

Success in High-Need Schools Journal

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Introduction

Volume 2, Issue 2 of the *Journal for Success* explores successful practices in addressing the critical need to recruit a larger, more diverse corps of highly qualified teachers for high-need schools and then to improve the dismal teacher retention rate. In many high-need schools more than 50 percent of first-year teachers leave teaching or transfer to another school after their first year.

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Publisher's Column, by Jan Fitzsimmons, Ph.D.

In this issue of *ACI's Success in High-Need Schools*, we examine the way we recruit candidates to teach in high-need schools as well as our approach to teacher retention. With an aging teacher force, high teacher turnover, and teacher shortages across the nation, it's clear that recruitment and retention are critical issues. This is especially true in high-need schools, where budget constraints make it difficult to support a top-notch teaching staff.

Using a three-part questionnaire, **Anne George** (Pre-Service Teachers' Motivations for Becoming Teachers) examines the motivations and expectations reported by pre-service candidates as they prepare to be teachers. While many candidates indicate a willingness to work with children from "disadvantaged backgrounds," they seem unwilling to work with inattentive, disruptive or low-achieving students. George questions whether these candidates have realistic expectations, not only for teaching in high-need schools, but for the teaching profession as a whole. She also looks at differences in candidates' expectations by gender, race, and ethnicity.

Many have argued the need for recruiting more male and minority candidates to a profession that George's sample demonstrates is primarily white and female. **Victoria Chou** (Diversity in Teaching Corps) suggests that a more productive question might be, "What would it take for white teachers to be effective for African American and Hispanic children and to motivate them to seek out such positions in the first place?"

Work at ACI's *Center for Success in High-Need Schools* repeatedly shows the promise of early and ongoing experiences in which candidates interact directly with children in high-need schools. These experiences, which I call "try-on teaching," engage candidates in thinking about teaching in high-need schools and in developing understanding of cultural competencies and effective teaching. Of course, teacher candidates already have decided to teach. What motivates high school students to want to become teachers at high-need schools? Our experience with students at these schools has shown us that they seldom think of teaching as a career option – let alone, teaching at high-need schools.

ACI's *Center* is just embarking on building a Teacher Ambassador Corps (TAC), composed of enthusiastic beginning and master teachers, nominated by their colleges and universities for teaching excellence, and who are just as passionate about bringing others into the profession as they are about teaching. TAC members will develop their unique stories about teaching and talk to groups of high school students, community college students, paraprofessional, and/ or career changers about the value of a teaching career. TAC members will be equipped with information about a variety of paths and resources available to the best and brightest who might be interested in teaching. Along with early opportunities for "try-on teaching," TAC holds promise as a successful strategy for recruiting an excellent and diverse group of candidates to teach our neediest students.

Retention is as important as recruitment, and, in this issue, **Lee and Radner** (It Takes a School to Raise a Teacher) describe a unique program developed at DePaul University in which career changers and individuals returning from the Peace Corps were prepared to teach in hard-to-staff schools with amazing results. While Teach for America lost an average of 80% of its Houston, Texas, teachers after just two years, DePaul's Urban Teacher Corp showed 95.2% retention after three consecutive years. The authors speak of "embedding teacher preparation in schools" as a strategy that both contributes to the schools' progress and prepares teachers "who will stay to contribute to children's futures." The authors note that, in addition to this idea, what typified the preparation of these cohorts were "the mentoring support, the sustained site-based field engagement, and the interconnection of theory and practical courses to the real world of teaching."

Finally, **Servais and Sanders** (Principal Performance in High-Need Schools) relate the issue of retention to the kind of school leaders we recruit, prepare, and retain. Just as these developmental stages are critical to teacher evolution, so, too, are they important to the effectiveness of school principals whose actions create environments that attract and retain excellent teachers. Servais and Sanders make a case for “preparing school administrators to construct meaning from multiple perspectives in diverse educational settings like those in which they will lead,” and they emphasize the importance of induction and mentoring for principals.

Recognizing the critical role administrators play in retaining teachers, ACI’s *Center for Success in High-Need Schools* launched the *Principals’ Forum* this spring. This forum is designed to bring principals from across the state together to talk about the ways in which we build schools as communities of learners and create a culture to which talented teachers return year after year to make a difference in the lives of young people.

