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Time for a Change

Diversity in Teaching Revisited

NEA Center for Great Public Schools Teacher Quality Department



NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

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Time for a Change: Diversity in Teaching Revisited A Background Paper

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It is hard to imagine that, 20 years ago, there were state- and national-level discussions and programs aimed at outlining goals for adding and supporting diverse teaching staff and training teachers in cultural competency. Today, the discussion about teacher diversity and cultural competency is barely audible.

At the National Education Association, we have a long and rich history of supporting a diverse teaching force. This is exemplified by the collaboration within our departments of Teacher Quality, Priority Schools, Education Policy and Practice, Research, Education Support Professionals, Minority and Community Outreach, and Human and Civil Rights. As our country and classroom demographics continue to change, it is crucial that we reignite the national discussion on the importance of addressing teacher diversity.

We must:

- Examine the compelling need to recruit and retain teachers of color.
- Analyze recommendations and best practices in the recruitment and retention of minority teachers that support high student achievement.
- Explore how NEA members and affiliates can take a more central leadership role in collaborating with other stakeholders to recruit and retain a diverse teacher workforce.
- Advocate for state and federal policies that first recruit then retain teachers who are diverse and highly qualified.

To that end, NEA commissioned a current review of teacher diversity and ways in which efforts could create parity in our public school system. This background paper provides a basis for discussing how we move forward in creating a teacher workforce that is both reflective of and responsive to our nation's racial, ethnic, and linguistically diverse student learning needs.

We hope this scrutiny is useful in creating a movement that is committed to teacher diversity. We also hope that our efforts in this regard will help us ensure a great public school for every student.

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Introduction

Approximately 20 years ago, the national dialogue on the need for a racially, ethnically, and linguistically diverse corps of PK–12 educators was at a high pitch. Policymakers and educators devised programs and policies designed to increase the number of African American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Island and Native American teachers as an essential component of the PK–12 teaching and learning reform agenda. While the daunting task of establishing a quality teaching force that reflects all cultures of society is far from complete, today the discussion is barely even audible.

This background paper explores the need to recruit and retain teachers of color and the political context that has inadvertently diminished interest in and initiatives toward meeting the goal. It examines the progress—or lack of progress—in this work and uses the findings as a basis for recommending change. Specifically, this paper attempts to shed light on some compelling questions related to this issue, such as: Is there a need to recruit and retain teachers of color; What is the socio-economic context that surrounds efforts to recruit and retain teachers of color; and, What progress or lack of progress has the nation made in moving towards the goal of parity?

For decades, educators, business groups, and policy makers have grappled with the best strategies to leverage the academic performance of students generally, with a particular focus on those who are academically challenged, poor performing, and/or of color. Today, virtually all major national educational programs and policies mention or pay deference to the academic performance and needs of low-income, under-served PK–12 students who, in large measure, are from racial/ethnic and linguistic backgrounds other than white. Despite scores of public, private, and philanthropic efforts, there have been only modest gains

for all students, and an achievement gap persists among whites and African Americans, Hispanics, and groups other than Asian Americans. Aside from creating a society that is ill-equipped to sustain a good quality of life for its citizens, academic disparity positions the nation precariously for future growth and economic competitiveness.

A moral and ethical commitment to a quality education is an integral part of the global and interdependent economic equation.² The sheer number of international groups and initiatives suggests that student achievement and performance is a universally high priority. Periodic reports of student performance of the Organization for Economic Cooperation Development's (OECD) Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) always garner significant media attention and public concern worldwide. These reports are enlightening, and they underscore the impact that poverty and diversity have on the combined power and capacity of our and other nations to contribute to the rapidly changing world economy and global knowledge enterprise.³

The incentives for creating parity for students of color are many, but at this point in our nation's history the focus is on leveraging human capital essential to maintaining the nation's position as a world power. The United States may be considered descending as a powerful influence in the global economy. Some pundits say one primary reason is the shortcomings in our educational system. At the same time, the notion that identifies teachers, and to an increasing extent school-based administrators, as the reason for this dilemma is ill founded given the myriad of socioeconomic factors that influence quality educational systems and opportunity.

Time for a Change: Diversity in Teaching Revisited

Is there a need for teachers of color?

There are scores of programs and policies for garnering a cadre of effective teachers, yet we are far from reaching the goal of providing a quality teacher for every student. While there is significant attention paid to the performance of newly minted teachers and the extent to which they have a grasp on certain disciplines—*i.e.*, Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM)—there is diminishing attention on the extent to which these educators also possess the cultural capital or racial/ethnic and linguistic backgrounds to teach the nation's most diverse student population in history.

Today, the assertion that educators play a critical role in enhancing student achievement is seldom countered. The skill, knowledge, ability, and support they need to be effective are also well researched.⁴ We have established a fairly coherent sense of what constitutes good practice that rarely omits the ability to teach youngsters from all backgrounds and cultures. A teaching force that represents the nation's racial, ethnic, and linguistic cultures and effectively incorporates this background and knowledge to enhance students' academic achievement is advantageous to the academic performance of students of all backgrounds, and for students of color specifically. A mere 18 percent of the PK–12 teaching corps are people of color and, as research shows, far too many educators, regardless of background, struggle to comprehend and employ the tenets of culturally responsive practice.⁵ Given the significant increase of PK–12 students of color, we are rapidly losing ground in the quest for a quality education for all students.

Educators who are grounded in the day-to-day experiences of their students and communities bring to their work more favorable views of students of color, including more positive perceptions regarding their academic potential. They frequently teach with a greater level

of social consciousness than do others, appear to be more committed to teaching students of color, more drawn to teaching in difficult-to-staff urban schools, and are more apt to persist in those settings. The research also implies that same-race teachers are more effective in teaching students of their respective race.⁶

On the other hand, Toldson (2013) references the *Schott 50 State Report on Public Education* and Black Males to make the point that there are a fair number of teachers of color, especially in larger urban centers, and still achievement gap persists.

A black male student, who has had about 55 teachers from kindergarten to 12th grade across all subjects, could expect to have had one black male teacher in Detroit and three black male teachers in Memphis.

Thus, even in locations where there are a significant number of black male teachers, such as Baltimore, Washington, D.C., Memphis, New York, Chicago, Atlanta, Los Angeles, and Dallas-Fort Worth, there remains a lack of parity between African American students and teachers. Facing the reality of a growing racially/ethnically and linguistically diverse student population, there is a compelling need for institutions and individuals in the professional development sector to prepare all teachers to be culturally competent. Well defined standards for preparation and practice that are universally accepted and regulated will contribute much to this need.

Teachers in low-performing schools are more than 50 percent more likely to leave their district than are teachers in high-preforming and well-resourced schools and communities. There is also strong evidence that schools serving children placed at risk are particularly challenged to attract and retain teachers with desirable characteristics. The *NEA Commission on Effective Teachers and Teaching* report (2011)⁸ cites ten (10) universally accepted traits that characterize effective teachers. Specifically, effective teachers:

- Have a positive impact on student learning.
- Know their content and how to teach it to a broad range of students.
- Have the dispositions and aptitudes to work effectively with colleagues and students.
- Have mastered a repertoire of instructional strategies and know when to use each appropriately.
- Plan instruction purposefully.
- Analyze student learning outcomes.

