Which Teachers Choose a Defined Contribution Pension Plan?

Evidence from the Florida Retirement System

Matthew M. Chingos
Brown Center on Education Policy
Brookings Institution
1775 Massachusetts Ave NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 797-6316
mchingos@brookings.edu

Martin R. West (corresponding author)
Harvard Graduate School of Education
Gutman Library 454
6 Appian Way
Cambridge, MA 02138
(617) 496-8302
martin_west@gse.harvard.edu

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Abstract

Since 2002, public school teachers in Florida have been permitted to choose between a defined benefit (DB) and a defined contribution (DC) retirement plan. We exploit this unique policy environment to study new teachers' revealed preferences over pension plan structures. Roughly thirty percent of teachers hired between 2003 and 2008 selected the DC plan, despite the fact that teachers not actively deciding within six months were defaulted into the DB plan. The share choosing the DC plan was higher among teachers with advanced degrees, math and science teachers, and teachers in charter schools. It was lower among special education teachers and especially among black and Hispanic teachers. There was only a slight relationship between plan choice and teacher value-added to student achievement, with teachers in the bottom value-added quartile roughly two percentage points less likely to choose the DC option.

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1. Introduction

Although long ignored by education policy analysts, the structure of teacher retirement benefits has come under increasing scrutiny in recent years. The vast majority of teachers, like other state and local public employees, are covered by traditional defined benefit (DB) pension plans (Hansen 2010; Munnell 2012). Now rare in the private sector of the United States economy, these plans provide retired teachers with a guaranteed lifetime benefit, the annual value of which is typically based on their number of years of service and average salary during the final years of their careers. Teachers are often required to contribute from their salaries to funds set aside to pay for these plans, but the size of their benefit is not tied to the amount of any contributions.

Critics of existing teacher pension systems raise two broad sets of concerns. First, they note that the time lag between when the government funds and pays out retirement benefits encourages politicians to contribute too little to their pension systems, effectively borrowing from future taxpayers to fund current spending on government services (Hess and Squire 2010). The shortfalls facing state and local pension systems covering teachers and other public workers due to persistent underfunding are staggering. Novy-Marx and Rauh (2012) estimate that achieving full funding of promised pension liabilities nationally over 30 years would require a tax increase of $1,385 per household each year. A more likely outcome is substantial cuts to public services such as education.

Second, critics note that the reliance on traditional DB pension plans makes total teacher compensation severely back-loaded, potentially hindering efforts to improve teacher quality. Most of these plans have vesting periods of five or more years and are structured such that employees do not amass substantial benefits until late in their careers—at which point benefits

increase rapidly. These features may make teaching less attractive to individuals who are uncertain about whether they will remain in the profession long enough to benefit or would prefer to receive a higher salary to support present consumption. Recent evidence confirms that they lead some veteran teachers to continue teaching solely for the sake of increasing pension wealth, while encouraging others to retire prematurely so as not to sacrifice years of benefit payments (Costrell and Podgursky 2009; Costrell and McGee 2010). The back-loading of benefits also imposes heavy costs on career-switchers and geographically mobile teachers, who typically stand to receive benefits worth far less than the contributions to the pension system made on their behalf (Costrell and Podgursky 2010).

The most prominent alternative to a traditional DB pension plan is the defined contribution (DC) model. Under DC plans, employees build up an individual retirement account through regular contributions made by them and/or their employer throughout their career and exercise some control over how the account is invested. Because the value of that account is tied directly to these contributions (and the performance of their investments), DC plans, by definition, cannot be underfunded. Rapid vesting, portability, and the smooth accrual of benefits over time eliminate the problematic end-of-career incentives created by existing DB plans and could make teaching more attractive to young workers, possible career-switchers, or those likely to be geographically mobile. Finally, because benefits take the form of a personal account that can be converted into a lifetime annuity that mimics the guaranteed stream of payments available from a traditional DB plan, employees gain control over the timing and structure of their retirement benefit.

An important potential drawback of the DC model is that employees, rather than taxpayers, bear the consequences if disappointing investment returns or poor withdrawal

decisions yield inadequate retirement savings.[1] Unions representing teachers and other public employees have vigorously opposed proposals to convert public pension plans to the DC model, largely on these grounds. Proponents of DB pensions cite survey data suggesting that public employees strongly prefer the DB model and contend that, "when given the choice between a primary DB or DC plan, public employees overwhelmingly choose the DB pension plan" (Olleman and Boivie 2011, p. 1).

Yet there is reason to believe that many current and potential teachers could find well-designed DC plans as or more attractive than traditional DB plans. As noted above, DB plans typically provide minimal benefits to those who do not remain in the profession (and in the same state retirement system) for many years. They may therefore be unappealing to a younger generation of workers prone to exploring multiple career paths before settling on one. Other teachers may simply prefer to exercise greater control over their retirement savings, either due to confidence in their investment abilities or to doubts as to whether public pension funds will be able to deliver on their promises. Consistent with this logic, a survey of Washington State teachers found that a plurality of teachers would prefer to invest additional retirement savings in a DC plan rather than in a DB plan (DeArmond and Goldhaber 2010). The extent to which preferences expressed on surveys correspond to the actual behavior of teachers when given the option remains unclear.

In this paper, we examine teacher preferences as revealed by their decisions when empowered to choose between alternative pension plan structures. Since 2002, public school teachers (and most other state and local employees) in Florida have been permitted to choose

[1] Indeed, the fact that employees rather than taxpayers bear the risk of inadequate funding is arguably the only fundamental difference between DC and DB plans, as existing DB plans can be modified to provide equivalent portability and a smooth accrual of pension wealth over time under what are known as cash balance (CB) plans. CB plans can in principle be further modified to share market risk, leaving as the only fundamental difference between DC and DB plans whether the individual or the plan exercises control over investment decisions.

between a traditional DB retirement plan and a new DC plan. During the time period of our study, school districts were required to contribute 9 percent of the salary of teachers taking the DC option to personal investment accounts in their names. Neither DB nor DC choosers were required to contribute from their salaries to the retirement system, meaning that teachers' plan choice did not alter their take-home pay. The benefits of teachers choosing the DC plan vested after just one year, as compared with six under the DB plan.

Using a unique database linking information from the state's Education Data Warehouse and retirement system, we present evidence on the share of new Florida teachers between 2003 and 2009 selecting the DC plan and on their characteristics, including (for a subset of teachers) their effectiveness in raising student achievement. By comparing the attrition patterns of teachers choosing different pension plans, we also examine whether teachers appear to be making choices that maximize their pension wealth.

The Florida policy provides a unique opportunity to study new teachers' revealed preferences over alternative pension plan structures, yet it is not without limitations. Most importantly, teachers who did not make an active decision within six months of their hire date were automatically enrolled in the traditional DB plan. The choice of the default option has been shown to have a dramatic effect on many aspects of individuals' retirement behavior (Beshears et al. 2008), and appears to be particularly consequential for the choice between DB and DC pension plans. Goda and Manchester (2010), for example, show that setting the DC rather than the DB as the default option for employees at a large private firm increased DC participation rates by as much as 60 percentage points. As a result, the share of Florida teachers choosing the DC plan likely understates what would be observed had the default option been reversed.

Our data nonetheless reveal considerable demand for DC plans among new teachers entering Florida public schools between the 2003-04 and 2008-09 school years.[2] Thirty percent of new teachers during this period selected the DC option, with the share steadily rising prior to the financial market turmoil in 2008. This pattern casts doubt on assertions that there is negligible interest in DC plans among teachers and public sector employees more generally (Olleman and Boivie 2011).[3]

We also find that the extent of demand for the DC pension option varies across teacher groups. The share of teachers choosing the DC plan is higher among teachers with master's and doctoral degrees, math and science teachers, and teachers in charter schools participating in the Florida retirement system. It is lower among special education teachers and especially among black and Hispanic teachers, who are roughly 12 percentage points less likely than white teachers to choose the DC option. The markedly lower shares of minority teachers choosing the DC option cannot be explained by differences in early-career attrition rates across racial groups, but rather appears to reflect differences in preferences with respect to risk.

We find only a slight relationship between pension plan choice and teacher value-added to student achievement, with teachers in the bottom value-added quartile roughly two percentage points less likely to select the DC option. The lack of a strong relationship between plan preferences and classroom effectiveness may suggest that states could modify the structure of their pension plans without reducing the caliber of new teachers attracted into the system.

[2] As discussed below, considerably fewer teachers selected the DC option when it was available in the 2002-03 school year, perhaps because information on the plan was not yet widely available.