In this issue, the conversation spans the spectrum from recruitment to retention of excellent teachers for high-need schools. Excellent teachers are the primary catalysts for closing the achievement gap. Principals navigate the waters to create the kind of schools that attract and retain those teachers. Knowing this, if we are to live the mantra of No Child Left Behind, we must act on what we know, examine the results of what we do, make the necessary changes, and open the doors for student success. School is about to begin, and children are waiting and watching to see whether we will get it right.

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Motivational Factors in Urban Teacher Retention, *by Nancy Kennedy, Jeanette Mines and Mary Selke*

Author Bios

Nancy Kennedy is an Assistant Professor of Education and Department Chair of Elementary Education in the College of Education at Lewis University in Romeoville, Illinois. Her interest in teacher retention stems from her former career as an elementary principal in an urban setting. Kennedy's research interests include implications of teacher remediation and the impact that poor teachers have on both student success and the success of the school communities in which they teach.

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Mary Selke is a Professor of Education and Associate Dean of the College of Education at Lewis University in Romeoville, Illinois. Her interest in professional mentoring, induction, and teacher retention dates from her master's work in the 1980s. This interest has continued to expand through Selke's involvement in projects of the Associated Colleges of Illinois' *Center for Success in High-Need Schools*. Selke's other research interests include the implications of teacher testing and cohort culture.

Abstract

High-need public schools in the United States experience a teacher attrition rate of approximately 20% annually (Ingersoll, 2001). This alarming statistic suggests a critical need for focusing on teacher *retention* with the same vigor traditionally reserved for teacher *recruitment*. Factors influencing the decision to leave teaching are analyzed through the dual lens of the professional knowledge base and Herzberg's theory of motivation. To reverse the trend, education professionals must be encouraged to collaborate.

The authors explore Herzberg's theories of motivation to suggest that working conditions, achievement, and recognition may be more important in teacher causing teacher attrition than environmental factors so often cited in high-need schools.

Introduction

The annual teacher attrition rate in high-need schools is approximately 20% (Ingersoll, 2001). This alarming statistic suggests that focusing on recruiting new teachers without devoting equal resources to teacher retention makes about as much sense as attempting to refill a sink without closing the drain.

What motivates some teachers to remain in the profession and others to leave? Herzberg's work in the area of employee motivation (1989) suggests that what makes workers dissatisfied is not the opposite of what satisfies them. He identifies two types of factors that have an impact upon motivation: motivators and hygienes.

Motivators are factors that lead to satisfaction. They usually are inherent features of the work and can be considered intrinsic in nature. Motivators foster a sense of challenge and increased responsibility, which is likely to increase personal and professional development, while fostering psychological growth. Examples include work experiences that are fulfilling or involve personal achievement, recognition for accomplishments, responsibility for project completion, and opportunities for advancement.

Hygienes are factors that do not lead directly to satisfaction. They rarely cause enough of an impact to make an

employee leave a position, but they may affect motivation. Hygienes usually are extrinsic factors that involve the context or environment in which work takes place. Examples include supervision style, interpersonal relationships, financial incentives, self-perceived job status, and job or personal security issues.

What are the top factors determining the decision whether to remain in the teaching profession or leave the classroom? The University of California-Los Angeles (UCLA) instituted the Center X Teacher Education Program almost a decade ago to expand the diverse population of teachers who received master's degrees from academically rigorous institutions in programs that prepare candidates to teach in high-needs schools in Los Angeles (Quartz, Lyons, Masyn, Olsen, Anderson, Thomas, Goode, & Horng, 2004). More than 1,000 teachers will have completed the program by summer 2006. Part of the program's evaluation system involves tracking the professional lives of its graduates for ten years after graduation.

Factors most frequently cited by program graduates who chose to leave teaching included overly large classes, inadequate facilities and space, and not enough textbooks. These all are work-related factors that impinge on the ability to achieve what they set out to accomplish with students and to assume full responsibility for their work relatively independent of non-student factors beyond their control. Teachers who remained in teaching but moved out of high-need environments cited safety issues, insufficient resources and materials, and rundown facilities as their primary reasons for changing schools and districts. All but the first factor are considered work-related rather than environmental considerations. Overall, working conditions were found to be more important than student-related issues and characteristics. In fact, the latter did not even make it into the list of top considerations in decisions to leave teaching in urban schools.