- Reflect on their own practice.
- Adjust future planning as needed.
- Consider collaboration an essential element of their practice.
- Take responsibility for both classroom and school-wide learning.
- Engage their students.

These schools not only attract lower percentages of entering teachers with these characteristics, but lose these teachers to other schools at higher rates.⁹

Programs and policies that aim to attract teachers of color have existed for decades. Although some of them focus specifically on recruiting individuals from certain racial/ethnic groups, others were designed to attract individuals to the profession by signaling a keen interest in under-represented groups. Early efforts ranged from scholarships designated for individuals graduating in the top 10 percent of their high school class to efforts to encourage para-educators with experience in PK–12 schools, but who lacked the resources or wherewithal to secure a full teaching license. While some of these programs still exist, such as Illinois' Golden Apple Scholarship, 10 many of them ceased operation once philanthropic organizations fulfilled their generous grant commitments and state, district and university budgets could not sustain them.

The success of these early efforts was mixed and the long term yield has been disappointing. Ingersoll and May (2011) offer credible evidence that the growth in the number of teachers of color was over twice the growth of white teachers from 1988-2008 and they attribute this growth to the substantial investment of philanthropic organizations in the late 1980's and 1990's. As encouraging and impressive as these gains are they do not provide us a sense of the new cohort of teachers entering the profession today. Additionally, the authors acknowledge that parity is still lacking between the proportions of students and teachers of color with these teachers situated in high poverty, highly diverse urban communities. Similarly, Boser (2011) presents data that indicate virtually every state in the union has a teacher diversity gap when measured against the PK-12 student population with at least 20 states showing a differential of 26 points or more. A recent study of the teacher diversity pipeline by the Illinois Education Research Council (2013) indicates that we certainly cannot declare victory and go home. In their report the authors find that despite the priority of a state P20 advisory body to increase its pipeline of diverse, academically talented teaching candidates, and a number of state programs and policies designed to achieve this goal, there are a host of challenges in recruiting academically prepared individuals, sustaining their interest in the profession, and employing them in schools with the greatest need.¹¹

A coalition of more than 40 major national education, community groups and foundations convened nearly ten (10) years ago to grapple with these issues. Their assessment of the key issue is still valid specifically, although teacher quality has been accepted and internalized as a mantra for school reform. The imperative for diversity is often marginalized rather than accepted as central to the quality equation in teaching.¹²

What is the context for efforts to recruit and retain teachers of color?

Over the past 20 years, there has been a distinct shift in the temperament towards teaching and learning from one that seeks to define quality practice and student achievement to one that focuses on gauging these factors through a host of assessments and methods. Informed educators question the extent to which there have been advancements or setbacks despite a host of conscientious efforts. A variety of issues has contributed to this inertia and indicates an impact on student academic performance, quality teaching and the participation of teachers of color in the profession. We offer a description of some of them, specifically, changing demographics, political messaging, teacher preparation, accountability, teacher evaluation, and the charter school movement.

Changing demographics

The racial/ethnic and linguistic diversity of the PK-12 student body has grown exponentially. Projections to the year 2021 indicate higher public school enrollments for African Americans, Hispanics, Asian/Pacific Islanders, Native Americans/Alaska Natives, and students of two or more races, and lower enrollments for whites. Nationally, the racial and ethnic composition of students enrolled in public schools is approximately 58 percent white (non-Hispanic), 20 percent Hispanic, 16 percent African American, 4 percent Asian/ Pacific Islander, and 1 percent Native American/Alaska Native. Although enrollment in private schools is projected to decrease from 2010-2021, the demographic breakdown is somewhat similar, albeit slightly less diverse than that of public elementary and secondary schools. Specifically, 71 percent of private school students are white; 10 percent Hispanic; 9 percent African American; 5 percent Asian; 3 percent of two or more races, and less than 1 percent Native American/Alaska Native, or Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, respectively.¹⁴ The percentage of the PK-12 public school population that participates in programs for English Language Learners has increased from 8.7 percent in the 2002–2003 school years to 9.8 percent in 2010–2011. Further, in some instances, the religious affiliation category has expanded to include a significant increase of people of the Muslim faith and there are new categories to more clearly describe students with exceptional needs and sexual preference/orientation.

A recent Southern Education Foundation report points to a shift in pockets of poverty. Since 2005, half or more of the South's children in public schools have been from low income households. During the last two school years, 2010 and 2011, for the first time in modern history, the West has had a majority of low-income students attending PK–12 public schools. The report also indicates that in 2011, 30 percent of whites, 72 percent of blacks, 68 percent of Hispanics, 35 percent of Asians, 53 percent of Pacific Islanders, 65 percent of Native Americans/Alaskan Natives, and 43 percent of students from two or more races attend public schools where 50 percent or more of the school was low income.

Arguably, there is and has been for a significant period of time an insufficient number of African American, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Island, and Native American teachers prepared to enter and stay in communities where their presence is highly needed. The most recent data available indicates that 18 percent of the PK–12 public school teaching population is of color with a large proportion, 30 percent working in public charter schools. Approximately 82 percent of the public school teaching force is white non-Hispanic, 6.8 percent African American, 7.8 Hispanic, 1.8 percent Asian American, 1 percent Pacific American, 0.5 percent Native American and 1.0 mixed race. Although Ingersoll and May (2011) are firm in their findings that there is a sufficient supply of teachers of color, they also contend that teachers of color leave schools frequently because of a lack of support and insufficient resources. They concede, as do we, that there is a lack of parity.

Perhaps, for the first time in the nation's history there are three fairly proportional generations of teachers in the nation's PK–12 classrooms *Baby Boomers* (26 percent), *Generation X* (25 percent), and *Generation Y* (29 percent)¹⁸ which changes the landscape of teaching and professional development in a variety of ways.¹⁹ To illustrate, Ingersoll and Merrill (2011)²⁰ probe the rich data provided by the NEA's *American Public School Teacher* series of reports to describe the changing face of classroom educators over the past 50 years and for teachers of color over the past 20 years.²¹ Their classifications are useful in framing key issues and implications for the future.

Ballooning: The overall number of teachers has grown faster than the number of students in the 20th century and the growth in the number of teachers of color has outpaced growth in minority students and over twice the rate of white teachers. This growth may be attributed to a variety of factors, such as an increase of students accommodated by special education, class size reduction, and an increase of core course requirements particularly in mathematics and science.²²

Although Ingersoll and May find a remarkable increase in teachers of color, it is noteworthy that significant proportions of these educators are clustered in certain secondary level areas, for example African Americans in special education, Hispanics in foreign languages, and Asian Americans in mathematics.²³ While these are among the nation's high need subject areas, the reasons why individuals of color gravitate towards these disciplines may indicate that they feel most comfortable teaching in areas that are most closely aligned with the needs of their culture, or possibly it may simply be a function of school districts' supply needs.

Another implication of the ballooning trend may be the expanding roles and responsibilities of PK–12 teachers. Aside from day to day classroom instruction and accompanying administrative responsibilities that come with increased accountability measures, there is a sentiment that *teacher leaders* are beneficial to school reform and thus enhance student achievement. There are a host of tasks and definitions for this role as the school reform agenda evolves, but it is clear that when teachers are assigned and considered agents of change they are advantaged by contextual expertise, such as the ability to be comfortable with both students and colleagues and to serve as conduits for change efforts between individual classrooms and the school as a whole.²⁴ If, as many argue the school is a community of learners then the need for a diverse corps of teacher leaders is advantageous if not essential.

