Recruiting Minority Teachers: The UTOP Program

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by
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Introduction

The percentage of racial minorities in the United States is increasing rapidly, and public school populations are beginning to reflect this trend. According to Hodgkinson (1992), from 1990 to 2010 the minority youth population in Wisconsin, for example, will increase from 13.5% to 16.6%. Wisconsin is not atypical. At the same time, the percentage of minority teachers is decreasing. Minority individuals are not choosing education as a career, and many minority teachers are choosing to leave the teaching profession. And to compound these problems, higher education is experiencing decreased enrollment of minority students in all academic fields. " Recruiting minority students has proved frustrating for leaders of many colleges and universities. Retaining those recruited, however, may prove more vexing," according to Vanden Brook (1993, p. B3).

These challenges are long-standing. The federal government saw a need to ameliorate problems associated with the low numbers of minority teachers in the 1970s. Section 1135 of the Education Amendments of 1978 requires districts to establish policies for minority
teacher recruitment (Ramirez and Tippeconnic 1979). Institutions of higher learning also recognized this problem some time ago. A 1987 policy statement, “Minority Teacher Recruitment and Retention: A Call to Action,” was the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education’s initiative to reverse the declining number of minority teachers. Their recommendations included national and state scholarship programs, high school and college work-study programs, two-year and four-year college cooperative programs, financial assistance and incentives, support programs for the new teachers, and programs for teacher assessment.

In order for minorities to change their socioeconomic status, they must improve academically. Having minority teacher role-models may help them move in this direction. According to Zapata:

If learning style is influenced by one’s sociocultural environment, it follows that teachers and students from similar backgrounds may have greater likelihood of similarity in ways of learning. Thus teachers from minority backgrounds may be better prepared to meet the learning needs of an increasing proportion of the school population than teachers from other backgrounds. (1988, p. 19)

Daughtry suggests, “Minority teachers are needed to ensure that all schools are truly multicultural in perspective and minority students have role models” (1989, p. 27). Majority students also benefit by seeing minority individuals in professional roles and raising shared expectations (Middleton et al. 1988). Haberman ex-
plains, "Low income minority youths aren’t the only young people who need to see minority role models; middle class white youngsters can also benefit from the experience of having black or Hispanic teachers" (1989, p. 773). In a report from the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, the writers note:

The race and background of their teachers tells them something about power and authority in contemporary America. These messages influence children’s attitudes toward school, their academic accomplishments, and their views of their own and others’ intrinsic worth. The views they form in school about justice and fairness also influence their future citizenship. (quoted in Haberman 1989, p. 773)

The purposes of this fastback are 1) to review the changing demographics of society, schools, and the teaching force; 2) to examine the need for minority teachers and reasons for the decline in the numbers of minorities choosing education as a career; and 3) to suggest some possible solutions to these problems. One possible solution is exemplified in the Urban Teachers Outreach Program (UTOP) currently being implemented in Sheboygan, Wisconsin. I describe how that collaborative effort between Lakeland College and the Sheboygan Area School District has helped minority members of the public schools’ classified staff (mostly teacher aides) earn bachelor’s degrees and teacher certification. The minorities involved in the program are primarily Southeast Asian (mostly Hmong from Laos) and Hispanic.
Changing Demographics

By the year 2000 one out of every three Americans will be a racial minority. Minority group populations in the United States are rapidly and steadily increasing at rates that exceed the growth rate of the majority population (Carnegie Task Force 1986; Haberman 1989; Garibaldi 1986; Snyder 1993; Wilson and Justiz 1988).

Hodgkinson (1992) notes that from 1980 to 1990 the white population decreased by 6%, while the black population increased by 13.2%. During the same period Native Americans, Eskimos, and Aleuts increased 37.9%, Asians or Pacific Islanders increased 107.8%, and Hispanics increased 53%. From 1990 to the year 2010, minorities will increase by 4.4 million, while the white population will decrease by 3.8 million, according to Hodgkinson. And he projects, “After 2020, immigration will become a major source of new human beings for the United States” (p. 110). Already, the once predominantly white, middle-class suburban family that characterized the mainstream American society has gradually changed complexion. “No longer the majority, they have
been replaced by a rainbow of ethnic, socioeconomic, and family backgrounds,” according to Johnson and Walden (1993, p. 1).

Part of the growth in the minority population can be attributed to high birth rates, but immigration is a second major factor. One dramatic effect of a rising minority population is the increase in students who speak little or no English. Esquivel (1990) reports that 5% of American students are limited English proficient (LEP), and that is likely to increase. The 1990 census indicates that one of every seven people in the United States speaks a language other than English. This is a 34% increase since 1980. Wilson and Justiz suggest, “If the influx of Hispanic immigrants continues at current rates, we will have to . . . integrate the second largest wave of immigrants in the nation’s history into our culture” (1988, p. 9).