[3] Olleman and Boivie (2011, Table A4) report slightly lower DC election rates for all new hires in covered by the Florida Retirement System than those we observe for new teachers in the same years. Their data, which extend through fiscal year 2011, indicate that the DC election rate for all new hires peaked at 26 percent in fiscal year 2008, fell to 23 percent in each of the following two years, and recovered to 25 percent in 2011. In other words, their data suggest that demand for DC plans may be higher among teachers than among other state and local employees but do not indicate that the financial crisis of 2008 had enduring effects on the plan preferences of new Florida employees.

Finally, we find that teachers under 30 who select the DC option are 13 percentage points more likely to leave employment in Florida public schools within six years of entering the system. This is consistent with the fact that the DC plan, due to rapid vesting, should be more attractive to teachers uncertain about whether they will remain in the system for an extended period of time, and suggests that some teachers are able to exploit the options available to them to maximize their pension wealth. At the same time, we find that a considerable number of teachers selecting the DB option leave before their benefits vest. Assuming they do not later return to the system, they will receive no retirement benefit whatsoever.

These findings contribute to a small literature examining employees' choices between DB and DC pension plans (see, e.g., Brown and Weisbenner 2009 and Clark, Ghent, and McDermed 2006) and represent, to our knowledge, the first evidence on this choice specific to K-12 educators. In a closely related paper, however, Goldhaber et al. (2012) use data from Washington State to study teacher choices between a DB and a hybrid DB/DC plan in 1996-97 and 2008-10, finding that a majority of teachers selected or were defaulted into the hybrid plan. Teachers in the former period received a financial incentive for choosing the hybrid plan, while in the latter period the hybrid plan was the default. In both periods, they find that hybrid choosers were slightly (0.02-0.03 student-level standard deviations) more effective in terms of value-added to student achievement than DB choosers. This pattern differs somewhat from the findings with respect to value-added we report below, perhaps due to structural differences between the Washington and Florida programs. However, their results are consistent with ours in suggesting that teachers' pension plan preferences are at most only weakly related to value-added.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section two provides an overview of teacher pension policy nationally and in Florida and compares the plan options available to new

Florida teachers during our study period. Section three describes our data, while section four presents our results concerning plan choice and the relationship between plan choice and attrition. We conclude by discussing the implications of the Florida experience for ongoing debates over teacher pension reform.

2. Pension Reform in Florida

The structure of retirement benefits in the private and public sectors of the U.S. economy has diverged sharply since the 1970s. Figure 1 shows that, as of 1975, virtually all private and state and local public sector workers with retirement benefits were covered by a DB plan. By 2010, DB coverage rates for state and local government workers remained at 97 percent but had fallen to 26 percent in the private sector (Munnell 2012). Beshears et al. (2011, p. 3) attribute the decline in DB pension coverage in the private sector to multiple factors, including "increased regulatory costs for DB providers following the passage of the Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA) in 1974, the legislated creation of an attractive (to employers) alternative to the DB pension through section 401(k) of the Internal Revenue Code in 1978, and workers' interest in portable pension benefits as the labor force has become more mobile."

While the overwhelming majority of statewide retirement systems in which teachers participate continue to use the traditional DB model, a handful of states have in recent years created various alternatives (Snell 2012a; Doherty, Jacobs, and Madden 2012). Alaska is the lone state to have a mandatory DC pension system for teachers, having closed its DB plan to new public employees in 2006. Five states have adopted "hybrid plans" for new teachers that supplement a less generous DB plan with a small personal savings account. Another five states (including Florida) currently offer new teachers a choice between a traditional DB plan and

either a hybrid or DC alternative (or both).[4] Along with South Carolina, Florida is one of only two states allowing teachers to choose exclusively between a DB and DC plan.[5] The ability to link information on teacher's plan choices with administrative data on those teachers and their students makes Florida a uniquely valuable setting in which to study teacher preferences concerning the structure of their retirement benefits.

2.1 Creating the DC Option

In June 2000, a unanimous Florida legislature passed HB 2393, which, in addition to enhancing the benefits offered under the state's traditional DB pension plan, established the Public Employee Optional Retirement Program (PEORP). PEORP is a 401(a)-qualified DC plan that, as enacted, was funded entirely by employer contributions of 9 percent of participants' salaries. It is administered by the State Board of Administration, which contracts with a third party for administrative services and selects investment options from which participants may choose.[6] Since 2002, all state and local workers covered by the Florida Retirement System, including teachers and other school district employees, have been permitted to choose between PEORP and the traditional DB plan. Employees not making an active choice by the last business day of the fifth month after their month of hire are assigned to the DB plan.

Having made their initial plan choice (or defaulted into the DB plan), employees are permitted to switch between plans once while still working in the Florida system. DB choosers

[4] A sixth, Louisiana, will soon allow teachers to choose a CB plan under which they have personal retirement accounts that accrue steadily and are guaranteed a minimum rate of return. Kansas replaced its DB plan with a mandatory CB plan in 2012.

[5] Olleman and Boivie (2011, Table A11) report that the share of new South Carolina teachers choosing the DC option fluctuated from 2004 and 2011 between 11 and 14 percent, perhaps reflecting the fact that teachers have only a 30-day election window before being defaulted into the DB system. Ohio allows teachers to choose between DB, DC, and hybrid systems but under conditions that make the alternatives to the DB system far less attractive. For example, DC teachers are ineligible for retirement health care subsidies and the DB component of the hybrid system does not include a cost-of-living adjustment. Predictably, participation rates in Ohio's alternative plans have been very low (Costrell and Podgursky 2007; Olleman and Boivie 2011).

[6] The administrative costs triggered by PEORP were funded by a 0.1% assessment on gross compensation paid by each FRS employer.

are eligible to receive the net present value of the future benefits they have accumulated by that time under the DB plan as the starting balance for a DC investment account. Conversely, employees who initially chose DC must use the funds in their DC investment account and, if necessary, their own resources to "buy" into the DB plan and are charged the Actuarial Accrued Liability of their accumulated DB plan benefit. Due to the back-loaded nature of the benefits available to teachers under the DB plan, this pricing scheme makes it relatively expensive for mid-career teachers to move from the DC plan to the DB plan. As we show below, very few new teachers in Florida hired since 2002 have exercised their right to switch plans, and virtually all who have done so have switched from the DB to the DC plan.

The enactment of HB 2393 was facilitated by the strength of U.S. equity markets during the late-1990s technology boom. Soaring stock prices led many public employees to believe that they were missing out and would be better off with personal retirement accounts like those of their private sector peers. Moreover, the Florida Retirement System in 1999 enjoyed an actuarial surplus of approximately $9.2B on $68.6B in liabilities. This surplus seemingly justified the law's enhancements of the traditional DB plan, which included shortening the vesting period from 10 to 6 years, expanding the classes of eligible employees, and temporarily reducing the required employer contribution.[7] Despite these enhancements, the statutorily defined employer contribution rates for DB plan participants remained below the 9 percent contribution used to fund DC participants' investment accounts through 2009.

The primary purpose of creating the DC option was therefore not to put the Florida Retirement System on sounder financial footing, but rather to help the state compete for employees who would prefer alternative retirement plan options. The per-employee costs of the

[7] While the creation of the DC option was unique to Florida, Koedel, Ni, and Podgursky (2012) show that many other states also made their defined benefit pension plans more generous during this time period.

DB plan were actually expected to rise to the extent that short-term employees took advantage of the DC option, as their employers would no longer make contributions to the pension fund on their behalf. Yet the educational materials the state provides to new hires emphasize that the DC plan is "primarily designed to serve shorter-service and mobile employees," and remind them that "the average employee works for the FRS for 5 to 10 years" (Florida Retirement System, 2010). And a uniform employer contribution rate structure ensures that all school districts and other local governments in Florida contribute the same share of their total payrolls to the retirement system regardless of their own employees' choices, eliminating any fiscal incentive for employers to encourage one plan over the other.[8]

The actuarial surpluses the Florida Retirement System experienced in the 1990s proved fleeting. The financial crisis of 2008 and the subsequent economic downturn led Florida, like many other states, to modify its pension system in 2011 to reduce overall costs. The legislature reduced contributions to DC investment accounts from 9 percent of salary to 6.3 percent, 3 percent of which now comes from mandatory employee contributions. It simultaneously introduced a 3 percent employee contribution for DB plan participants, raised the vesting period for its DB plan from 6 to 8 years, extended the time period used to calculate final average salaries from 5 to 8 years, and eliminated the 3 percent annual cost-of-living adjustment for DB plan benefits not yet accrued. These modifications to the DB plan, which were recently upheld by the Florida Supreme Court, have placed the Florida Retirement System on sounder financial footing but have done so primarily by reducing the generosity of benefits for new employees. We ignore these recent changes when examining teachers' pension plan choices during our analysis period, which ends with the 2008-09 school year.