As we consider new roles for teacher leaders of color we should be mindful of the challenges that they may face. In a recent study (Madsen and Mabokela 2014), findings reveal that white school leaders (principals and assistant principals) forward their disciplinary responsibilities to the teachers of color, which results in ongoing tensions surrounding students of color. African American leaders fall into stereotypical roles, in which they are perceived as being hired to be the disciplinarian and must prove their expertise on instructional and curriculum issues which are factors that garner respect and are valued by teachers within the school community. While we can assume that teacher leaders of color are capable of adding a valuable dimension to a school's learning community by helping to create an inclusive environment and developing a culturally responsive school image to the community, it will require meaningful reflection and engagement by the entire school community.

Graying: The number of teachers 50 or older has increased, from about 527,000 in 1987 to 1.3 million in 2007.²⁷ The most recent data available indicates that nearly 20 percent of the teaching population is 55 years old or older.²⁸

African Americans teachers are more senior and Hispanic teachers younger than those of other racial/ethnic backgrounds. Since the research indicates that teachers' effectiveness generally increases with years of experience we can expect to continue to suffer a void in seasoned African American teachers and should be particularly cognizant of support and conditions that will recruit and retain Hispanic teachers of Generation Y or Millennials (born 1977–1994). For the first time in the nation's history the proportion of Hispanic

teachers (7.8 percent) is greater than African American teachers (6.8 percent). Given the steady increase in PK–12 students of Hispanic heritage we can expect a critical need for more teachers who share this background and knowledge of the culture.

Lastly, an additional distinction among the current teaching population lies in the proliferation of public charter schools where the average age of teachers is 37 years versus teachers in traditional public schools with an average age of 43 years. The diversity of the public charter schools teaching population (approximately 30 percent of color) exceeds the diversity of the traditional public schools teaching population (approximately 18 percent of color).²⁹ Presuming the public charter school movement continues to grow in size and diversity, there will be an increasing demand for well-trained quality educators to staff these entities as well as traditional public and private schools.

Greening: As the proportion of older teachers grows, there is a simultaneous increase in the proportion of the teaching force that is younger. This is driven by the ballooning effect. There are also a significant number of older, relatively inexperienced teachers. In 1987 there were about 65,000 1st year teachers; by 2007 this number had grown to 200,000 and one fourth of the teaching force had five years or less of experience.³⁰

Today approximately 10.7 percent of traditional public school teachers have less than four years of teaching experience while 26.3 percent of public charter school teachers have less than four years of experience.³¹ Understanding that teachers get better at their jobs as they progress through their first years of teaching,³² students and schools stand to lose valuable learning experiences as attrition is high among new teachers. There are a variety of factors that contribute to the attrition of new teachers of color. Aside from those novices who by virtue of their affiliation (such as Teach for America) are not committed to teach in high-needs schools throughout their working careers, there are those who are not provided the necessary induction to the profession and support that is critical in fine-tuning their craft. Further, new teachers of color are often kept from acting on their personal commitment to improve educational opportunities for low-income racially, ethnically, and linguistically diverse students and communities due to their schools' responses to state and federal accountability policies. These responses often narrow the curriculum and discourage innovation beyond prescribed standards and assessments.³³

Becoming More Female: Following the ballooning trend, the number of male entrants has also grown by 26 percent since the late 1980s—also at a faster rate than that of the student population. But the number of female teachers has increased at more than twice that rate since the late 1980s. Over the past 20 years the number of white male teachers increased by 18 percent, but the number of male teachers of color increased by 92 percent.

Although this increase is notable, the percentage of white male students in preK through 12th grade is twice the percentage of white male teachers; the percentage of African American male students is more than three times the percentage of African American male teachers; and the percentage of Hispanic male students is almost seven times the percentage of Hispanic male teachers. Asian males represent less than 0.5 percent of the teaching force.³⁴

There has been a proliferation of meetings and summits convened by federal, state, and local school districts that work to identify ways and means to enhance the life chances of PK-12 male students of color. One frequently cited approach is to promote greater participation of high-quality African American, Hispanic, and other men of color in PK-12 teaching. The notion has garnered significant media attention and some monetary support from celebrities, corporations, and foundations. The Obama Administration has also recognized male teachers of color as valuable assets to all young men as well as to the entire school community by announcing the My Brother's Keeper initiative, a collaborative, multidisciplinary approach designed to build ladders of opportunity and to unlock the full potential of boys and young men of color. These educators are perceived to be positive role models and perceived by some to be the answer to stemming the school to prison pipeline that disrupts the academic performance and life chances for far too many PK-12 male students of color. The representation of men of color in the teaching force is highly desirable as we work to establish a teaching force that represents society as a whole, at the same time, we should be careful to assign reasonable expectations for any group of teachers to grapple with the many issues that confront poor performing students generally, and students of color specifically.³⁵

Becoming Less Stable: Over the past two decades, from the late 1980s to 2009, teachers of colors tend to have had higher rates of turnover than white teachers. In 2004, 45 percent of all public school teacher turnover took place in just a quarter of public schools and the high-poverty, high-minority, and urban public schools are among the highest rates.

Significantly a critical mass of teachers of color is situated in such schools. The data show that turnover rates for teachers of color are higher than those for white teachers yet they are more likely than white teachers to work and remain in "hard to staff" urban schools with high proportions of students from low-income and non-dominant racial/ethnic cultural communities.³⁶

The *political* messaging for the past 20 years has generally focused on the need for quality teachers; the *professional* messaging has generally focused on the need for a culturally diverse and responsive quality teaching force.³⁷

The precipitous decline of people entering teaching from 1972–1985 drew attention to the need for a larger supply of quality classroom educators. In response, a host of recruitment

initiatives were established designed to attract individuals credentialed from fields other than education, as well as career changers. The prevailing assumption was that quality teachers required a strong content or subject matter background which those who pursued teaching as their first career option did not have.³⁸ At the same time, many of the colleges and universities that trained new teachers were fairly confident in the general quality of their preparation programs. However, the expansion and immersion of PK–12 students of color beyond urban and rural classrooms and into suburban and other vicinities stimulated them to embrace matters of diversity, and individuals who understood it, more so than in the past. Prompted by state and national program accreditation standards these institutions invested time and resources towards a more culturally knowledgeable corps of teacher candidates.

Teacher preparation programs

Since the mid 1980s, the initial and continuing professional development of teachers has made a major adjustment from one that was by and large situated in 4 year+ college based undergraduate programs with segmented clinical experiences to one of integrated clinical practice. Colleges and universities educate the majority (88 percent)³⁹ of new teachers in this nation, however public and private groups, propriety and non-profit organizations and school districts authorized by state and local entities have joined the teacher preparation sector. Secretary Duncan's 2013 annual report to congress on teacher quality provides that 69 percent of teacher preparation programs are classified as traditional, 21 percent of alternative route teacher preparation programs based at institutions of higher education (IHE), and 10 percent alternative route teacher preparation programs not based at IHEs. Of the 728,310 individuals enrolled in teacher education programs, 88, 687 are enrolled in alternative route programs. Of this group, 37 percent of enrollees in IHE based programs are of color and 53.7 percent are training in non-IHE based programs⁴⁰ (see Figure 1 on page 21). Given that all programs are not created the same, or governed by the same entity, there are varying and mixed messages about what constitutes culturally responsive practice.