The effect of these twin demographic trends is evident in the public schools, especially in urban centers. In 1986, the Carnegie Task Force indicated that 23 of the 25 largest U.S. cities had mostly minority students in their public schools. The task force also noted that California had mostly minorities in the first three grades of schools. The percentage of minority students continues to increase; the student population in the nation’s 32 largest school systems is 75% minority (Franklin and Mockwitz 1993, p. 57).

Numerous education analysts are concerned with the large increase in minority students, often specifically because the percentage of minority teachers also has decreased as the student minority populations have in-
creased (Daughtry 1989; Garibaldi 1986; McKay and Gezi 1990; Middleton et al. 1988; Zapata 1988). Declines in the minority teacher ranks were noted in the mid-1980s. Franklin and Mockwitz quote the 1986 Government Relations Committee Survey of Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges: "It was reported that almost 9 of every 10 teachers were white. In 1989, only 13 percent of the nation's elementary and secondary school teachers were minority" (1993, p. 57). During the same time, Haberman (1989) comments, only 1.9% of the teaching force was Hispanic.

And the problem is not going away. Few minorities are choosing education as a career (Haberman 1989; Hodgkinson 1992; Nicklos and Brown 1989; Oakes 1986; Ramirez and Tippeconnic 1979). "Among minority freshmen," writes Opp (1989, p. 44), "the percentage interested in teaching has declined by over three-quarters (from 20.6 percent in 1966 to 4.9 percent in 1988)." McKay and Gezi explain, "Data indicate only 8.1 percent of students seeking teaching certificates are from minority groups" (1990, p. 8).

The percentage of working teachers deciding to make a career change further exacerbates the problem. "In the 1988 Metropolitan Life survey of America's teachers, 41% of minority teachers (but only 25% of majority teachers) said that they are likely to leave teaching within the next five years" (Haberman 1989, p. 773).
The Need for Minority Teachers

The literature is filled with arguments that there is an immediate need for minority teachers in elementary and secondary classrooms (Carnegie Task Force 1986; Education Commission of the States 1990; Garibaldi 1986; Greer and Husk 1989; Tinajero, Gonzales, and Dick 1991). According to Garibaldi, the socioeconomic status of a nation's people correlates with family education. Garibaldi clarifies this point, saying, "Quality schooling for black youth is critically important for general economic and social mobility" (1986, p. 386). In a similar vein, Ramirez and Tippeconnic (1979) suggest that Native American children also must be taught the requisite skills to compete, to excel, and to be self-governing. And these comments can be generalized to all minority groups. This is the background against which the need for minority teachers must be set.

Currently, the minority population makes up the majority of people on the lowest rungs of the socioeconomic ladder. Poverty, high infant mortality, crime, and social despair mark life at this level. According to
the Carnegie Task Force, 93% of the children born into poverty are born to single black and Hispanic women. And as recently as 1992 Hodgkinson reported that, according to current education projections, minorities will continue to be over-represented in low-paying service jobs. Furthermore, says Hodgkinson, “Black men, who make up just 6 percent of the U.S. population, are now 3 percent of college student enrollment and 47 percent of America’s prison population” (1992, p. 3). The overwhelming emotion arising from such statistics is hopelessness.

Garibaldi discusses the theme of a hopeless future for minorities, noting in 1989, “Thirty-one years after the landmark Brown vs. Topeka Board of Education case, which outlawed de jure segregation in public schools, American education faces new crises which are adversely affecting minorities and their hopes for bright futures” (1989, p. 386). Similarly, Attorney Ulice Payne comments, “We [minorities] see a dual class system developing. It becomes very difficult to keep the hope” (quoted in Fauber 1992, p. A10).

It should be clear that in jeopardy are not only the futures of many of today’s minority youth but also the nation’s future. Minority students are over-represented in statistics on at-risk students and secondary school dropouts (Haberman 1989; Johnson and Walden 1993; Ramirez and Tippeconnic 1979; Tinajero, Gonzales, and Dick 1991) and in similar dropout statistics for higher education (Henniger 1989). Trachtenberg comments, “Like it or not, our ability to reach those Americans and to help them become skilled and productive contributors
to the economy will determine our success or failure in the international marketplace” (1990, p. 611). And if minority students in schools do not succeed, then minority enrollment in higher education also is further diminished (Wilson and Justiz 1988). Says Hodgkinson:

The equity issues involve access, through education and jobs, to a middle class status. The result [of a lack of access] is likely to be social tension over the next twenty years based less on race and ethnicity and more on the combination of age, class, and race. (p. 10)

Absent positive minority role models in the schools, many minority students do not see themselves becoming successful. The dearth of minority teachers means that a mostly white teaching force is left to attempt to identify with minority students whose backgrounds often are very different from their own middle-class upbringing. Middle-class white teachers venture into the socioeconomic milieu of their students only for the period when they are at work in schools, and then they return to their middle-class environment. They do not live the lives of their students.