[8] This structure requires employers to contribute a percentage of their total payroll for each class of employee that is based on the "blended" rates of plan choice for that class of employees statewide.

2.2 Plan Comparison

Whether new teachers entering Florida public schools between 2002 and 2011 seeking to maximize their retirement benefits should have chosen the DC or DB option depended on a number of factors, including their age upon entry, expected teaching career length, life expectancy, expected investment return, valuation of future vs. current benefits, and their uncertainty about many of these factors (as well as their attitudes toward that uncertainty). Consequently, a precise calculation of pension benefits under the two plans for any given teacher is impractical if not impossible.

Instead, we construct a simplified model of pension benefits under each plan for a "typical teacher" that calculates pension wealth based on three key factors that vary across individuals: age upon leaving teaching in the Florida public schools (which we call "age of separation"), rate of return earned on investments in the DC plan, and discount rate (a measure of how much someone prefers a dollar today as compared to a dollar next year). Our typical teacher begins teaching at age 32 and is therefore eligible for normal retirement at age 62.[9] We choose age 32 as the starting age in part for convenience (as Florida teachers vested in the DB plan become eligible for normal retirement at age 62 or after 30 years of service), but it also corresponds roughly to the average age of 32.6 among the new teachers in our data. We do not make these calculations for other possible ages of entry, but note that defined benefit pensions plans are worth less to older entrants because they have fewer years in which to accrue pension wealth or receive pension benefits than younger entrants.

We use the salary schedule for the 2009-10 school year from state's largest school district, Dade County Public Schools (Miami), although we obtain similar results if we use

[9] We ignore early retirement options allowing teachers to begin receiving payments immediately upon separation throughout, as taking advantage of these options requires accepting a sizable reduction in pension wealth.

salaries averaged across a large number of Florida districts from which we were able to obtain salary schedules. We assume that the teacher is paid at the bachelor's degree rate in her first six years and at the master's degree rate thereafter. We also assume that the teacher completes at least one full year of teaching, making her eligible to receive the contributions made on her behalf to the DC plan. The rates of return we use are real rates that are on top of inflation (we also assume that the salary schedule is indexed to inflation), so all dollar values are in current terms.[10]

Given uncertainty about the appropriate rate of return and discount rate, we perform this simulation using multiple values for these parameters. We select 5 percent as a default rate of return but also consider the implications of using 2 and 8 percent. The degree to which individuals value deferred compensation such as a retirement benefit is determined by their personal discount rate, which varies across individuals. The retirement planning literature typically recommends that future benefits be discounted at roughly 3 percent, yet behavioral economists find that in practice individuals often discount the future at substantially higher rates (Frederick, Loewenstein, and O'Donohugh 2002). We therefore use discount rates of 3 and 7 percent.[11]

We repeat these calculations for both the DB and DC plans and then calculate the difference in the total pension wealth a teacher would have accumulated for each potential age of separation. For the DC plan, we assume monthly contributions (one-twelfth of 9 percent of the teacher's annual salary) that begin accruing interest immediately. After the teacher leaves teaching, the contributions to the retirement account cease but interest continues to accrue. For

[10] Additional simulations (not shown) confirmed that the relative value of pension wealth under the DB and DC plans is essentially unaffected by adding a yearly percentage increase in the salary schedule (in addition to inflation).
[11] In a survey designed to gauge the implicit discount rates of Washington State teachers, DeArmond and Goldhaber (2010) find that 37 percent have discount rates of 0.08 or higher, while just 31 percent had discount rates of 0.04 or lower.

each possible age of separation, we calculate the value of the account at age 62. In other words, we assume that the teacher does not draw down the account until age 62, setting aside the fact that individuals can access the funds in their retirement account before that time (although withdrawals prior to age 59½ are ordinarily penalized).

The DB plan provides no benefits if the teacher leaves before the end of their sixth year, so its value is $0 for the first five years of service. Once the plan has vested after six years of teaching, the annual benefit, paid beginning at age 62 until death (which we assume based on national mortality tables occurs 24 years later), is equal to a percentage of the teacher's average salary over the last 5 years of her career.[12] That percentage is equal to 1.6 times the number of years they were employed in the Florida Retirement System. For example, a teacher who taught for 20 years would receive an annual benefit of 20 x 1.6 = 32 percent of her final average salary. We calculate the net present value (NPV) of this stream of payments, which are paid monthly, at age 62. Because teachers during the period we study were promised a 3 percent annual cost-of-living adjustment to their benefits after retirement, we subtract 3 percent from the discount rate used to calculate this NPV. For example, when we assume a 3 percent discount rate, we actually discount the stream of DB payments at 0 percent because we subtract the 3 percent COLA.

Figure 2 presents the NPV at age 62 of our typical teacher's pension wealth under each plan using discount rates of 3 and 7 percent, respectively. The choice of discount rate alters the value of the stream of payments the teacher will receive under the DB plan but does not influence the value of the DC benefit, which can be taken as a lump-sum payment at that time. Depending on the discount rate, the NPV of the DB benefit for a teacher who taught 30 years ranges from $454,604 to $707,904. The value of the DC benefit received by that same teacher

[12] We use a fixed age of death rather than annual survival probabilities for computational and expositional simplicity; this causes the simulation to overstate our teacher's DB pension wealth (evaluated at age 62) by roughly 1 percent.

hinges instead on the return received on her investments over the course of her career: It would be worth $485,787 assuming an 8 percent rate of return, as compared with less than $200,000 at 2 percent.

Having made these calculations, it is straightforward to compare the NPV of benefits under both the DB and DC plans for a given age of separation, rate of return, and discount rate. In making these comparisons, we take the additional step of discounting the value of the benefits to age 32, the age at which our teacher makes her initial plan choice. Figure 3 shows the benefit (or cost) to choosing DC by plotting the difference between NPV of pension wealth between the two plans as a function of career length. Using NPV at age 62 would alter the scale of the y-axis but would not change the general shape of the lines or the point at which they cross the $0 point.

Figure 3 makes clear that the expected age of separation at which teachers seeking to maximize their retirement benefits should choose DC depends enormously on the assumed rate of return and discount rate. Teachers who expect higher returns on their DC investment gain should gain (in expectation) from choosing DC over a greater number of years of service. Teachers who more heavily discount the future also should prefer DC for a greater number of years of service, all else equal, because the stream of DB benefits is worth less to them when discounted to the present.

Although the exact expected age of separation at which a teacher should choose one type of plan over the other depends on assumed rates that are uncertain, two key findings emerge from this analysis. First, any teacher who expects to teach for less than six years should choose DC. To do otherwise is to leave money on the table because the DB plan does not vest until after six years. A teacher who remains in the profession for five years before separating receives nothing if they chose the DB plan, but would have amassed a portable retirement savings account

with a net present value (at entry) of $27,784 had she chosen DC (assuming the account grows at an rate of return of 5 percent until age 62, and discounting the value of the account at age 62 back to the time of entry at a 3 percent rate). This difference amounts to roughly 72 percent of her starting salary.

Second, the longer a teacher expects to spend in the classroom the more likely she should be to choose DB. Again using a 5 percent rate of return and 3 percent discount rate, any teacher confident of vesting in the system should take the DB option, as the net present value of her guaranteed lifetime benefit after just six years of service would exceed that of her DC account. For teachers remaining in the profession for much longer periods of time, the financial implications of their plan choice can be substantial. The pension wealth of a teacher remaining in the system for the full 30 years before retiring at age 62 is $171,534 greater under the DB than the DC plan. Using a higher discount rate of 7 percent delays the point at which the DB plan dominates the DC plan until 16 years; it also reduces the magnitude of the differences in net present value between the two plans.

This points to a final, more general, observation: the enormous sensitivity of the magnitude of the difference in the NPV of pension wealth accumulated under the two plans when evaluated by teachers at age 32 to the assumed discount rate. Regardless of the performance of the teacher's DC investment account (within the broad range we consider), the gap between the value of benefits expected from the DB and DC plan is no larger than $35,684 for teachers with a discount rate of 0.07 percent – as compared to $216,267 for teachers with a discount rate of 0.03 percent. Put differently, to the extent that potential teachers discount the future heavily, even quite substantial differences in expected pension benefits may exert limited influence on their early-career decisions.