Further, the design and delivery of teacher preparation has broadened to accommodate traditional four-year baccalaureate degrees in education and four years of liberal arts study with 1–2 years of post-baccalaureate study. In addition to establishing the expectation of a teaching force with stronger subject matter knowledge, this changed the characteristic of the teaching force by encouraging older career changers to not only enter teaching as an exit strategy from their previous positions, but also accommodated a shorter career cycle. Today, this shorter career cycle suits the preferences of Generation X (born 1966–1976) and Generation Y professionals who are not inclined to remain in one career or job throughout their adult life.

Sixty-eight (68) percent of individuals enrolled in teacher preparation programs in 2009–10 identified as white, 11 percent identified as Hispanic or Latino, and 9 percent identified as

black or African American.⁴¹ A number of these programs, typically termed, alternative routes,* are more abbreviated than others and appeal to teachers of color more-so than so called traditional programs. While many of these programs are situated in or affiliated with colleges and universities, a number of them do not provide a sufficient level of induction and/or mentoring support which is critical to retaining beginning teachers.⁴²

A study of bachelor's degree recipients one year after graduation (see Figure 2 on page 22) reveals that, among 2007–08 bachelor's degree recipients, in 2009 white graduates accounted for 79 percent of those who taught before or after earning their bachelor's degrees, with smaller percentages among other ethnic groups. Among the four groups compared, white, African American, Hispanic, and Asian American, the highest proportion of African American college graduates was found among those who considered teaching (14 percent), and the highest proportion of Hispanic college graduates was found among those who prepared for or considered teaching (about 12 percent each). In contrast, Asian American college graduates represented a higher percentage of those who did not consider teaching (7 percent) than of those who taught or prepared to teach (2 and 3 percent, respectively).⁴³ This suggests that there may be differences in the attraction to teaching between teachers of different racial/ethnic backgrounds and at varying point in the teacher preparation pipeline, such as pre-college, college, and thereafter. It is apparent that these differences should be considered in recruitment efforts.⁴⁴

Accountability

In decades past, postsecondary institutions were accountable for a teacher's ability to teach. Given their recommendation, states issued licenses to practice. Today, there are a wide range of assessments to gauge teacher performance, post preparation. More so than in the past, they require that individuals' demonstrate their knowledge and skill intermittently throughout their career using a variety of performance gauges that range in quality. Further, Title II of the Higher Education Act (HEA) requires a level of accountability for teacher education programs that is more transparent than in the past. States are required on an annual basis to publicly report the performance of teacher candidates on licensure examinations, by institution. Although this process was instituted as a quality indicator, it leaves some institutions which are large producers of teachers of color, vulnerable as there is an achievement gap in the performance of whites and some other racial/ethnic groups on

^{*} Alternative route teacher preparation programs primarily serve candidates whom states permit to be the teachers of record in a classroom while participating in the route. They may be within an IHE (referred to as "alternative, IHE-based") or outside an IHE (referred to as "alternative, not IHE-based"). For purposes of HEA Title II reporting, each state determines which teacher preparation programs are alternative route programs. Traditional teacher preparation programs generally serve undergraduate students who have no prior teaching or work experience, and generally lead to at least a bachelor's degree. Some traditional teacher preparation programs may lead to a teaching credential but not to a degree. A traditional teacher preparation program in the outlying areas may lead to an associate's degree.

licensure examinations.⁴⁵ Today's accountability requirements for all teachers (and their building administrators) are challenging. For teachers working in low-performing schools this is more challenging than for others. Testing has long been considered a detractor for teachers of color and research indicates that there are significant differences in average PRAXIS* scores between test takers of different racial/ethnic subgroups.⁴⁶

Teacher evaluation

The requirements for teaching in a culturally responsive way are well situated in teacher education state program approval and accreditation criteria and standards. At the same time, approximately 47 percent of practicing teachers who have had professional development in this area indicate a need for more. Teacher evaluation is one of the most controversial and influential accountability factors in the teacher quality agenda. States have adopted various assessments designed to gauge a teachers' impact on student achievement and in keeping with some federal and state program requirement penalties are often imposed on the school or district. Teachers who are employed in high need schools and communities are more challenged than others to meet student performance requirements and therefore are more vulnerable to transfer and dismissal when student achievement goals are not met. Since teachers of color are generally clustered in such schools their tenure and retention may be less secure than others.

Charter School movement

School ownership has expanded to the local community. The proliferation of public charter schools is a new phenomenon and an increasing number of teachers of color are joining their faculties. This disrupts the previously predicted supply and demand estimates for teachers given the establishment of new schools and the maintenance of traditional public schools. There are a number of cautionary notes surrounding the trend towards public charter schools, not the least of which would be establishing conditions and policies that disproportionately divert resources from traditional public schools and the displacement of veteran teachers, often teachers of color from traditional public school systems when public charter schools are established in their place. Given the current focus of public policies and philanthropic priorities, the nation's charter schools are more likely than traditional public schools to be high poverty (51–100 percent of students receiving free and reduced-price lunch), extremely high poverty (76–100 percent free and reduced-price lunch), or racially isolated for minorities (90–100 percent of students are racial minorities).⁴⁷

A report of the Poverty & Race Action Council (2012) indicates that public policy tends not to encourage the creation of socioeconomically and racially diverse schools. They find that to the contrary, some state charter laws provide an incentive to create high-poverty charter schools. Further, current federal law requires charters to use blind lotteries for admissions

in order to qualify for start-up funds which in turn excises valuable tools (such as incomebased lotteries and geographic weighting) that could aid the creation of racially diverse and mixed-income schools.⁴⁸

What progress has been made towards the goal of parity?

The recruitment and retention of teachers of color will not happen as a coincidence of the teacher quality agenda. It requires deliberate action that is time and labor intensive.⁴⁹ We recognize that the needs and concerns of Iowa are not those of South Carolina, but the need to have parity requires a teacher workforce that is as diverse, by percentage and proportion, as the student population regardless of state.⁵⁰

The federal directive on this issue is arguably modest with limited impact on state activity. Although the value of teacher diversity is mentioned in speeches there are few federally supported programs and initiatives that are named and focused on teachers of color. Similarly, proposed legislation is minimal. According to Thomas and Brady (2005),⁵¹ Congress considered the legislative history of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act 1965 (ESEA) in the development of its successor, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and agreed to focus on the elimination of racial and socioeconomic inequities in public schools and the lack of quality educational opportunities available for disadvantaged populations. The reform objectives of ESEA—greater accountability for the academic performance of students, increased local control, teacher quality, and parental involvement—are evident in NCLB.⁵² Yet, consistent with its predecessor, NCLB is silent about the need for culturally competent teachers and about the role of a multicultural curriculum in improving student learning. As Grant and Gibson offer, "NCLB ignores diversity." As federal legislators continue to grapple with re-authorization of this highly significant program we find only one bill that focuses squarely on the issue.*

^{*} H.R.536 — 113th Congress. Introduced in House by Rep. Susan A. Davis [D-CA-53] The Diverse Teachers Recruitment Act of 2013:

Amends the ESEA of 1965 to direct the Secretary of Education to award competitive matching grants
to local educational agencies (LEAs) or nonprofits, educational service agencies, institutions of higher
education, or states that enter into partnerships with such LEAs to: 1) recruit individuals from underrepresented groups as public elementary and secondary school teachers, and 2) provide training and
retention incentives to public elementary and secondary school teachers.