It is imperative for minorities to have minority role models in school. “Minorities,” however, are not a monolith; there is need for teachers who reflect the wide diversity of minorities in the United States. But the need is not for a one-to-one correspondence of minority students to teachers of the same minority group. Rather, the need is focused by representative understanding—that is racial, cultural, and linguistic understanding of minority issues themselves. Says Jones, “Minority chil-
dren need to be served by people who understand their special requirements and can be role models for them” (1987, p. 35). Minority teachers are needed so that minority students can develop psychologically, as well as intellectually and socially (Zapata 1988). But all students — and, in turn, all of society — can benefit from minority role models. As Hodgkinson questioned, "Who will assist new white teachers in discovering what their diverse students are like?” (1992, p. 9).

Reasons for the Decline in Minority Teachers

Given the pressing need for minority teachers, the question must be asked, Why are fewer minority individuals choosing education careers? There are myriad answers.

For one, many minority students do not consider teaching as a viable career choice because they lack minority teacher role models. Thus they cannot envision themselves in the teaching ranks. But what they do see in their own teachers — majority or minority — does not paint a favorable picture of the profession. Today’s students undoubtedly notice their teachers’ job satisfaction — or dissatisfaction. Poor working conditions and low status combine to make many students think twice before deciding that teaching is a career choice worth making (Thieme 1976). When teaching is compared to other white-collar professions, low salaries, poor working conditions, and high entrance standards argue for choosing other careers for those students who
are capable and successful (Wilson and Justiz 1988; Middleton et al. 1988).

In 1987 Ginsberg and colleagues suggested six stressors that cause students not to enter teaching and cause practicing teachers to leave the profession. No evidence suggests that these stressors have been ameliorated in the past decade. In some cases condition have worsened. Stressors include:

- Governance/leadership: Building and central office leadership and boards of education are too regulatory, and decision-making is not shared.
- Budget: Cuts in supplies, materials, and support staff result from inadequate budgets, which also make for shabby equipment and decrepit buildings.
- Security: Problems include physical assaults, vandalism, and theft in addition to low job security and little upward mobility.
- Student issues: Teachers face physical violence and disrespect from students, as well as poor achievement and negative attitudes.
- Staff relations: Many teachers have only limited opportunities for professional and social interaction with colleagues.
- Lack of respect and barriers to teaching: Teachers feel that they get little respect from students, parents, administrators, and the general public; and they often get saddled with menial work and clerical or nonteaching duties, such as filling out mandatory paperwork, monitoring halls, and supervising recess.
Related to this point are issues in what teachers actually do, as seen from the minority viewpoint. Oakes (1986) questions equity and equality in the K-12 curricula, criticizing school officials because equality programs simply are not working. This point is corroborated by de la Luz Reyes and Molner (1991). Equal education is not truly equal. Many students are tracked at an early age, and white students are disproportionately tracked in the higher-level classes, minorities in the lower-level classes. Teaching methods, pedagogy, levels of thinking skills, content, materials, and discipline differ according to which track the student enters. Higher expectations, better quality instruction and materials, and fewer discipline problems in the higher tracks ensure higher student success. In many cases, minorities and white students in the lower tracks are taught less effectively; they tend to be prepared only for low-level jobs and have a greater risk of dropping out of school. Would-be minority teachers, bearing witness to this pattern of inequity that is perpetuated in many schools, are further discouraged from entering the profession.

Where once teaching was viewed as one of the few ways for minorities to get ahead professionally, other careers are now more reliable options (Alston, Jackson, and Pressman 1989; Daughtry 1989; Garibaldi 1989; Opp 1989). “Expanded employment opportunities for minorities and women is no doubt a primary factor in the waning interest of females and blacks in teaching” (Greer and Husk 1989, p. 10). In fact, private industry has taken advantage of this and actively recruits minorities using incentives and better working conditions
as inducements (Darling-Hammond 1984; Henniger 1989; Sedlack and Schlossman 1986).

I return to the need for minority role models in another way. Many minority youth also suffer from a school curriculum that does not match their experience — a curriculum that might be altered were more minority teachers present to better represent the needs of minority youth. Many minority students do not see education as a reasonable career choice because their own schooling reflects a “lack of relevance of curriculum” (Wilson and Justiz 1988, p. 14). These writers, and Oakes (1986), further suggest that inner-city schools, where most minority youth receive their education, have generally poorer quality curriculum, equipment, materials, and instruction than the suburban schools of their majority counterparts. This disparity hurts minority students’ chances to be prepared for the rigors of higher education.

Lack of relevant curriculum also contributes to another, “preemptive” problem: the high minority student dropout rate (Daughtry 1989). Many minority students drop out of school before graduation, which further shrinks the pool from which colleges might draw students into teacher preparation.