3. Data

Our empirical analysis exploits two linked statewide administrative databases: the Education Data Warehouse (EDW) maintained by the Florida Department of Education and plan selection records maintained by the Florida Retirement System (FRS). This linkage was accomplished by a collaboration between the relevant agencies, who then provided us with anonymous data that could be linked to a dataset we obtained from EDW using a random teacher identifier.

The EDW data extract we use in this paper contains a rich set of information on teachers and their students and covers the 2000-01 through 2008-09 school years. We primarily make use of the data on public school employees, which include an employment file identifying the jobs they held in each year; demographic characteristics such as race/ethnicity, gender, and date of birth; educational attainment; and teaching experience. We also make use of data identifying the courses taught by each teacher and the students enrolled in them to identify the teacher's subject area. Finally, for the purpose of calculating teacher value-added to student achievement we make use of data on students' test scores and demographic characteristics. The FRS data indicate, for each public employee, the date they entered FRS, the date of each pension election, and the plan they chose (most employees only make one election, but a handful later decide to switch).

We limit our analysis to new teachers, who we identify as follows: First, we separate teachers from other public school employees using the job assignments in the employment file and exclude teachers in charter schools not participating in FRS.[13] We also drop the 3 percent of

[13] Specifically, we drop teachers that ever taught in a charter school that does not participate in FRS. We identify charter schools using data from the National Center for Education Statistics Common Core of Data. We identify charter schools participating in FRS using the underlying data from Olberg and Podgursky (2011), which was

teachers who could not be matched to the FRS data and an additional 12 percent who were matched but do not have any pension elections listed in the FRS data.[14] We then identify new teachers as those working during the school year of their first pension plan election with an FRS entry date either during that same school year or the prior school year.[15] Finally, we exclude teachers identified as working in more than one district or working in both a charter school and a traditional public school (in the same district) during the election year.

This procedure identifies a total of 91,899 new teachers across the 2002-03 to 2008-09 school years. As discussed below, during most of the analysis we exclude the 15,786 teachers who made their initial election during the first school year that a choice was available (2002-03). For our analysis of attrition from teaching in Florida public schools, we also exclude the 6,714 teachers in the final cohort (2008-09) because we cannot observe whether or not they remained after their first year.

We construct a single value-added measure for each math and reading teacher who could be linked to students in grades 4-8 that combines value-added estimates from all available years, grades, tests, and subjects. During our analysis period, Florida administered both the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test and the Stanford Achievement Test in math and reading in these grades. In a given year, a teacher in a self-contained elementary classroom could therefore have up to four separate value-added estimates. Value-added estimates are available for 26 percent of the new teachers included in our analysis. The methods used to construct these value-

provided to us by the authors. We exclude both charters identified as not participating in FRS and those for which data on FRS participation are not available.

[14] We also drop the handful (0.06 percent) of teachers who are new by our definition but chose a Hybrid DB/DC plan which was available only to experienced teachers.

[15] School years are defined as running from July 1 of a given year to June 30 of the following year. This procedure requires us to drop a small number of teachers for whom election date is missing in the FRS data.

added estimates and average them across subjects, tests, and years are described in detail in Chingos and West (2012).

4. Teacher Pension Plan Choices

4.1 Plan Choice Over Time

During all but the first year the DC plan was available, roughly one-quarter to one-third of new teachers chose the DC option. Table 1 shows that the share of new teachers choosing DC was quite small the first year the policy was in place (2002-03), possibly due to a lack of available information as the plan was rolled out. It grew steadily over the following years, reaching nearly one-third of new teachers in 2007-08, before declining modestly in 2008-09 (when teachers' decisions were likely influenced by the collapse of the financial markets).

The average new teacher in our dataset is almost 32.6 years old (the median age is 28.4), so many of the new teachers we study are not necessarily recent college graduates in their first job. However, Table 1 confirms that younger new teachers, defined as either age 21-25 or 21-30, chose DC at rates roughly similar to all of the new teachers in our data. Older entrants choose DC at higher rates than younger entrants, however, which is consistent with the fact that older entrants, including individuals with teaching experience in other states, will not be able to accumulate as much DB pension wealth because they are likely to work fewer years (and those that work longer will collect their pension for fewer years).

The penultimate row of Table 2 shows that only a very small share of teachers switch their initial plan election during the period that we observe them. Among teachers who initially chose DB, 2.8 percent later switch, as compared to 0.7 percent of teachers who first chose DC.

The fact that more teachers switch from DB to DC than the reverse is consistent with the pricing scheme for plan conversions discussed above.

The overall share of new teachers selecting the DC plan after the first year was 29.6 percent. We regard the share of teachers choosing DC as quite large given that the DB plan was the default. As noted previously, the choice of the default option has been shown to have a dramatic effect on the plan choice of private sector workers. It is therefore likely that the DB choosers in our data consist of a mix of teachers who have clear preferences for the traditional plan and others who were ambivalent and swayed by the default. Although we do not have information on the share of Florida teachers making active plan choices, Olleman and Boivie (2011, Table A4), report that fewer than half of all new employees in the Florida Retirement System in fiscal year 2011 made an active plan choice and that a majority of those doing so chose the DC plan.

Because the share of teachers choosing a DC over a DB plan is likely to be sensitive to which (if either) plan is designated as the default, we focus our interpretation primarily on differences in the observed demand for the DC option among teacher groups defined by demographic characteristics, education levels, subject area, and (for a subset of teachers) value-added to student achievement. In the remainder of our analysis, we exclude data from the first year of DC availability because that year is an outlier in terms of the share of teachers choosing DC, likely because the option was so new.

4.2 Plan Choice by Teacher Characteristics

We use three approaches to examine the relationship between teacher characteristics and pension plan choice. First, we compare the average characteristics of teachers who chose DB to their colleagues who chose DC in Table 2. Second, we report the percent of teachers in various

subgroups (defined by the same characteristics) who chose DC in Table 3. Finally, we conduct multivariate regressions that model DC plan choice as a function of these characteristics and report the results in Table 4.

The results in Table 2 and 3 represent two different ways of thinking about the same relationship. For example, these results indicate that black and Hispanic teachers are much less likely to choose DC than are white teachers. In Table 2, this is shown by the fact that DB teachers are 15 percent black and 12 percent Hispanic, whereas DC teachers are 9 percent black and 7 percent Hispanic. In Table 3, the relationship is even more apparent, with 20 percent of black and Hispanic teachers choosing DC as compared to 33 percent of white teachers.

A number of other patterns are evident in Tables 2 and 3. Math and science teachers are more likely to choose DC than are other teachers, suggesting stronger demand for DC options among teachers in these hard-to-staff subjects. Thirty-three percent of math and science teachers chose DC, as compared to 29-31 percent of teachers in self-contained classrooms, reading/ELA, foreign language, and the arts. This pattern could be driven by the fact that teachers with strong math and science skills tend to have better employment options outside of education and may therefore be less confident that they will continue teaching for an extended period. Special education teachers, another hard-to-staff position but one which draws on skills that are more sector-specific, are somewhat less likely to select DC (28 percent).

New teachers with a master's degree (in any field) are considerably more likely to choose DC than those with a BA, by a margin of 36 to 27 percent. The 1 percent of new teachers with doctoral degrees are even more likely to choose DC, with 42 percent doing so. This again could reflect that new teachers with these credentials have more employment opportunities and are less certain that they will remain in the classroom long enough for their DB benefits to vest.

Charter school teachers (in charter schools participating in FRS) are substantially more likely to select DC, with 36 percent selecting that option compared to 30 percent in traditional public schools. This may reflect an expectation among charter school teachers that they are less likely to stay in the public school system than other teachers. Or these teachers may select DC if they expect to teach in another Florida charter school, many of which do not participate in FRS.

For the 26 percent of teachers for whom we can construct value-added measures (i.e. self-contained, reading, and math teachers in grades 4-8), there is little overall relationship between estimated value-added to student achievement and DC plan choice. However, there is suggestive evidence that teachers in the bottom quartile of effectiveness are somewhat less likely to select DC, with 27 percent of the least effective teachers choosing DC compared to 29-30 percent of teachers in the top three quartiles.

Table 4 presents results based on variants of the following linear probability model:

$$DC_i = \alpha + \beta \mathrm{X}_i + \delta C_i + \theta_i + \pi_i + \varepsilon_i \ , \qquad (1)$$

where DC_i is a dummy variable indicating that teacher i chose the DC plan; X is a vector of teacher characteristics including race/ethnicity, age, education, gender, and subject area; C is a dummy variable identifying teachers in charter schools; $\theta$and π represent fixed effects for school district and election year (i.e., cohort), respectively; and ε is a zero-mean error term. We include the election year fixed effects in all models to capture any trends in plan choice that are correlated with trends in the characteristics of new teachers. District fixed effects, which we exclude in column 1, account for the possible influence of local labor market conditions on plan choice. In columns 4 and 5, X is expanded to include either a continuous measure of value-added or a vector of dummy variables for value-added quartile.