Prohibits grants to applicants that do not serve schools that have difficulty recruiting, training, and retaining individuals from underrepresented groups as teachers.

[•] Gives priority to applicants that serve the most high-need schools and those that serve schools with high concentrations of poor, minority, disabled, or limited English proficient students.

Requires the Secretary to evaluate the success of the grantees and compile a database of best practices for recruiting, training, and retaining individuals from underrepresented groups as public elementary and secondary school teachers.

State policies that aim to attract teachers of color have existed for several decades. What we find today are programs and policies on the books with varying potential for impact. A review of the data from earlier initiatives to present day suggests that these efforts have generated a modest but insufficient number of African American, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Island and Native American teachers. Some focus specifically on recruiting individuals from particular under-represented racial/ethnic groups, and others are couched in teacher quality legislation. Early program efforts ranged from scholarships designated for students graduating in the top 10 percent of their graduating class to programs aimed at para-educators to secure credentials as teacher of record. Some of these recruitment models, while well intended, did not attract great numbers of candidates. And while a number of these public programs were authorized, the financial appropriations were modest and much of the financial investment came from foundations and other philanthropic organizations.

Today, we find state teacher quality policies that are more focused and aligned with current needs—human resources for hard-to-staff schools or teaching STEM and English language learners. Generally, these policies are embedded in the teacher quality discussion. In order to get a clearer picture of the influence that these policies may have had on the number of teachers of color for their respective states, we reviewed a number of them relying on data from the Center on Great Teachers and Leaders. The policy stances of interest for this analysis include: Hard-to-Staff, Minority Recruitment, Minority Scholarship, Hard-to-Staff/Minority Recruitment, Hard-to-Staff/Minority Scholarship, and other policy stances, such as international recruitment and alternative routes to certification.*

The aforementioned policies promoted by states serve to attract or retain teachers of color, but they do so in varying contexts. Few states have adopted a single approach and most states use a combination of approaches. What we find is that a majority of states have adopted policy stances that focus attention on attracting minority teachers for hard-to-staff schools through alternative routes and also by using scholarships (see Figure 3 on page 23).

^{*} Minority teachers and teachers of color are used as interchangeable statements. The policy stances are defined as follows:

[•] Hard-to-Staff Schools. High-poverty inner-city schools or rural schools that typically offer lower salaries and fewer resources.

Minority Recruitment-Programs. Created to attract and retain teachers of color into teaching that may
include, but are not limited to financial incentives.

[•] Minority Scholarship. These programs are also created to attract teachers of color into teaching, but are ostensibly financial in nature, *i.e.*, grant, scholarship, loan-repayment.

[•] Alternative Routes. This presents an opportunity for those who were not formally trained to be teachers the opportunity to pursue teaching credentials in an abbreviated fashion. The aforementioned policies promoted by states serve to attract or retain minority teachers, but they do so in varying contexts.

Figure 3 categorizes states by their policy stances. Figure 4 (see page 24) delineates the average percentage of minority student and minority teacher growth by state and policy stance. Figures 5A through 5D (see pages 26–27) depict the percentage of white and minority teachers reported for the 1993–1994 reporting year and also for the 2007–2008 reporting year. Even more specifically, Figures 6A and 6B (see page 28) compare percentage growth in the number of minority students to minority teachers reported between 1993 and 2008 in 49 states.⁵⁵

Given the combination of initiatives offered within states, it is difficult to isolate the impact of particular policy stances. However, a review of the period 1993–2008 suggests that minority teacher programs, in conjunction with alternate routes, are not as productive as might be expected. Regarding growth, states nested within 9 of the 12 policy stances experienced a decline in overall average percentage. Of those 9 policy stances, states that employ the Hard-to-Staff policy stance experienced the highest overall decline in average percentage. Contrary to the decline displayed for the minority teachers, there was an across-the-board increase for minority students, regardless of policy stance.

The data show clearly that states report dramatically higher percentages of white teachers between 1993 and 2008 than they do percentages of minority teachers during the same period. Further, states that display a double-digit increase in the number of minority teachers reported between 1993 and 2008 (*i.e.*, AL, MD, and NM⁵⁶ and TX⁵⁷) employed alternative routes to certification options. To illustrate the lack of percentage growth of minority teachers between 1993 and 2008, the mean percentage of minority teachers reported in 2008 (M=11.8) is less than the mean percentage of minority teachers reported in 1993 (M=12.6).

Conversely, the mean percentage of minority students reported in 2008 (M=35.6) is greater than the mean percentage of minority students reported in 1993 (M=27.3). Figures 6A and 6B represent the difference between the raw percentage of minority students and minority teachers from 1993 to 2008. Reflective of that difference, we see consistent growth of the minority student population in 49 states. Of those 49 states, 46 states' minority student percentage growth outpaced the percentage growth of minority teachers. Specifically, of those 46 states, 24 saw a decrease in staffing of minority teachers. Thus, we assert that there is a lack of parity between minority teachers and minority students in classrooms across the nation.

In concert, the findings from this work point toward some consistent conclusions. Minority students increased in number and percentage between 1993 and 2008. Additionally, minority teachers decreased in number and percentage between 1993 and 2008. As a result of the inverse trend between minority student growth and minority teacher growth, during the same period of time, we assert that there is a lack of diversity in the teacher workforce

and a lack of parity between minority teachers and students. What is also apparent is that policy stances, in isolation and in combination are failing to make a significant impact on increasing the number and proportion of teachers of color. As a result of the inverse pattern of growth for minority teachers in relation to minority students, we assert that minority students will have decreased possibility of having a teacher of their own race/cultural heritage.

Further, we contend that it is desirable for students to have positive experiences with teachers of their own racial/ethnic heritage. For example, we recognize that someone from an African country may have difficulty teaching African American children, which is due to having a different ethnic heritage. Similarly, Spanish speakers may share the same language but not cultural practices. Even so, racial and ethnic diversity in the teacher workforce increases the probability that students and teachers will have positive experiences in the classroom with those of their own racial/ethnic heritage. Cultural competence of teachers, regardless of race/ethnicity, should be emphasized via preparation, but respect of cultural differences is paramount to being culturally sensitive. So we assert that racial/ethnic diversity as well as cultural competence is essential to academic achievement for students in general, but minority students in particular.

Conclusions and Recommendations

There is a host of proclamations that speak to the need for a culturally diverse teaching force in order to provide a quality education for all students and students of color in particular. The stated need is corroborated by a robust research base that indicates the advantages of a diverse cadre of educators. However, individuals and institutions do not typically act on proclamations absent direction and resources. Given this understanding, the following warrants consideration:

■ Be more explicit about the desire for teachers from under-represented groups in federal, state, and local legislation and policy guidelines for recruitment and other programs; fund them sufficiently and monitor progress on a regular basis.