High college entrance standards are another reason some minorities are not able to make teaching a career choice (Middleton et al. 1988). A disproportionate number of minority students score poorly on standardized competency tests, and thus limit the pool of possible teacher candidates (Daughtry 1989; Garcia 1986; Mercer 1984; Oakes 1986; Zapata 1988). Wilson and Justiz (1988)
suggest that too much emphasis is placed on these tests. Similarly, standardized teacher competency tests have limited the number of teacher candidates (Franklin and Mockwitz 1993; Greer and Husk 1989; Nicklos and Brown 1989).

Some studies also note that financial assistance for minority students has been severely cut back over the last decade (Esquivel 1990; Henniger 1989; Vanden Brook 1993; Zapata 1988). Wilson and Justiz (1988) specifically blame the Reagan Administration of the 1980s for cutting financial aid and failing to support federal mandates.

Institutions of higher education have themselves unwittingly become a barrier to the recruitment and retention of minority students. Zapata (1988) states that many minority young adults are concerned that they will not be accepted by “mainstream” students or by faculty and administration. Linton (1991) also indicates that universities have become highly bureaucratic, which intimidates minority students because they have little background in dealing effectively with bureaucracies. Even the offices that universities have established to ameliorate such problems have become suspect. Like an internal auditor’s office, affirmative action offices have become bureaucratic and detached from the institutions they aim to serve. Recent moves to dismantle affirmative action have exacerbated this problem.

Wilson and Justiz (1988) contend that the college environment is a major reason that minority students do not enroll in institutions of higher learning or, if already enrolled, leave before graduation. These authors assert
that racial tensions on the nation’s college campuses have caused concerns for some would-be scholars. This issue can be validated every school year, as newspapers report continued racial disharmony on campuses across the nation.

All of these reasons for the decline in minority teachers can be addressed. None presents an insurmountable problem. Rather, they are problems seeking honest solutions, and such solutions can be found through care and creativity. I am not about to suggest that schools can solve the world’s problems single-handedly. But educators can take steps to change matters within their purview.
Solving the Problem: Some Possibilities

In 1990 the Education Commission of the States asserted, "School boards and district and school leaders should acknowledge the importance of having a multicultural teaching force and foster the environment necessary to achieve one. They should set a goal of obtaining a multicultural teaching force" (1990, p. 19). Clearly, in order to solve the minority teacher shortage, administrators at all levels of education must be committed to enlarging the diversity of the teacher workforce. One key factor in the commitment to solve the problems of minority recruitment, whether into college or into the teaching force, is the active involvement of minority individuals in making decisions and policies (Franklin and Mockwitz 1993; Menter 1988; Ramirez and Tippeconnic 1979).

School Partnerships

A number of suggestions have been put forward at the school level. McKay and Gezi (1990), for example,
believe that school districts should offer jobs to minorities immediately on successful completion of teacher certification programs. Nicklos and Brown (1989) describe a program in the Pittsburgh Public Schools, the Task Force on Minority Recruitment, which guarantees jobs to qualified minority candidates who successfully complete this "grow your own" program. The Pittsburgh program also requires that at least one minority candidate be interviewed for every teacher vacancy in the district.

Only so much can be done at only the school level. Many schools feel as though their hands are tied without a matching commitment from federal and state education leaders. The need for government support is substantiated by several authors (Alston et al. 1989; Esquivel 1990; Wilson and Justiz 1988). Alston and colleagues write, "The most important initial step a state can take is to study teacher supply and demand taking into account the race and ethnicity of the current and projected teaching force" (p. 18). These same authors go on to suggest that intrastate task forces be developed in order to share ideas.

Another suggestion has been private sector involvement. The Carnegie Forum and Holmes Group indicate a need for private sector partnerships (Jones 1987). This sentiment is shared by other analysts (Greer and Husk 1989; Henniger 1989; McKay and Gezi 1990; Nicklos and Brown 1989). Ramirez and Tippeconnic (1979) also suggest that recruitment efforts can be assisted if the local community is involved, for example, by providing cultural activities.
Other studies suggest that school districts and colleges form consortia or task forces with the state, local agencies, and businesses (Alston et al. 1989; Education Commission of the States 1990; Middleton et al. 1988). Anderson (1989) indicates a need for collaborative efforts among schools, businesses, and, in particular, community (two-year) colleges to pursue a variety of recruitment strategies.

There also is support in a number of locales for school districts to work in tandem with local colleges and universities in order to recruit and train potential teachers from within a districts' own paraprofessional workforce (Education Commission of the States 1990; McKay and Gezi 1990; Ramirez and Tippeconnic 1979).

