Focal candidate populations for residency opportunities</td>
<td><strong>Partnerships:</strong> Approaches to creating, maintaining, and sustaining effective partnerships among EPPs, districts, candidates, and agencies</td>
<td><strong>Mentoring Requirements:</strong> The amount, type, frequency and duration of mentoring required for candidates</td>
<td><strong>Mentoring Framework:</strong> Curriculum, approach, standards, and training involved in mentoring experiences</td>
<td><strong>Mentor Stipends:</strong> Amount, type, impact, and funding sources for resident stipends currently used in Washington state and beyond</td>
<td><strong>Recommendations on Mentor Factors:</strong> The workgroup will make recommendations on funding and impact models that include different approaches to these district factors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Challenge 2</td>
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- **Challenge 1:** Prime Candidates: Focal candidate populations for residency opportunities
- **Challenge 2:** Focal Districts: Focal districts for residency opportunities
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge 3</th>
<th>January 12, 2021</th>
<th>February 9, 2022</th>
<th>March 9, 2022</th>
<th>April 13, 2022</th>
<th>May 11, 2022</th>
<th>June 8, 2022</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Residency Programming:</strong> Curriculum, instruction, field experience, and support structures for residents, mentors, districts, and EPPs</td>
<td><strong>Approved Program Providers:</strong> PESB approved preparation program providers, standards, and review</td>
<td><strong>Curriculum Requirements:</strong> The current standards for knowledge, skills, and cultural responsiveness required for pre-service educators</td>
<td><strong>Induction Supports:</strong> Amount, type, and impact, and funding sources for induction and mentoring currently used in Washington state and beyond</td>
<td><strong>Tuition Agreements:</strong> Contemporary models for structuring tuition agreements between candidates, EPPs, districts, and agencies</td>
<td><strong>Recommendations on Program Factors:</strong> The workgroup will make recommendations on funding and impact models that include different approaches to these program factors</td>
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