The results presented in Table 4, which indicate the relationship between each teacher characteristic and plan choice holding the other characteristics constant, confirm the patterns in Tables 2 and 3. Column 1 shows that, all else equal, black and Hispanic teachers are 13 percentage points less likely to choose DC than comparable white teachers. Teachers with MA degrees are 8 percentage points more likely to choose DC than those with BA degrees. The results for charter schools and by subject area are also consistent with the patterns in the raw data, and the coefficients on the year dummies indicate that the increase in demand for DC through 2007-08 was not driven by changes in teacher characteristics (nor was the drop in demand in 2008-09).

Older entrants are slightly more likely to choose DC than younger entrants (by 0.3 percentage points per year of age at entry), as we would expect given the greater value of DB plans to younger entrants. Male teachers are less likely to choose DC than female teachers, which may be surprising in light of evidence that men tend to be less risk-averse than women in many contexts, including retirement savings behavior (Bernasek and Shwiff 2001; Eckel and Grossman 2008). However, the 1.5 percentage point difference is quite small and may result from women expecting to teach for fewer years than men, on average, for example due to maternity leave. Column 2 of Table 4 adds district fixed effects to the regression model, a specification change that has little impact on the results.

These results confirm that the rate at which new Florida teachers choose the DC plan varies systematically with their characteristics, with minority teachers in particular being less likely to do so. This pattern could in theory stem from differences in the length of time teachers expected to be employed in state retirement system, as the DC plan should be particularly attractive to teachers who expect to leave the system before their DB plans vest. Although we

lack data on teachers' expectations about their career length, we do observe whether they remained employed by the Florida public schools during our study period. In a supplemental analysis, we therefore replicated the models in column 2 while controlling for the number of years they remained employed over the period we observe them. The addition of this variable did not change any of model's coefficients by a statistically significant amount, including those indicating large differences in pension plan choice across racial and ethnic groups. We interpret this as suggestive evidence that differences in DC election rates are not driven by differences in expected career length but rather reflect underlying differences in preferences about pension plan structures.[16]

We conduct a parallel analysis of the subsample of teachers for whom we can construct value-added measures in column 3 of Table 4. These results show that the patterns evident in columns 1 and 2 are similar for the value-added subsample, although of course the estimates are less precise due to the sharply reduced sample size. Columns 4 and 5 include measures of value-added in the model, and confirm that there is not a strong relationship between teacher effectiveness and plan choice. Column 4, however, does indicate that a one standard deviation increase in teacher value-added is associated with an increase of roughly one percentage point in the probability of choosing the DC plan. The results in Column 5 show that this relationship is driven primarily by teachers with value-added measures in the bottom quartile being 1-3 percentage points less likely to choose DC plans than teachers in any other quartile.

[16] Clark, Ghent, and McDermed (2006) similarly find that black employees of the University of North Carolina system are, all else equal, 22 percentage points less likely than white employees to choose a DC over a DB plan, while Farrell (2011) shows that black (but not Hispanic) teachers who do participate in the Florida DC plan also choose more conservative investment portfolios than do white teachers.

4.3 Plan Choice and Attrition from Florida Public Schools

Our comparison of expected pension wealth under Florida's DB and DC pension plans showed that which plan a new teacher should choose depends on a number of factors, many of which are uncertain. However, two facts are clear: 1) the longer a teacher expects to remain in the Florida public schools, the greater the likelihood that DB will yield a larger payoff than DC, and 2) any teacher who expects to teach less than six years should definitely choose DC. A new teacher is unlikely to know with certainty how long she will remain in the state's public school system, so we may not expect to find a stark contrast between plan choice and retention. But if teachers are making rational decisions based on the information available to them upon making their initial selection, we should find some relationship.

We address this issue by examining the attrition patterns of new teachers by plan choice. The top panel of Table 5 reports the share of teachers remaining as teachers in the Florida public schools by plan choice and entry cohort (excluding the last cohort because it is only observed in its first year). For each cohort we observe differences in attrition that begin in the second year and grow over time, with DB teachers more likely to remain as teachers than DC teachers (as we would expect). For example, in the first cohort we examine, DB teachers were one percentage point more likely to remain as teachers in the second year, a difference that grew steadily to eight percentage points in the sixth year. Put differently, teachers choosing the DC plan in this cohort were almost 20 percent more likely than DB teachers to leave teaching before their sixth year. The bottom panel of Table 5 repeats this analysis using the percent of teachers remaining as employees of the Florida public schools in any position, since a teacher does not have to remain in the classroom to continue to participate in FRS. We find the same pattern of results as we did in the analysis that looked at teacher positions only.

We formalize this attrition analysis in Table 6 using linear probability models that pool data from all available cohorts. Specifically, we estimate variants of the following model:

$$Y_{it} = \alpha + \beta DC_i + \gamma \mathrm{X}_i + \pi_i + \varepsilon_i \,, \qquad (2)$$

where Y_{it} is a dummy variable measuring whether teacher i was teaching (columns 1-2 and 5-6) or employed (columns 3-4 and 7-8) in a Florida public school t years after entering the system (note that the sample size for each year declines as a result of fewer cohorts being included). DC is a dummy variable indicating that the teacher chose the DC plan; X is a vector of controls for teacher characteristics including race/ethnicity, age, education, gender, subject area; π represents election year (i.e., cohort) fixed effects; and ε is a zero-mean error term. The specifications in columns 1, 3, 5, and 7 exclude the controls for teacher characteristics and the charter school indicator. The parameter β provides an estimate of the predicted difference in the probability of retention as a teacher or public school employee in year t between teachers who first choose DC and DB.

The regression results show the same pattern as the raw data: teachers who chose DC are less likely to remain as teachers, with a difference that grows from one percentage point in the second year to 9 percentage points in the sixth year. These results are robust to controlling for teacher characteristics, and are similar to results that include non-teaching positions in the public schools.

Columns 5-8 of Table 6 replicate the attrition regressions for teachers who were less than 30 years old during the election year. The pattern of results is broadly similar to the results for all teachers, but the magnitudes of the difference in attrition rates between DC and DB teachers are notably larger after year three. For example, in their sixth year DC teachers are 13 percentage points less likely to remain in the classroom (or in the public schools in any capacity) than DB

teachers. This may indicate that there are more young new teachers who are confident that they will only teach for a short period of time and are able to select their pension plan accordingly.

On the whole, these results suggest that some new teachers in Florida are making choices that maximize their total compensation. At the same time, a substantial share of teachers choosing DB nonetheless leave Florida public schools before their benefits vest, potentially leaving substantial money on the table. The 40 percent of DB teachers in the 2002-03 cohort of new teachers who left Florida public schools prior to their sixth year will receive no pension benefit whatsoever unless they return to the system later in their careers. For teachers who chose the DB plan yet left Florida public schools after five years (immediately before vesting), this amounts to giving up nearly three-quarters of a year's salary that would be invested in a personal retirement account had they taken the DC option.

5. Discussion

Over the past four years, 40 states have taken steps to address funding shortfalls in the traditional DB pension systems in which their teachers participate (Snell 2012b; Doherty, Jacobs, and Madden 2012). Among other changes, 22 states reduced or eliminated cost-of-living adjustments for benefit payments, 25 raised their retirement age, 27 increased the amounts teachers are required to contribute to the pension fund from their salaries, and fully 40 raised employer contribution rates. While these changes have improved funding levels, they highlight the extent to which existing pension commitments are placing downward pressure on the compensation packages offered to new teachers and they have done nothing to address the lack of flexibility and portability typical of existing DB pension plans.

Our evidence from Florida casts doubt on the common assertion that virtually all teachers would oppose more fundamental changes to the structure of their retirement benefits. We find that there is considerable demand for a DC pension plan offered as an alternative to a traditional DB pension plan, with as many as three in ten new teachers taking advantage of this option. This is the case despite the fact that the DB plan remains the default for teachers not making an active choice and that the DC plan, funded during our analysis period by a 9 percent employer contribution, does not appear to be overly generous. Our calculations indicate that, under most plausible assumptions concerning the rate of return on DC investments, Florida's traditional DB plan would have provided greater pension wealth to virtually any teacher remaining long enough for her benefits to vest. While we can only speculate as to how many teachers would have chosen a more generous DC plan, it is important to emphasize that comparisons of preferences over DB and DC systems need to take into account their relative cost.