Higher Education Initiatives

The literature is replete with evidence that a strong commitment must be made by college and university leadership in order to solve the problem. Higher education must tackle the issue of low numbers of minority students entering teacher education programs (Alston et al. 1989; Esquivel 1990; Garibaldi 1989; Henniger 1989; Wilson and Justiz 1988). Henniger further suggests that college administrations should provide financial support to recruitment efforts. And McKay and Gezi expand this general notion by stating that college administrators should "[d]evelop detailed long- and short-term goals and targets for recruitment and retention of minority students and faculty with timetables for completion" (p. 10).
Colleges and universities also must take a leadership role in establishing cooperative efforts to help bring minorities into the teaching profession (McKay and Gezi 1990; Menter 1988; Wilson and Justiz 1988). While schools can assist, the real focus is college entrance and completion. According to Daughtry (1989), the purpose of these collaborative efforts should be to provide counseling related to minority concerns about financing a college education, tackling academic work, and dealing with personal issues. Ramirez and Tippeconnic (1979) also detail the responsibilities of various parties in such collaborations. For example, the federal government should provide financial resources for programs, the states should provide certification (and modifications, if necessary), and the colleges should provide for the training in a multicultural environment. In addition, school-districts and local colleges need to work together in order to continually evaluate program effectiveness.

Some studies indicate a need for special collaborations between school districts, community colleges, and four-year colleges. The Education Commission of the States (1990) explains, for example, that college freshmen should receive early classroom experience in their local school districts. Daughtry (1989) believes that colleges and school districts should work together so that minority students can be hired as teachers immediately on graduation. He also believes that four-year colleges should recruit minority students directly into education majors and should recruit education students from other majors within the institution as well as from community colleges.
Still others claim that there is a real need for a special relationship between two- and four-year institutions, because many minority students begin their work in higher education at the community college level (Alston et al. 1989; Greer and Husk 1989). Henniger (1989) believes that this collaboration should be done so that minority students can make a smoother transition from high school to college. Henniger also identifies two other issues that colleges and universities need to address when recruiting minority students. First, universities should provide support for minority students, as they do for athletes. Second, colleges and universities should use a variety of recruitment strategies because different minority groups have different needs.

**Multicultural Curriculum**

A factor that can enhance minority recruitment is multicultural sensitivity on several fronts. First of all, minority individuals need to be able to see themselves in the curriculum at all levels. This is a shared responsibility of schools and colleges (Jones 1987; Menter 1988; Ramirez and Tippeconnic 1979; Tinajero et al. 1991).

At the college level in particular, the curriculum needs to be updated to broaden cultural awareness and inclusion of multicultural perspectives. But awareness is just part of the effort that needs to be made. “The problem for university staff is to provide information so it is less alien, so it can be absorbed into the education of life schema the students presently possess” (Linton 1991, p. 5). Nettles suggests that faculty members at institutions of higher learning be encouraged to:
adopt nontraditional teaching styles. Inasmuch as nontraditional teaching styles contribute to student learning and performance, they should be encouraged. Additionally, in recognition of greater attendance of Black students in college... faculty members should attempt to include minority perspectives in the course content and experiences whenever possible and appropriate. (1982, p. 74)

Nettles' reasoning extends to all minority students, not just to black students.

Coupled with multicultural sensitivity in the curriculum is the need for staff training to increase general awareness of cultural issues. This need also is multifaceted. School teachers and administrators and college professors need to be more aware of cultural issues in order to foster a more open climate for minority individuals. But such cultural awareness training also will enhance minority teachers' job satisfaction, whether they teach in a high school or a college, which will assist in retaining qualified minority professionals (McKay and Gezi 1990; Menter 1988; Middleton et al. 1988; Wilson and Justiz 1988).

**Minority Students and Standardized Tests**

Minority students traditionally have scored low on standardized tests. At the secondary school level there are several ways to tackle this problem, including providing encouragement, counseling, and special preparation through classes and workshops. Staff need to be trained in how to teach students effective test-taking
skills and how to conduct remedial classes for students whose skills are underdeveloped (Daughtry 1989; McKay and Gezi 1990).

Garibaldi (1986) and McKay and Gezi (1990) also suggest that alternatives to standardized tests be considered, especially for college entrance decisions. Mercer (1984) suggests that such alternatives might include: students' past accomplishments, leadership experiences, extracurricular involvement, study habits, high school curriculum, attitudes and perceptions, and employment history. Mercer describes a couple of options. One is the Ford Foundation's "value-added model" for college entrance: "A value-added admission system is one in which students are admitted and evaluated on the basis of their potential for learning and growth rather than on their past achievements as indicated by grades and test scores" (p. 28).

Mercer also describes a "competencies assessment/mastery model," in which students are given a series of exercises to assess certain teacher competencies, such as leadership, sensitivity, oral and written communication, organizing and planning, perception and analytical skills, decision making, and flexibility and adaptability.

Once a student has been accepted into an undergraduate degree program, he or she still may need assistance to be successful on future standardized tests. Alston and colleagues (1989), for example, specifically suggest that minority students be given assistance in preparing for the National Teacher Exam, which in many states has become the gateway exam for teacher certification. But just as alternative routes to college entrance might be encouraged,
so too might alternative routes to teacher certification answer some of the problems of recruiting minorities into teaching. For example, in the Pittsburgh schools’ program I mentioned earlier, more weight is given to student teaching experiences than to standardized test scores.