Induction and Mentoring

Teacher induction programs that emphasize mentoring can augment the abilities of beginning teachers to deal effectively with the inherent challenges of the profession. Comprehensive induction programs are beneficial for many reasons. They provide contextualized professional development opportunities designed to further the development of a beginning teacher's skills, which can only benefit the students with whom the teacher works. Perhaps even more fundamentally, comprehensive induction programs provide myriad opportunities for lending support to new teachers.

The stronger a beginning teacher's perception of support, the more likely he or she is to remain in teaching. A landmark study of the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater's teacher induction program (Varah, Theune, & Parker, 1986) found that 100% of the beginning teachers in the induction program remained in teaching the second year as compared to 83% of the control group. Only 25% of the control group expressed the intention to remain in teaching for more than five years as compared to 75% of the teachers in the induction program.

As the field of new teacher induction has grown, and an increasing number of states offer or mandate induction programs, large-scale studies continue to emphasize the benefits of induction programs. National reports by the American Federation of Teachers (AFT, 2000) and the National Education Association (NEA, 2000) identify induction programs as critical to supporting new teachers so that they achieve higher levels of comfort and competence more quickly.

On a regional level, a report from the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (Hare & Heap, 2001) affirms the benefits of induction for retaining teachers at schools in the Midwest. The bottom line: Teacher induction programs have a strong, positive impact on beginning teachers' efficacy, competence, and the likelihood of retention in the profession.

Mentoring is one of the most critical components of induction programs. One study (Selke, 1992) of a sample of

beginning teachers, who were from urban, suburban, and rural schools and who graduated from a public university in the midwest, found that only one of the 39 teachers who were assigned a trained mentor as part of an induction program left teaching after the first year. By contrast, a third of the nine teachers who found a non-trained mentor on their own left the profession; the two beginning teachers who had no mentor at all left at the end of the first year.

A meta-analysis of ten studies addressing the direct impact of mentoring on the factor of teacher retention (Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004) likewise indicated that teacher mentoring programs do have a positive impact, not only on teachers' work lives, but also on their retention in the teaching profession. The research suggests that mentors need to be selected carefully for their teaching expertise, must possess a theoretical knowledge and the practical skills of mentoring, and be committed to the role of professional mentor (Ganser, 1998, 1999; Gilbert, 2005; Moir & Gless, 2001; Odell & Huling, 2000; Quinn & Andrews, 2004).

The formalized mentoring programs, which exploded onto the educational scene in the 1980s, (Feiman-Nemser, 1996) now are being transformed by technological developments. As society has begun to rely more heavily on communication technology, virtual mentoring, also known as "E-mentoring," "telementoring," and "online mentoring" (Kirk & Olinger, 2003, p.13) has come into being. Virtual mentoring has the same theoretical purpose as traditional mentoring – offering support to a less experienced person from a more experienced person for joint benefit of learning – but differs in that it eliminates face-to-face contact. Typically, the communication between mentor and mentee in a telementoring relationship involves the use of email, but it also may include other technologies, such as discussion forums on websites. Telementoring has an advantage over traditional mentoring in that it permits communication that otherwise would be impossible because of time constraints or geographical distance (Guy, 2002).

Peer mentoring is another means of integrating mentoring processes into the work lives of urban teachers. An example is the New Teachers Network, which was launched in 1988 by graduates of elementary education programs at the University of Chicago. The network provided a small, informal study and support group for program graduates working in urban schools (University of Chicago, 2006). The retention rate for members of the group remaining in teaching for four years was 78%, while the retention rate for first and second grade teachers in the sample was 93%. Both rates are quite a bit higher than the 60% retention rate into the fourth year cited for all teachers nationwide by the National Center for Educational Statistics (2002).

Members of the Chicago alumni group felt a sense of professional community that combatted isolation and improved the likelihood of remaining in teaching. Echoing this sentiment, Daniel Fallon, Chair of Education of the Carnegie Corporation in New York, who delivered the keynote address at the 2006 Symposium of ACI's *Center for Success in High-Need Schools*, told the gathering that "teachers do better when they are part of a learning community" (Fallon, 2006).