The new and emerging cohort of teachers generally, and those of color specifically, are not the same as those of previous generations. This new generation of educators seeks encouragement in their ideals, and value their individuality and self-expression. They look for opportunities to advance within the field of education.⁵⁸ The current political climate tends to stifle creativity and independence in practice. In order to ease this tension we must:

■ Work to establish consensus and political will for systematic changes in the teaching profession that will accommodate shared vision and goal setting.⁵⁹

■ Encourage shared leadership, such as teacher leaders making the most of their new-teachers-of-color expertise.⁶⁰

New teachers of color, more so than others, embrace non-traditional teaching and learning environments. They enroll in alternative route preparation programs and work in public charter schools at a greater rate than their white counterparts. We can speculate that this may be a function of the weak economy wherein the investment in time and possibly resources are less than in the traditional preparation programs. We can also deduce that charter schools provide more opportunity or freedom to teach outside the box leaving room for culturally responsive practice provided the prevailing learning standards are met. In order to encourage a greater interest in the profession, it may be prudent to:

- Embrace alternative teaching and learning entities, and at the same time establish clear and universal standards and guidelines for what constitutes quality and effective culturally responsive quality practice,
- Recognize the generational temperament of new teachers not to make a lifelong commitment to a career in teaching and establish opportunities with the education sector to make it more attractive to remain.

Generally speaking, teachers of color are clustered: within high need and/or low performing schools that are particularly challenging and tense environments and in high need subject areas that are highly populated with students from their respective backgrounds. At the same time their presence is valuable in all vicinities and all disciplines. We are unsure whether from a macro level there is a sentiment of racial uplift wherein these teachers feel a strong commitment to enhance educational achievement for their students or if it simply a function of a districts' teacher supply needs for these schools and disciplines. The critical questions are how or why this is the case. We must:

- Closely examine the hiring and distribution patterns of local school districts to discern how placements in hard to staff schools are made.
- Review the motivation, rewards, and incentives of beginning teachers of color to teach certain subjects such as special education.
- Review the motivation, rewards, and incentives of teachers of color to teach in public charter schools.

The most recent information available indicates that most all states have program and policies on the books, but the yield of new teachers of color is disappointing. In order to better gauge the effectiveness and utility of these investments, it would seem appropriate conduct:

- A national study to explore the causal impact of programs and policies designed to recruit and retain teachers of color.*
- A review of the impact of policy stances on states between 1993 and 2013 to employ best practices and foster growth among teachers of color.

This nation is vested in reform for schools, for teaching, and for learning. The current programs and policies incentivize for a wide range of change—pushing the envelope with unprecedented grant programs designated for states, districts, and schools as well as national organizations. While there are significant opportunities—to advance school reorganization, the use of technology, new outcomes assessments—few new initiatives give adequate attention to the racial/ethnic and generational profiles the future cohort of PK–12 educators bring. We continue to rely on decades old premises. As we recognize the need for support and change in all aspects of schooling, we also must commit to real and deliberate action in recruiting those who are equipped with the cultural capital that will make the system whole. It is time for a change.

^{*} Limitations. The thrust of this background paper is to call attention to the disparity between teachers of color and students of color. The raw percentages tell the story of dramatic disparity between the two groups; minority student growth radically outpaces the growth of minority teachers. Unfortunately, we are not able to make any credible assertions of the relationship between the growth of minority students and the lack of growth of minority teachers. On the other hand, this report establishes an area of inquiry regarding the impact of the taxonomy of policy stances on minority teacher growth. In order to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the impact of policy on minority teacher growth, it is necessary to have state-level data that will allow for a more nuanced exploration of the limitations of policy stances.

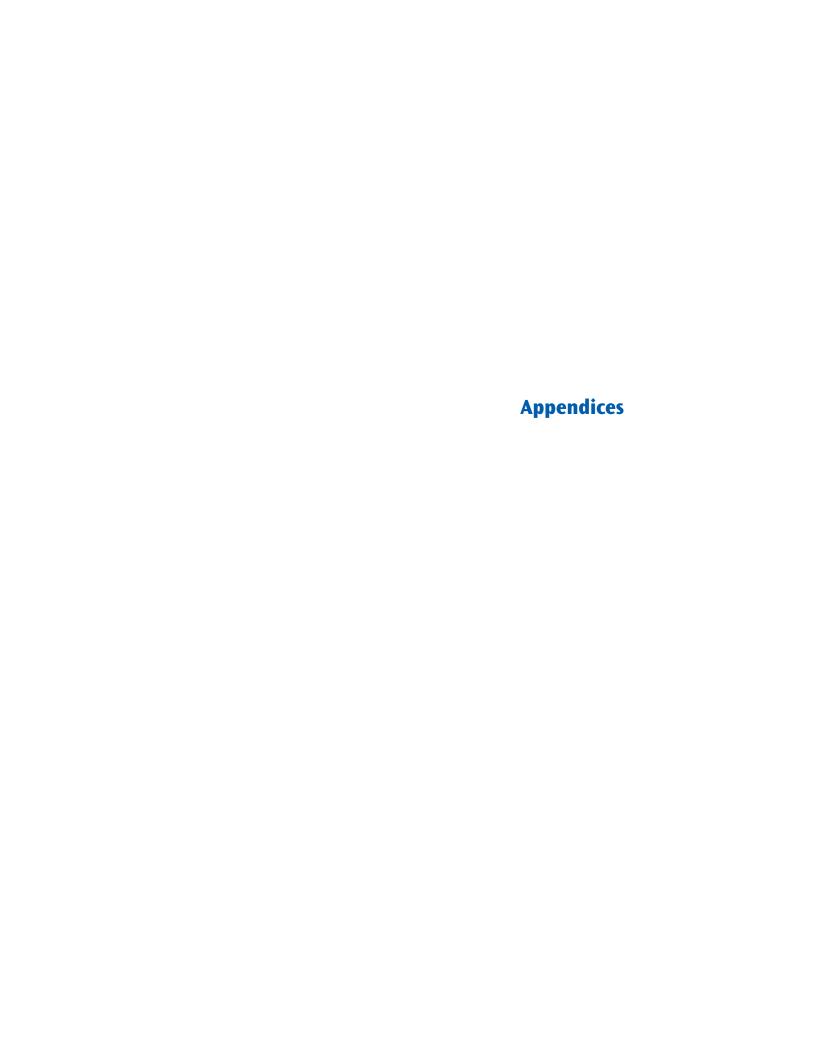


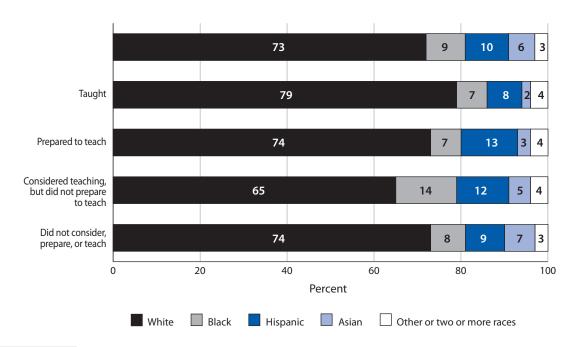
Figure 1. Number and Percentage of Individuals Enrolled in Teacher Preparation Programs by Selected Characteristics and Program Type: AY 2009–2010