**Minority Students and Mentors**

The strategy for helping high school minority students that is most often addressed in the literature is the use of mentors. McKay and Gezi (1990) suggest that both staff and minority alumni may serve as mentors for such students. Jones (1987) describes a program in San Antonio, Texas, that helps potential dropouts serve as tutors for other students and thereby encourages them to study and succeed as well.

Other authors indicate that minority college students also need to have mentors. Daughtry (1989), for example, mentions some possibilities: minority peer advisors and school district teachers who serve as advisors for college students. Daughtry further suggests that colleges hire more minority professors who could then double as mentors for minority students.

There is a great deal of support in the literature for school districts to “grow” their own minority teaching force, a concept that extends the idea of mentoring. In other words, a local school system might work within its own community to recruit potential teachers. Several authors have suggested that schools begin identifying and preparing minority students for future teaching careers as early as junior high or middle school. Some writ-
ers discuss the need to develop tomorrow's educators in high school through future teacher clubs* (Education Commission of the States 1990; Franklin and Mockwitz 1993; Garibaldi 1986; Greer and Husk 1989; McKay and Gezi 1990).

McKay and Gezi further suggest that high schools offer work-study programs in education and allow students to take education courses while in high school, receive college credit, and even get classroom experience. This type of approach also extends the cooperative-initiatives notion that links schools and higher education institutions. An additional role that colleges can play is one of organizing recruitment fairs for local school districts (Garibaldi 1986).

In the chapter that follows I describe a program that integrates a number of the above strategies.

*Phi Delta Kappa International now serves as the umbrella organization for Future Educators of America (FEA). Information about starting an FEA chapter or club can be obtained by called 1-800-766-1156 or writing to PDK at P.O. Box 789, Bloomington, IN 47402-0789.
The Lakeland College Urban Teachers Outreach Program

The Sheboygan, Wisconsin, schools and Lakeland College set out to develop a program to address the area's need for more minority teachers. Their idea was to "grow" their own minority teacher force. What they developed was the Urban Teachers Outreach Program (UTOP). Although this program has been only partially successful, the experience may serve to guide other localities in developing tailored minority recruitment programs.

The Setting

Sheboygan, Wisconsin, is located midway between Milwaukee and Green Bay on the Lake Michigan shore. It is a community of 50,000 with slightly more than 10,000 elementary and secondary students who attend Sheboygan Area School District (SASD) schools. The district maintains one early childhood school, 12 elementary schools, three middle schools, and two high schools.
About 21% of the SASD student population is minority, primarily Southeast Asian and, to a lesser extent, Hispanic. The Southeast Asian population of Sheboygan consists mostly of Hmong refugees and immigrants from Laos who were displaced after supporting the United States in the Vietnam War. The greatest influx arrived during the 1980s.

The minority student population is fairly representative in terms of percentage to that of other communities the size of Sheboygan, but the teaching staff is less than 1% minority. However, the district employs a fairly large number of minority paraprofessionals (teacher aides and secretaries). Most of the teacher aides work in either bilingual or English-as-a-second-language classrooms.

Lakeland College is a small (slightly more than 3,000 students) private, liberal arts college in rural Sheboygan County. The college has built sister colleges in Japan and Estonia. It serves as the cooperating institution of higher learning for the Urban Teachers Outreach Program and operates a similar program in Milwaukee. That program, however, works with minority students who have already earned a college degree and are returning to college for teacher certification. The UTOP in Sheboygan focuses on recruiting minorities into teaching, beginning with the attainment of a baccalaureate degree.

**Beginning the Urban Teachers Outreach Program**

In the late 1980s and early 1990s concern surfaced over the lack of cultural role models for the minority
students in Sheboygan. There also was concern that white students did not see minority individuals in positions of influence and leadership. Few minority members in the community had attained a college degree.

These conditions convinced officials at Lakeland College that a “grow your own” program would benefit local schools. An initial meeting of minds took place with officials at Lakeland College in November 1992. A series of contacts followed, including a meeting in January 1993 with prospective students to ascertain their interest. Then, during the spring of 1993 a major meeting was arranged with administrators from the Sheboygan Area School District, the Manitowoc Public School District (about 30 miles north of Sheboygan), and Lakeland College and prospective minority students who were then working in nonprofessional jobs in the two communities. The purposes of this meeting were to answer questions and to provide support, but the gathering also served as a time for the various entities to make commitments. Lakeland College committed to maintaining the UTOP, including the provision of financial support, until all of the students graduated. The school districts promised a place to the UTOP students for their student teaching experience and pledged, at minimum, to interview each candidate for a teaching position on successful completion of the program.