Professional Development

Once the induction years are completed, the critical factors for teacher retention are ongoing support for professional development and opportunities for career advancement. This is especially true when considering the retention of educators as well as classroom teachers (Quartz et al, 2004). Researchers at the University of California-Los Angeles' Institute for Democracy, Education, and Access have noted instances of "role migration" among school principals, guidance counselors, curriculum consultants, etc., who remain in education but not in teaching. Authors of the study felt that retention rates were misleading when role migration was not considered in the use and interpretation of data. For example, only 71% of graduates from UCLA's urban teacher preparation programs remained in teaching after five years; however, 88% of the graduates remained in educational roles including but not limited to that of classroom teacher during this same time span. Quartz and her colleagues emphasize the importance of a "staged career with multiple levels of accomplishment" (p. 9, 2004) as a factor in retaining career educators.

Harmon (2001) takes this concept a step further, citing a need for flexible administrative structures that encourage teachers to take on aspects of leadership and decision-making roles traditionally ascribed to building principals or other administrative personnel. These roles can involve building-specific duties or responsibilities that extend into the community, such as teaching college courses, working with pre-service teachers, or mentoring beginning school administrators in neighboring schools or districts.

Financial Incentives

Low salaries for teachers frequently are perceived to be the top factor in teacher attrition; however, this has not been supported by research such as "Relative Pay and Teacher Retention: An Empirical Analysis in a Large Urban District," (Hanson, Lien, Cavalluzzo, & Wenger, 2004). The consistency of this finding over the years would not surprise Herzberg, who found that financial incentives for workers function as hygienes: factors that can prevent dissatisfaction but do not cause satisfaction or affect the decision to remain in a profession.

While pay is of some consequence to male and experienced female teachers (Gritz & Theobald, 1996), it functions as hygiene rather than as a motivating factor. Hanson, Lien, Cavalluzzo, and Wenger found that "teachers do respond to changes in pay but the effect is small" (p. 4).

Working Conditions

The overriding factors that have an impact on retention are work-related. Quartz and her colleagues (2004) found that improved working conditions help retain teachers in schools that need them most. One study (Hanson et al., 2004) found that working conditions had little if any impact on retention in teaching in large school districts, where moving between schools was relatively easy. In most situations where retention means remaining at the same school, working conditions are the top factors influencing teacher retention decisions.

The adequacy of school facilities and classroom space is one of the most important work conditions cited in interviews or surveys of teachers. "The Effects of School Facility Quality on Teacher Retention in Urban School Districts" (Buckley, Schneider, & Shang, 2004) indicated that the poor quality of school facilities in large urban districts is an important predictor – often the most important predictor – of decisions to leave teaching positions in these schools. Buckley, Schneider, and Shang (2004) found that approximately 25% of teachers in urban settings leave within the first four years. Although a small number of teachers in the study did leave for family-related personal reasons or specific issues regarding salary, administrative support, or student discipline, the main reasons for leaving involved facility-related factors that were so troubling, they ceased to be merely contextual and interfered with the ability to teach and function effectively with students.

Poor air quality was mentioned as having an impact on the general health of the workplace and influenced morale when offensive odors were involved. One of the most frequently cited concerns was that of "thermal comfort:" the ability to control the temperature of the teaching space. Adequate classroom lighting was cited, building upon prior research into the impact of light on learning and working environments (Heschong Mahone Group, 1999; Plympton, Conway, & Epstein, 2000), which found that too many physical plants lacked natural light or artificial light bright enough for reading. Finally, noise levels – especially hallway or classroom noise loud enough to bother students and increase stress levels among them – were found to factor into teacher decisions to leave a position. Overall, Buckley, Schneider, and Shang (2004) found that, "as perception of school facilities improves, probability of retention increases" (p. 7).

Conclusions

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It Takes a School to Raise a Teacher, by Robert Lee and Barbara Radner

Author Bios

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As director of the Center for Urban Education at DePaul, **Dr. Barbara Radner** has directed programs to prepare incoming teachers to work effectively in Chicago Public Schools. The Center for Urban Education has established a network to support continuing progress of Chicago Public School teachers through grants from the Polk Bros. Foundation and the US Department of Education.