	Program Type							
	All Programs		Traditional		Alternative IHE-Based		Alternative Not IHE-Based	
Selected Characteristics	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Total	728,310		639,623		47,266		41,421	
Students enrolled by gender								
Female	541,459	74.3%	482,391	75.4%	33,107	70.0%	25,961	62.7%
Male	179,637	24.7	153,839	24.1	13,901	29.4	11,897	28.7
Students enrolled by race/ethnicity								
Native American or Alaska Native	5,745	0.8	5,236	0.8	279	0.6	230	0.6
Asian or Pacific Islander	18,979	2.6	15,983	2.5	1,764	3.7	1,232	3.0
Black or African American	62,358	8.6	50,454	7.9	6,059	12.8	5,845	14.1
Hispanic/Latino of any race	76,955	10.6	65,695	10.3	4,754	10.1	6,506	15.7
White	495,981	68.1	443,712	69.4	30,031	63.5	22,238	53.7
Two or more races	9,659	1.3	7,841	1.2	1,359	2.9	459	1.1

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Postsecondary Education. 2012. Higher Education Act Title II Reporting System.

NOTE: Data on enrollment by gender and race/ethnicity were not available for all teacher preparation programs. Some teacher preparation programs only provided the total number of students enrolled; thus, the sum of the number of students enrolled by characteristic will not equal the total. Percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding. The 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Northern Mariana Islands, Palau, and Virgin Islands submitted a state Title II report in 2011. Guam, Micronesia, and Marshall Islands did not submit a state Title II report in 2011. This figure includes data for four IHEs in Ohio that were incorrectly reported as having alternative, IHE-based programs in 2011.

Figure 2. Percentage Distribution of 2007–2008 First-Time Bachelor's Degree Recipients' Race/Ethnicity, by Teaching Status: 2009



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2008/09 Baccalaureate and Beyond Study (B&B:08/09).

NOTE: Taught includes bachelor's degree recipients who held K-12 teaching jobs, worked as short-term substitutes, or worked as teacher's aides before or after completing their degree. Prepared to teach includes bachelor's degree recipients who took courses to prepare for teaching at the K-12 level, completed student teaching, or were certified to teach at the K-12 level but had not taught. Considered teaching, but did not prepare or teach includes bachelor's degree recipients who reported that they were currently considering teaching in 2007-08 or 2009 but had not prepared to teach or taught by 2009. Did not consider, prepare, or teach includes bachelor's degree recipients who had not prepared to teach, taught, or reported considering teaching in 2007-08 or 2009. Black includes African American and Hispanic includes Latino. Other includes Native American or Alaska Native and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Estimates include students enrolled in Title IV eligible postsecondary institutions in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Standard error tables are available at http://nces.ed.gov/pubserarch/pubsinfo. asp?pubid=2014002.

Figure 3. Minority Teacher Policy Stances (2010), by State

Hard-to- Staff	Hard-to- Staff Alt Route	Minority Scholarship	Minority Scholarship Alt Route	Minority Recruitment	Minority Recruitment Alt Route		Hard-to- Staff/ Minority Recruitment/ Alt Route	Hard-to- Staff/ Minority Scholarship	Hard-to- Staff/ Minority Scholarship/ Alt Route	Other	Alternative Route
HI	ID	IN	NC	AZ	CO	IA	AL	МО	AK	MI	ME
NH	KS	IL	OK	MN	NM	KY	CA		AR	ND	SD
NV	LA				TN		CT		NY	NE	
RI	MD						FL		SC	NJ	
TX	MS						VA		VT		
	MT						WA		WI		
	OR						WV				
	PA						MA				
	UT						ОН				
	WY										
	DC										
	DE										
	GA										

SOURCE: National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality. 2010.

Figure 4. Average Percentage of Minority Student and Minority Teacher Growth by State and Policy Stance

Policy Stances	Minority Student 1993–2008	Minority Teacher 1993–2008
Hard-to-Staff		
HI	8.0	-16.0
NH	4.0	-1.0
NV	28.0	-4.0
RI	10.0	-3.0
TX	15.0	14.0
Average Percentage	13.0	-10.0
Hard-to-Staff Alt Route		
ID	10.0	0.0
KS	12.0	3.0
LA	2.0	-4.0
MD	12.0	11.0
MS	3.0	5.0
MT	2.0	-1.0
OR	13.0	1.0
PA	6.0	-5.0
UT	13.0	-2.0
WY	6.0	0.0
DC	-5.0	-15.0
DE	12.0	3.0
GA	10.0	0.0
Average Percentage	7.4	-0.3
Minority Scholarship		
IN	7.0	1.0
IL	11.0	-2.0
Average Percentage	9.0	-0.5
Minority Scholarship Alt Route		
NC	7.0	0.0
OK	14.0	3.0
Average Percentage	10.5	1.5
Minority Recruitment		
AZ	16.0	-8.0
MN	12.0	-2.0
Average Percentage	14.0	-5.0
Minority Recruitment Alt Route		
CO	12.0	-3.0
NM	11.0	16.0
TN	7.0	-9.0
Average Percentage	10.0	1.3

(continued)

Figure 4. Average Percentage of Minority Student and Minority Teacher Growth by State and Policy Stance (continued)

Policy Stances	Minority Student 1993–2008	Minority Teacher 1993–2008
Hard-to-Staff/Minority Recruit	ment	
IA	9.0	-2.0
KY	6.0	-1.0
Average Percentage	7.5	-1.5
lard-to-Staff/Minority Recruit	ment/Alt Route	
AL	4.0	14.0
CA	13.0	4.0
CT	11.0	2.0
FL	9.0	4.0
VA	10.0	-2.0
WA	12.0	4.0
WV	3.0	1.0
MA	6.0	-1.0
ОН	4.0	-2.0
Average Percentage	8.0	2.7
Hard-to-Staff/Minority Scholar	ship	
MO	6.0	0.0
Average Percentage	6.0	0.0
Hard-to-Staff/Minority Scholar	ship/Alt Route	
AK	7.0	2.0
AR	8.0	-2.0
NY	5.0	-2.0
SC	1.0	2.0
VT	2.0	-2.0
WI	5.0	1.0
Average Percentage	4.7	-0.2
Other		
MI	8.0	-4.0
ND	5.0	-2.0
NE	18.0	0.0
NJ	10.0	1.0
Average Percentage	10.25	-1.25
Alternative Route		
ME	4.0	-1.0
SD	4.0	1.0
Average Percentage	4.0	0.0

Figure 5A. Percentage of White and Minority Teachers: 1993–1994 and 2007–2008, by State AK-IA