Is offering a DC pension plan a promising strategy to recruit and retain more effective teachers? Our data do not allow us to address this issue definitively. We find little relationship between teachers' value-added to student achievement and their plan choice, perhaps suggesting that classroom effectiveness is unrelated to pension plan preferences. Although we cannot rule out the possibility that the DB plan's vesting requirement reduces early-career attrition, the differences in retention rates we document between teachers in the DB and DC plans are likely due to selection, as we would expect teachers who are less certain about whether they will remain in the system long enough for their DB benefits to vest to choose the DC plan.[17]

On one hand, these patterns suggest that offering teachers a DC option is unlikely to yield major changes in classroom effectiveness. On the other, they may imply that states could offer

[17] In additional analyses (not reported), we found no evidence that the difference in retention rates between teachers in the two plans was larger for ineffective teachers, as would be the case if ineffective teachers in the DB plan who would otherwise have exited prior to their sixth year did not do so in order to allow their benefits to vest.

teachers less costly retirement benefits without fear of undermining teacher quality – and perhaps use the savings to increase starting salaries in an attempt to improve it. Indeed, the most relevant policy question may not be whether teacher pension plans should have a DB or a DC structure but rather how much of teachers' total compensation should be deferred. Exploiting a situation in which Illinois teachers were allowed to purchase pension benefit enhancements at a fraction of their actuarial value, Fitzpatrick (2011) provides compelling evidence that many teachers would prefer that far less of their compensation be deferred. In other words, many current and potential teachers would likely welcome compensation packages with less generous retirement benefits and higher salaries.

State policymakers currently face the question of whether to continue to offer DB plans, perhaps redesigned so as to mitigate the funding, portability, and incentive problems plaguing many existing plans, or to enact more fundamental reforms such as a shift to the DC model. A comprehensive evaluation of the DB vs. DC debate is beyond the scope of this paper, but our analysis does raise the question of whether it is desirable to offer employees a choice between DB and DC plans. Providing this choice could increase teacher satisfaction (for a given level of total compensation) by allowing them to pick the option they prefer. At the same time, if teachers tend to pick the option that maximizes their pension wealth, then these choices will increase the pension costs borne by the state, and for many teachers may represent an inefficient allocation between current and deferred compensation.

Our results cannot offer comprehensive guidance on this complicated set of policy issues. But the data from Florida make clear that teachers are not a monolithic group in terms of their preferences for different types of pension plans, and strongly suggest that the rigidities of traditional DB plans are unsuitable for many public employees. Policymakers concerned about

the quality of the teaching workforce will need to enact reforms to their pension systems that take into account the widely varying characteristics and preferences of the individuals entering this noble profession.

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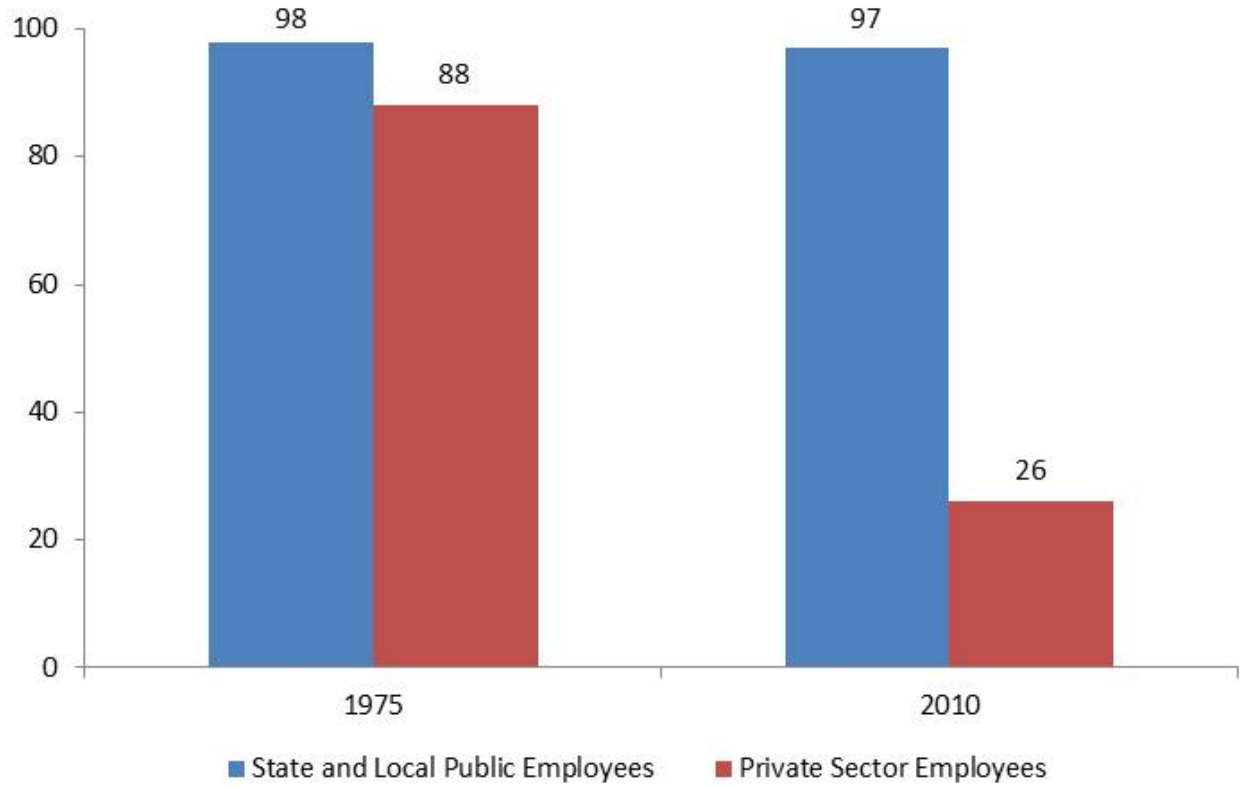
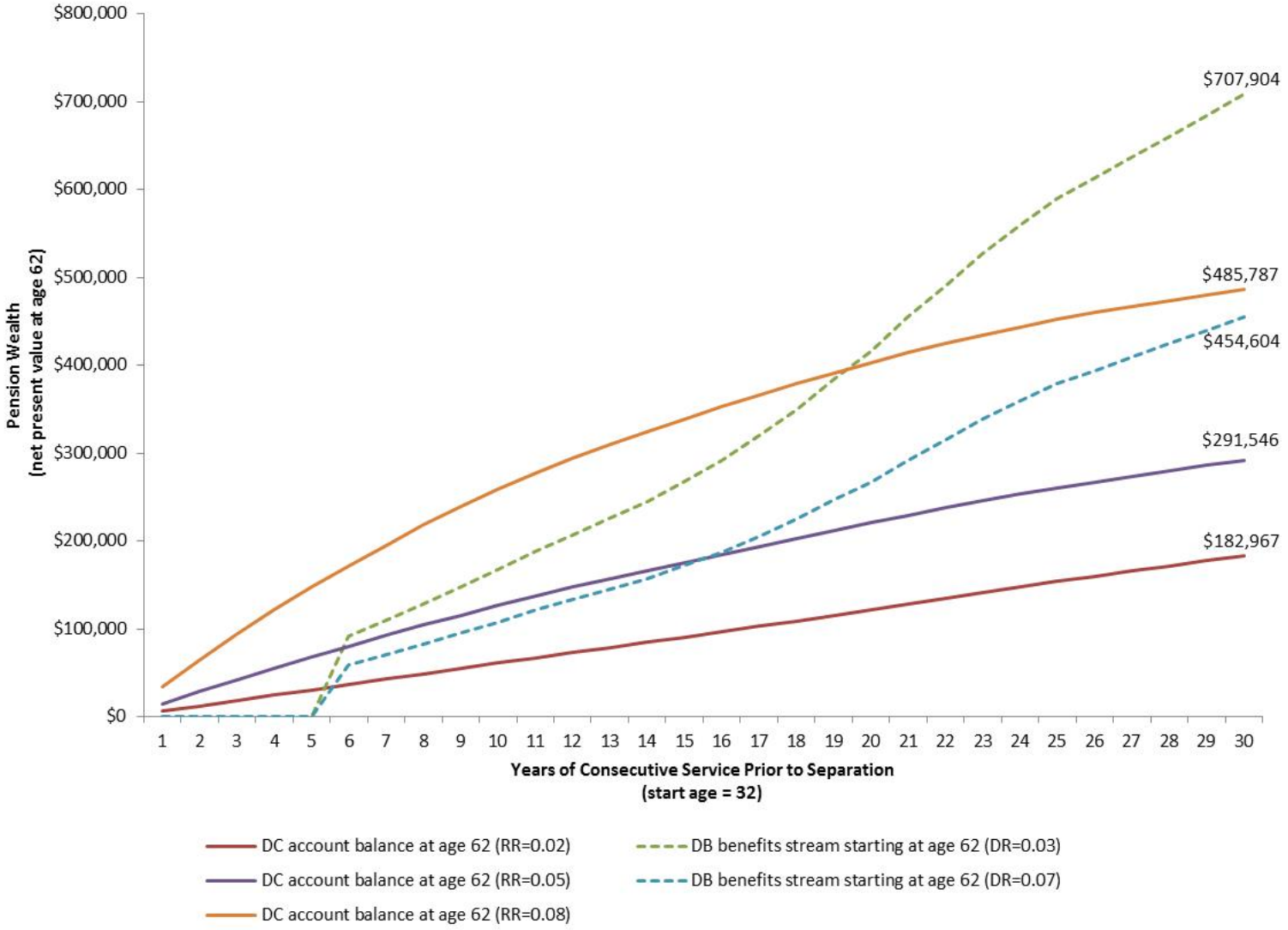
Figure 1. Percent of Workers with Pensions in Defined Benefit Plans, by Sector, 1975 and 2010