Abstract

Preparing teachers to succeed in urban schools is a critical issue that has become even more significant, given the challenges of No Child Left Behind. This report clarifies the premises and components of a program designed to ameliorate the problem. The program's results correlate with studies that have found that site-based teacher preparation adds substantial value to the future effectiveness and retention of teachers. This model should be incorporated in undergraduate teacher certification, a change that would enable college graduates to enter the classroom with competencies that principals and teachers indicate are absent from their preparation. The authors cite the experience of the DePaul University Urban Teacher Corps program to support their thesis that site-based teacher preparation is a superior model to traditional program.

Introduction

In 1990, with funding from the AT&T Foundation and the US Department of Education, DePaul University developed the Urban Teacher Corps (UTC), an internship-based program that trained career changers and former Peace Corps volunteers to teach in the Chicago Public Schools (CPS). The UTC curriculum, like the standard DePaul program, offered 11 courses for meeting the certification requirements for elementary school and high school; however, its courses were sequenced, designed, and delivered in a structure responsive to schools that serve poverty-level communities.

The UTC program was both accelerated and comprehensive, and it provided an intensive induction support system. It differed, however, from the standard alternative certification program in that its program requirements were identical to the on-campus pre-service graduate program. Illinois did not enact alternative certification (105 ILCS 5/21-5b) until 1997, which meant that UTC operated without those standards for seven years. Initially, alternative certification in Illinois meant "fast track" rather than a reduction of professional education requirements. The principle differences between UTC and DePaul's traditional on-campus pre-service program were in mentoring support, sustained site-based field engagement, and the interconnection of theory and practice to the real world of teaching.

Researchers (eg, Houston, Marshall, & McDavid, 1993) who have considered nontraditional approaches comparable to UTC's advise universities to restructure teacher preparation programs to provide early experiences and teaching responsibilities with incremental stages of teaching capacities during the program. Studies have demonstrated that this form of training allows teachers to gain a better understanding of student behavior and learning experiences, especially regarding lesson presentation in the classroom. In addition, teachers are better able to relate theory to practice through direct interaction with students.

An extensive longitudinal study (Odell & Ferraro, 1992) found high retention rates for teachers who received on-site support from mentor teachers in collaboration with a university and the local school district during their first year of teaching. Of the 140 teachers who were located from the original group of 160, 134 (96%) were still teaching. In another study, Colbert and Wolff (1992) found significant growth in teacher retention in districts that collaborated with university education departments to provide systematic support to new teachers. Results indicated that, after three years in the partnership program, retention of beginning teachers was 95% for both elementary and secondary teachers. Prior to the study, the retention rate after three successive years in the classroom had been 76% for new elementary teachers and 81% for new secondary teachers.

UTC's inaugural cohort was equally successful. All but two of the participants (n=21) completed program requirements, and the retention rate of program graduates teaching in high-need Chicago Public Schools was 95.2% after three consecutive years, even though many were assigned to hard-to-staff schools, where high attrition was endemic.

An outcome that is more difficult to quantify is UTC's goal of developing capacity in schools that participated in the program. The program was designed not only to prepare individual teachers but also to improve Chicago Public Schools. The nation's best-known alternative certification program – Teach for America – lost an average of 80% of its teachers in Houston, Texas after just two years (Raymond, Fletcher, & Luque, 2001). This model, which provides a fast track into and out of teaching, imposes a burden in economic and human costs on already beleaguered high-need schools and districts. According to Danielson (1999), administrative time devoted to screening and interviewing candidates, checking references, conducting school and district-level orientations, and performing other new-hire procedures can increase costs appreciably. Moreover, schools that hire these new teachers often make sizable investments in further professional development to compensate for perceived inadequacies in the preparation of these teachers.

UTC incorporated elements that are recognized today as essential to the preparation and retention of successful urban teachers. When first- and second-year teachers at high-poverty Chicago schools were asked what should be added to teacher preparation courses, they made the following comments:

1. Walk through a typical day.
2. Requirements and their realistic completion
3. Special education
4. Lesson planning specific to Chicago and our schools
5. What to think about – the kids' potential, what you need to bring it out
6. How to connect with students and families
7. Have a class list.
8. Prepare notes to parents.
9. The culture of teaching
10. Clarify your philosophy of education.