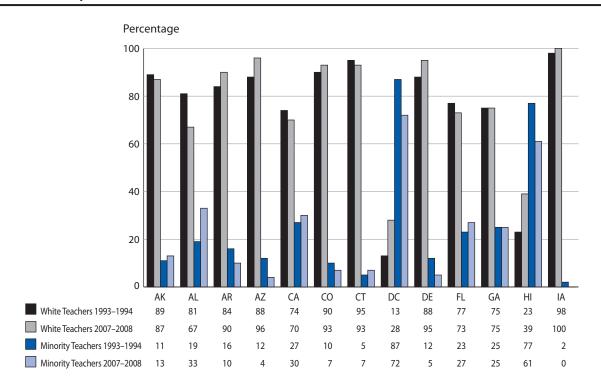


Figure 5B. Percentage of White and Minority Teachers: 1993–1994 and 2007–2008, by State ID-MS

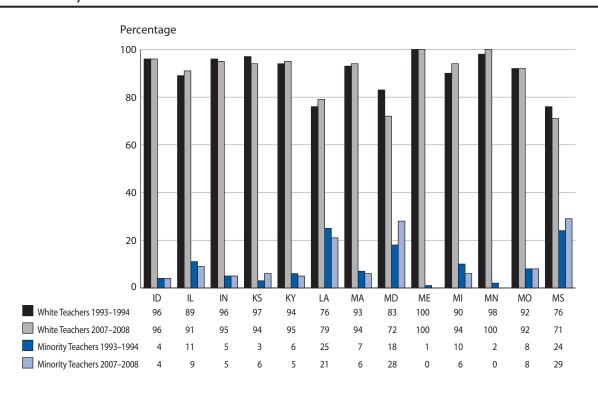


Figure 5C. Percentage of White and Minority Teachers: 1993–1994 and 2007–2008, by State MT-PA

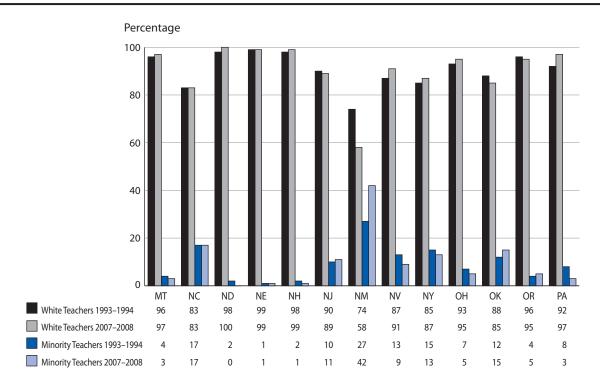


Figure 5D. Percentage of White and Minority Teachers: 1993–1994 and 2007–2008, by State RI–WY

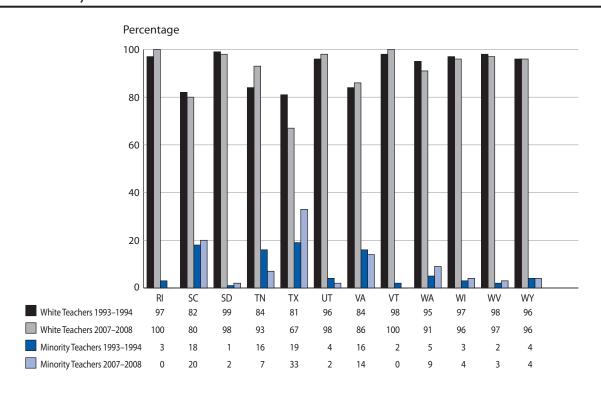


Figure 6A. Comparison of Percentage Growth: Minority Students to Minority Teachers from 1993 to 2008, by State AK-MO

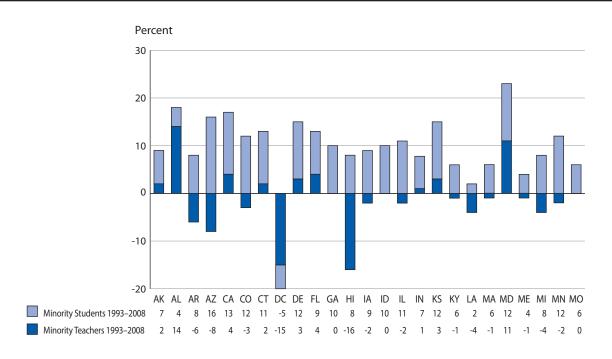
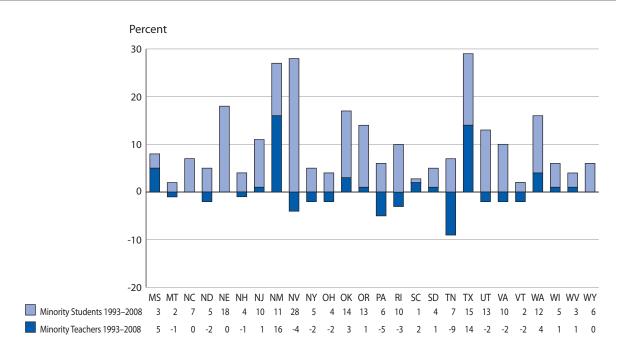


Figure 6B. Comparison of Percentage Growth: Minority Students to Minority Teachers from 1993 to 2008, by State MS-WY



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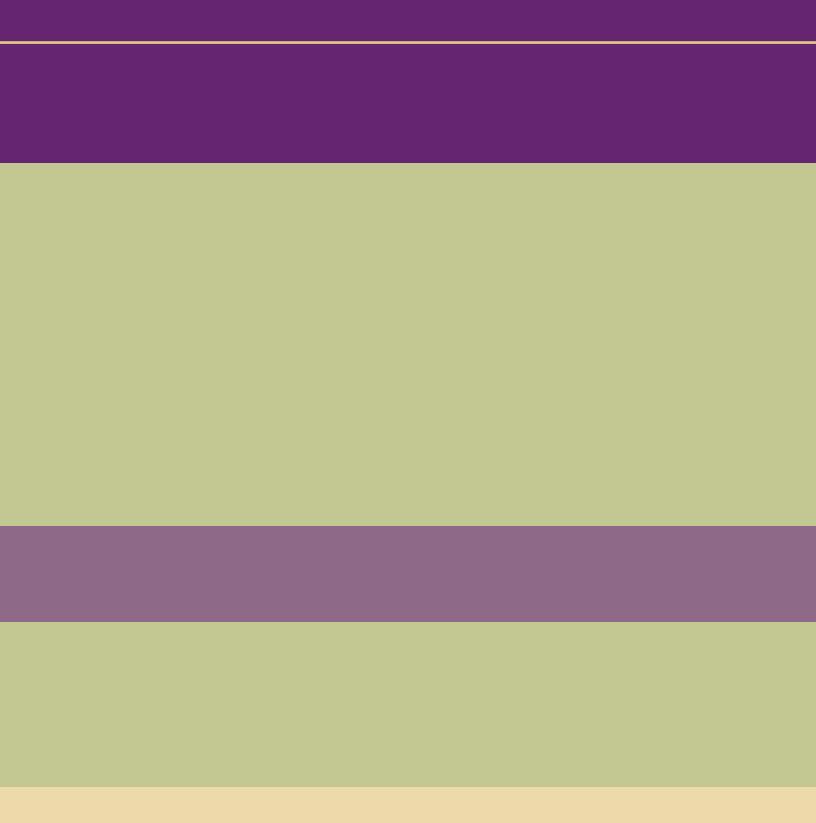
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