Funds to carry out the program came mostly through federal Pell grants, but Lakeland College agreed to pay all remaining costs. Tuition was covered entirely, but students were to pay for their own textbooks. After the program began, a national corporate sponsor with local ties donated $10,000 to the UTOP.
The Students

Twenty-eight students enrolled for the program: four Hispanic and 24 Southeast Asian, mostly Hmong. About two-thirds of the students came from the Sheboygan area, the others from the Manitowoc area. About half were employed in one of the school districts, the other half were employed elsewhere in the communities.

All of the students took the math, reading, and writing placement tests required of all Lakeland students for entrance into the college. These tests indicate whether students need remediation before enrolling in general studies courses. Not all of the students needed remediation. However, they all decided to enroll in these courses during the summer of 1993, saying that they would feel more comfortable in college after obtaining a stronger background in reading, writing, and math.

Challenges and Changes

The UTOP had been designed as a cohort activity. In other words, all of the UTOP students would enroll in the same classes and move through the entire program together. Classes would be offered during the summer and in the evenings during the school year, which would allow the students (mostly school district employees) to continue their employment. The program got off to a successful start, but some challenges soon presented themselves.

One of the first challenges was dealing with several different administrators, a result of various administrative realignments. Eventually the UTOP was placed
under the purview of the college’s lifelong learning program. This meant that the UTOP students would no longer function as a cohort. Soon the UTOP students were taking classes with other students pursuing bachelor’s degrees.

For the most part, this change was helpful. The students in the UTOP cohort had various needs, which could be better met by dealing with them as individuals, rather than as a group. Being in the lifelong learning program also meant that the minority students could move forward at their own pace. And the transition into the lifelong learning program gave UTOP students choices for an academic minor. Had the UTOP continued as a cohort, logistics would have allowed for only one academic minor. The students appreciated the opportunity to choose.

The placement of UTOP students in the college mainstream also enhanced the credibility of the program, because the minority students were now seen to be treated like all other Lakeland students. A further advantage of being in the mainstream was that the minority students could learn cooperatively from their majority peers, which enhanced the learning experience for all of the students, majority and minority alike.

On the other hand, some students became isolated in the mainstream, failed classes, and needed more remediation. Many of these problems stemmed from limited English proficiency, which we will discuss further in a moment. But some of these problems arose simply because moving out of the cohort meant moving out of a “comfort zone” that was instrumental to their success.
Other problems resulted from teachers’ lack of accommodation of minority students’ differences in background, learning styles, and so on.

Because the UTOP is a part-time program, it has yet to run its full course. Twelve of the original 24 students are continuing in the program. All four Hispanic students have dropped out, but one is contemplating returning to the program. The students left for various reasons. A couple of students moved out of the area. (One has enrolled in a teacher certification program elsewhere.) A few students are continuing their college education but have changed majors and no longer plan to teach. Several have left the program because they continue to struggle with English proficiency.

Happily, the first student graduated in June 1998, and a couple of others are expected to graduate by December 1998 or June 1999. The remaining students’ progress has been slowed by the challenge of passing the Pre-Professional Skills Test, a problem that we will describe in a moment.

**Lessons Learned**

Although they share certain characteristics with other immigrant groups, in some ways the Hmong are unique. The majority of the Hmong were forced to move to the United States after living in refugee camps after the Vietnam War. Prior to that experience they lived mostly in rural hilltop villages, where the main occupation was farming. Formal education was rare in such villages; and later, during the refugee camp experience,
most children received little schooling. When these individuals came to the United States, they knew little, if any, English when they entered the public schools. Most of the students attended English-as-a-second-language classes for a number of years.

Consequently the Hmong students in the UTOP did not feel that they had a strong command of English, even though most seemed to have developed reasonably effective “school skills.” Most felt particularly anxious in testing situations, the first being the entrance tests for Lakeland College. Later, the students had an additional testing concern, because Wisconsin requires that all students pass the national Pre-Professional Skills Test (PPST) before being officially admitted to teacher education. (At this writing, two of the students have passed the PPST and are enrolled in methods coursework. The other students have taken additional courses in English and seminars designed to prepare them to pass the PPST.)

Some students undoubtedly have been hampered by misconceptions held by teachers and administrators. The stereotype of the Asian “super student” holds true only for certain individuals, in particular those — such as many Japanese students — who have had rigorous schooling in their own country prior to arriving in the United States. de la Luz Reyes and Molner point out:

The myth of Asian students’ invariable success is especially untrue for the second and third waves of Asian immigrants to the U.S. from war-torn countries who may have considerable gaps in their education. (1991, p. 96)
At the same time, many students have indicated appreciation for various types of support, including financial and academic support. The students unanimously indicated that they would not have been able to afford college tuition and therefore would have been unable to attend college without the financial assistance provided by the Pell grants and Lakeland College.

But perhaps moral support has been the most valuable. When asked about the kinds of support they received and most valued, all but one student said that family support was the most important. In particular, the students expressed appreciation for their parents’ support, saying that their parents reinforced the notion that education is the key to “making it in America.” In addition, all four Hispanic students mentioned the church as an important source of moral support.