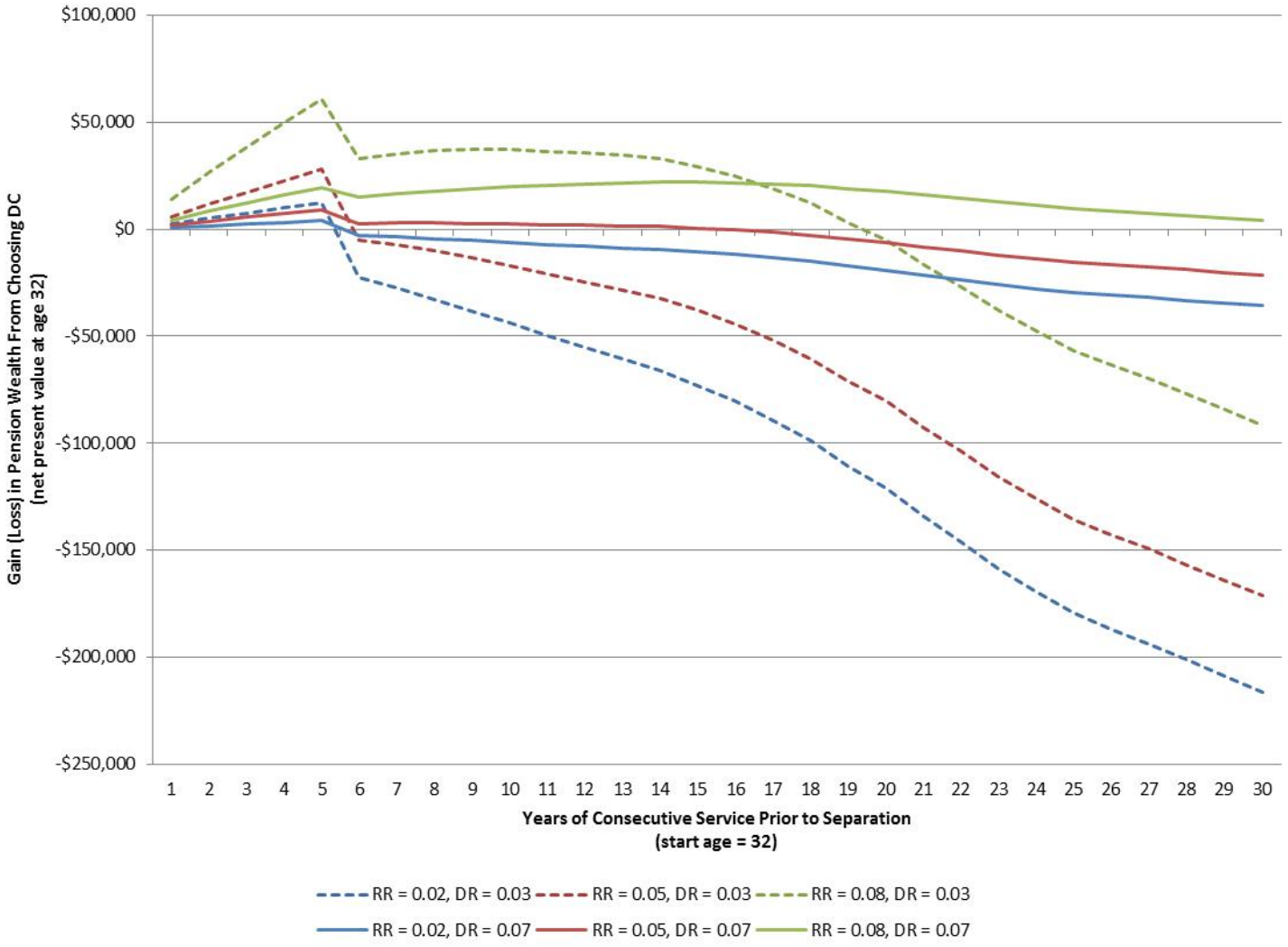
Source: Adapted from Munnell (2012)

Figure 2. Net Present Value of DB and DC Retirement Benefits at Age 62, by career length, rate of return on DC investments, and discount rate



Note: RR = assumed rate of return on DC investments; DR = assumed personal discount rate.

Figure 3. Difference in Net Present Value of DB and DC Retirement Benefits at Age 32, by career length, rate of return on DC investments, and discount rate



Note: RR = assumed rate of return on DC investments; DR = assumed personal discount rate.

Table 1. Percent of New Teachers Choosing DC by Year

	All Ages		Ages 21-25		Ages 21-30	
Election Year	% DC	N	% DC	N	% DC	N
2002-03	12.2%	15,786	9.6%	4,759	10.4%	8,414
2003-04	23.5%	12,830	20.1%	3,723	20.4%	6,701
2004-05	29.7%	15,024	27.8%	4,400	27.5%	7,976
2005-06	31.4%	14,721	30.3%	4,515	30.0%	8,049
2006-07	32.0%	14,212	30.3%	4,580	29.7%	7,997
2007-08	33.0%	12,612	31.4%	4,223	31.5%	7,383
2008-09	25.8%	6,714	23.7%	2,384	24.4%	3,980
All	26.6%	91,899	24.8%	28,584	24.8%	50,500

Notes: New teachers defined as those in the school year of their first pension plan election who entered the FRS system during either the same school year or the prior one. We exclude teachers who worked in more than one district or in both a charter and traditional public school during the election year.

Table 2. New Teachers' Characteristics by Initial Plan Selection, 2003-04 to 2008-09

	All	Chose DB	Chose DC	p-value
% Black	13.1%	15.0%	8.7%	0.000
% Hispanic	10.7%	12.2%	7.1%	0.000
% Male	24.3%	24.5%	24.0%	0.197
Age (mean)	32.6	32.0	33.8	0.000
Age (median)	28.4	28.1	29.4	-
Total Experience	1.2	1.0	1.6	0.000
Highest Degree				
BA	69.1%	71.4%	63.5%	0.000
MA	25.2%	23.0%	30.5%	0.000
PhD	0.9%	0.8%	1.3%	0.000
Field				
Self Contained	36.2%	36.3%	35.9%	0.352
Math	6.5%	6.2%	7.4%	0.000
Science	6.5%	6.1%	7.4%	0.000
Reading/ELA	10.4%	10.2%	10.9%	0.003
Social Studies	5.2%	5.3%	5.1%	0.498
Foreign Language	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%	0.717
Arts	3.8%	3.8%	3.9%	0.286
Special Ed	12.0%	12.3%	11.2%	0.000
Other	17.3%	17.8%	16.0%	0.000
Charter School	0.9%	0.8%	1.1%	0.000
Value-Added				
Standardized	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.105
Bottom Quartile	23.8%	24.3%	22.6%	0.013
2nd Quartile	26.5%	26.0%	27.8%	0.014
3rd Quartile	26.3%	26.4%	26.2%	0.771
Top Quartile	23.3%	23.3%	23.4%	0.861
Number with VA	*20,029*	*14,290*	*5,739*	
Switched election	2.2%	2.8%	0.7%	0.000
Total Number	*76,113*	*53,566*	*22,547*	

Notes: See Table 1 for definition of new teachers. Total experience recoded as zero if missing. Each cell reports the share of all new teachers, DB choosers, and DC choosers with a given characteristic (or the mean/median value of that characteristic within each group). For example, the first row shows that 13.1% of all new teachers were black, as compared to 15.0% of DB choosers and 8.7% of DC choosers. The accompanying p-value indicates the probability that a difference this large would have been observed due to chance.