Mentors also were singled out by the students for praise. In fact, the students believed that their mentors were essential for them to remain in the program. Interestingly, neither the college nor the school districts had designated “official” mentors. Each of the students sought the assistance of a co-worker or colleague to serve as an informal mentor. These mentors typically were teachers with whom the UTOP students worked on a daily basis in the public schools. The mentors provided encouragement, proofread and edited students’ papers, and gave the students advice about teaching.

**Implications for Replication**

The Urban Teachers Outreach Program has proved to be a worthwhile project, albeit not without significant
flaws. Course corrections along the way are helping those students who remain in the program to move toward eventual success. School districts and institutions of higher education that wish to explore the development of a similar type of program might consider the following implications before attempting replication.

Finances. For many minority students, having enough money to attend college is a problem. Even though the college took care of tuition costs and scheduled classes so that students could continue their employment, personal finances were a challenge. Many students in the UTOP indicated that paying for textbooks still was a major expense and financial challenge for them. Therefore, greater attention should be given to the financial situations of individual students, who may be struggling to support themselves and their families while they attend college.

Mentors. Assistance for students must be more than financial. Moral and practical support is essential for success. All of the UTOP students indicate that having a mentor is a key. Rather than relying on students to seek out their own mentors, it would be helpful for the school and the college to collaborate in developing a formal mentor program. Had the UTOP done so, some of the students who left the program might have found the resources to remain active.

Course Correction. One highly successful aspect of the UTOP has been ongoing meetings to correct the course of the program from time to time. Students, professors, college administrators, and school administrators meet once a semester in order to determine program strengths
and weaknesses. Strategies are then developed to address any problems.

*Expansion.* To some extent the UTOP is limited by the small number of students involved. Minority individuals who are not already working in the schools as paraprofessionals also might be involved to enlarge the potential minority teacher pool.

*Family Involvement.* Students' families are the number-one source of support and might be made to feel more involved in the UTOP to enhance students' feelings of support and commitment. Regular gatherings of students' families, both on and off campus, might help to make minority students feel more a part of the academic community and might help majority students become better acquainted with the minority students, their cultures, and the challenges they face as students.

*Cultural Awareness.* A few students in the UTOP expressed concern about the level of cultural awareness among their professors. Clearly, in embarking on a minority teacher education program there is a need for inservice training in cultural diversity. Such training would correct stereotypical views and inform instructors about the learning background of the minority students, many of whom will be quite different from the students they normally teach.

*Intensive English.* The majority of the UTOP students voiced concern about their level of English proficiency. Greater care must be taken to assess English proficiency and then, for those who need it, to provide intensive training in English both before and during coursework in which a high level of English proficiency will be essential for academic success.
Testing. Standardized tests simply are unfair to minority students in most cases. Alternatives to testing need to be explored. And, if standardized tests are used, they should be only one of several criteria used to determine placement or certification or to make other important decisions that will affect students' futures. Also, if tests are used, a time allowance should be considered for students whose first language is not English. None of the UTOP students completed standardized tests in the required time; all needed additional time in which to mentally translate the tests from English into their own language in order to respond.

This last point cannot be overemphasized. All of the UTOP students worry about the PPST. At a very minimum, the PPST should be only one of several indicators of academic proficiency. Gateway exams of this type serve only to bar otherwise qualified individuals, largely because of the tests' English-only bias. The UTOP students recognize that they will need to demonstrate thorough proficiency, both written and oral, in English; but a standardized test is not the only way to measure such proficiency.

These eight areas of concern must be addressed in developing “grow your own” minority teacher recruitment programs. Many minority individuals in communities across the nation already serve as role models, whether they work in local businesses or as teacher aides or office clerks in schools. Many are intelligent, motivated individuals who would be excellent teachers — if only a program existed that would address their needs for college funds, for greater proficiency in English, and so on.
Programs such as the Urban Teachers Outreach Program are a step toward solving the minority teacher shortage.
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Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation

The Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation was established on 13 October 1966 with the signing, by Dr. George H. Reavis, of the irrevocable trust agreement creating the Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation Trust.

George H. Reavis (1883-1970) entered the education profession after graduating from Warrensburg Missouri State Teachers College in 1906 and the University of Missouri in 1911. He went on to earn an M.A. and a Ph.D. at Columbia University. Dr. Reavis served as Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Maryland and Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences and the School of Education at the University of Pittsburgh. In 1929 he was appointed director of instruction for the Ohio State Department of Education. But it was as assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction in the Cincinnati public schools (1939-48) that he rose to national prominence.

Dr. Reavis' dream for the Educational Foundation was to make it possible for educators to write and publish the wisdom they acquired through professional activity. He wanted educators and the general public to "better understand the nature of the educative process and the relation of education to human welfare."

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