Table 3. Percent Choosing DC by Teacher Characteristic, New Teachers, 2003-04 to 2008-09

Race/ethnicity	
Black	19.7%
Hispanic	19.7%
White	32.7%
Male	29.2%
Female	29.7%
Highest Degree	
BA	27.2%
MA	35.8%
PhD	41.6%
Field	
Self-Contained	29.2%
Math	33.2%
Science	33.1%
Reading/ELA	30.5%
Social Studies	29.0%
Foreign Language	28.8%
Arts	30.2%
Special Ed	27.5%
Other	26.9%
School type	
Charter	36.4%
TPS	29.6%
Value-Added	
Bottom Quartile	27.2%
2nd Quartile	30.0%
3rd Quartile	28.5%
Top Quartile	28.8%
Number with VA	*20,029*
All	29.6%
Total Number	*76,113*

Notes: See Table 1 for definition of new teachers. Each cell provides the share of new teachers with a given characteristic choosing DC. For example, the first row shows that 19.7% of black teachers chose DC.

Table 4. Predictors of Choosing DC, New Teachers, 2003-04 to 2008-09

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Race/ethnicity (vs. white)					
Black	-0.131	-0.121	-0.115	-0.116	-0.115
	[0.004]**	[0.005]**	[0.009]**	[0.009]**	[0.009]**
Hispanic	-0.132	-0.112	-0.103	-0.103	-0.103
	[0.005]**	[0.006]**	[0.011]**	[0.011]**	[0.011]**
Other race or msising	-0.002	0.004	0.045	0.044	0.044
	[0.013]	[0.013]	[0.026]	[0.026]	[0.026]
Male	-0.015	-0.014	-0.010	-0.009	-0.009
	[0.004]**	[0.004]**	[0.008]	[0.008]	[0.008]
Age	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003
	[0.000]**	[0.000]**	[0.000]**	[0.000]**	[0.000]**
Highest degree (vs. BA)					
MA degree	0.078	0.076	0.064	0.064	0.064
	[0.004]**	[0.004]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**
Doctoral degree	0.108	0.106	0.109	0.109	0.110
	[0.019]**	[0.018]**	[0.041]**	[0.040]**	[0.040]**
Subject area (vs. self-contained)					
Math	0.044	0.040	0.028	0.027	0.028
	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.011]*	[0.011]*	[0.011]*
Science	0.044	0.041	-0.038	-0.037	-0.037
	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.031]	[0.031]	[0.031]
Reading/ELA	0.012	0.009	0.008	0.008	0.008
	[0.006]*	[0.006]	[0.010]	[0.010]	[0.010]
Social Studies	-0.000	-0.006	-0.027	-0.027	-0.028
	[0.008]	[0.008]	[0.030]	[0.030]	[0.030]
Foreign Language	0.021	0.018	-0.035	-0.035	-0.036
	[0.012]	[0.012]	[0.051]	[0.051]	[0.051]
Arts	0.009	0.009	-0.117	-0.116	-0.115
	[0.009]	[0.009]	[0.063]	[0.063]	[0.063]
Special Education	-0.028	-0.026	-0.050	-0.048	-0.049
	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**
Other subject	-0.008	-0.003	-0.002	-0.002	-0.002
	[0.005]	[0.005]	[0.012]	[0.012]	[0.012]
Charter school	0.054	0.069	0.076	0.077	0.077
	[0.018]**	[0.019]**	[0.044]	[0.044]	[0.044]
Election year (vs. 2003-04)					
Year=2004-05	0.063	0.062	0.057	0.057	0.057
	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.009]**	[0.009]**	[0.009]**
Year=2005-06	0.083	0.083	0.072	0.072	0.072
	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**
Year=2006-07	0.092	0.091	0.083	0.083	0.082
	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**

Year=2007-08	0.103	0.104	0.107	0.108	0.107
	[0.006]**	[0.006]**	[0.011]**	[0.011]**	[0.011]**
Year=2008-09	0.030	0.031	0.026	0.026	0.025
	[0.006]**	[0.006]**	[0.014]	[0.014]	[0.014]
Value-Added (standardized)				0.008	
				[0.004]*	
VA in second quartile					0.026
					[0.009]**
VA in third quartile					0.010
					[0.009]
VA in top quartile					0.019
					[0.009]*
District fixed effects?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Restrict to VA sample?	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	76,060	76,060	20,020	20,020	20,020
R-squared	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05

Notes: ** p<0.01, * p<0.05. Robust standard errors in brackets. See Table 1 for definition of new teachers. Each cell presents an estimate of difference in the predicted probability of choosing DC associated with a given teacher characteristic. For example, the first cell of column 1 shows that black teachers are 13.1 percent less likely than white teachers to choose DC.

Table 5. Retention Profiles of New Teachers, by Entry Cohort and DB/DC Choice

Percent Remaining as Teachers in Florida Public Schools

Cohort	Election	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
2003-04	DB	100%	88%	78%	69%	64%	60%
	DC	100%	87%	76%	64%	56%	52%
2004-05	DB		100%	88%	78%	69%	65%
	DC		100%	87%	74%	63%	56%
2005-06	DB			100%	87%	76%	67%
	DC			100%	87%	72%	62%
2006-07	DB				100%	87%	76%
	DC				100%	86%	74%
2007-08	DB					100%	84%
	DC					100%	84%

Percent Remaining in Florida Public Schools (Any Position)

Cohort	Election	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
2003-04	DB	100%	90%	82%	74%	70%	66%
	DC	100%	90%	79%	69%	62%	58%
2004-05	DB		100%	91%	81%	74%	70%
	DC		100%	89%	78%	68%	61%
2005-06	DB			100%	90%	80%	72%
	DC			100%	89%	76%	67%
2006-07	DB				100%	90%	80%
	DC				100%	89%	78%
2007-08	DB					100%	88%
	DC					100%	86%

Notes: DC status is fixed as first election. See Table 1 for definition of new teachers. Each cell shows the probability that a new teacher in each cohort remained teaching (top panel) or employed (bottom panel) in Florida public schools in the relevant school year. For example, the top row of the top panel shows that 88% of new teachers in 2003-04 choosing DB remained as teachers in Florida public schools in 2004-05 and that 60% remained as teachers in 2008-09.

Table 6. Difference in Retention Patterns for DC (vs. DB) Choosers

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	All New Teachers				New Teachers Under Age 30 in Election Year			
Remaining as	Teacher		Public School Employee		Teacher		Public School Employee	
in second year	-0.008	-0.008	-0.010	-0.010	-0.006	-0.007	-0.013	-0.012
	[0.003]**	[0.003]**	[0.003]**	[0.003]**	[0.004]	[0.004]	[0.004]**	[0.004]**
	69,037	68,987	69,037	68,987	38,050	38,044	38,050	38,044
in third year	-0.030	-0.032	-0.030	-0.032	-0.031	-0.033	-0.036	-0.036
	[0.004]**	[0.004]**	[0.004]**	[0.004]**	[0.006]**	[0.006]**	[0.005]**	[0.005]**
	56,455	56,409	56,455	56,409	30,660	30,655	30,660	30,655
in fourth year	-0.055	-0.061	-0.055	-0.061	-0.067	-0.074	-0.075	-0.078
	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.005]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**
	42,291	42,251	42,291	42,251	22,662	22,657	22,662	22,657
in fifth year	-0.084	-0.090	-0.080	-0.088	-0.100	-0.104	-0.103	-0.107
	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.007]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.009]**	[0.009]**
	27,666	27,635	27,666	27,635	14,628	14,624	14,628	14,624
in sixth year	-0.087	-0.094	-0.084	-0.093	-0.129	-0.131	-0.133	-0.133
	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.010]**	[0.015]**	[0.015]**	[0.015]**	[0.015]**
	12,727	12,711	12,727	12,711	6,674	6,671	6,674	6,671
Controls?	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes

Notes: ** p<0.01, * p<0.05; Robust standard errors in brackets. Each reported coefficient estimate is from a separate regression and shows the difference in the predicted probability of retention as a teacher or public school employee associated with choosing DC (vs. DB). For example, the top-left coefficient indicates that DC teachers were 0.8 percentage points less likely than DB choosers to remain as teachers in their second year, while the bottom-left coefficient shows that DC choosers were 8.7 percentage points less likely than DB choosers to remain as teachers in their sixth year. All models control for election year fixed effects. "Controls" include teacher race/ethnicity, age, education, gender, subject area, and a charter school indicator.