11. Core curriculum
12. Practice with the children.
13. Collaborative planning
14. Classroom management
15. Getting to know the culture of the school
16. Rules and regulations; standards and structure
17. Don't be shocked when the student says "I don't have a pencil."
18. How to keep up with the demands of the job
19. Remember that some [students] run their homes themselves.
20. I don't know how to teach the children how to read. I'm lucky I'm set up with another teacher who helps me with everything. If I didn't have him, I'd be clueless.
21. Inner city program—my school didn't offer any courses to prepare me for this.
22. What they taught you in college, that's not what's happening now.

This "theory-practice divide" (Pagano, Weiner, Obi, & Swearingen, 1995) illustrates a notable concern as educational programs attempt to prepare novice teachers to be skilled in meeting the unique demands and challenges often found in urban schools. Other studies highlight specific elements as essential for comprehensive teacher education: 1) providing prospective teachers an opportunity to practice their teaching skills and become socialized into the role of teacher (Dueck, Altmann, Haslett, & Latimer, 1984); 2) connecting theory with practice (Engeström, 1994); and 3) working with students they are likely to serve (Flores, Tefft-Cousins, & Diaz, 1999).

Some of the suggestions – such as item 7 ("have a class list") – are extremely practical. Others indicate gaps in the curriculum that can limit the ability of teachers to succeed. Consider item 8: "Prepare notes to parents." If a pre-service teacher does not learn how to prepare homework or communicate with parents and guardians, the teacher may have limited home support and even may alienate parents. Yet, state requirements for teacher certification usually do not include working with parents. Just as researchers have identified different kinds of thinking, such as those discussed in *Seven Kinds of Smart*, (Armstrong, T., 1999), some educators are concerned with enabling students to develop varieties of "cultural competence." There are different kinds of competence that a teacher needs, such as item 13 ("collaborative planning") and item 6 ("how to connect with students and families"). Interestingly, in a recent survey, UTC graduates (n=56) with at least five consecutive years of teaching experience rated their skills in "communicating with parents" as $M=2.27/3$, $SD=0.70$, indicating an above-average rating in this area. Nevertheless, teachers graduating from other teacher education programs are reporting the same concerns in 2002 as the first UTC class reported in 1990. This suggests a continuing gap between the standard teacher certification curriculum and the realities of urban schools.

The Design

The UTC program responded to the expressed needs and recommendations of individuals working in local public schools (Table 1). Based on established principles of education, UTC was modeled after executive MBA programs. These programs recruit a cohort of individuals who complete a sequence of courses. Students meet every other weekend to deal with business cases and learn principles that are applied to each individual's workplace.

Instead of meeting every other week, the UTC program began with an intensive summer orientation to teaching and then convened all-day Saturday sessions, meeting weekly except during public school vacations. This schedule allowed UTC resident interns the ability to complete the required coursework with the requisite number of contact hours, 12 weeks of full-time formal student teaching, and 100 hours of clinical experience – all in an 11-month period. Every Saturday, resident interns would learn principles of education that were applied to real situations in the schools to which they were assigned. Those in-school experiences were highly organized, following a sequence that started with item 18 ("getting to know the culture of the school").

Although the development of effective teachers historically has been under the domain of university and college education departments, the ever-changing environment of the urban classroom means that local schools must share in the responsibility of preparing and retaining effective teachers. UTC organizers were cognizant that novice teachers often felt inadequate, overwhelmed, and disillusioned because of a lack of formal support, weak leadership, and fluctuating school values. Many left the profession because they felt powerless to change it. In response, UTC insisted that teacher quality *and* high teacher retention were key components of school quality (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). Interventions designed to increase teacher retention included facilitation by mentor teachers, on-site preparation, reflective exercises, individual development within a community of learners, and guided disciplined inquiry and discourse. In this fashion, UTC was designed to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Teacher training for urban schools requires teacher candidates to learn more than just theoretical methods of teaching. Attrition rates soar in urban schools when new teachers experience difficulties in learning how to relate to urban students and teach them effectively (Grant, 1989). Through on-site preparation, UTC fostered a paradigm shift from "a technocratic view of teaching to one that is rooted in concepts of learning based on long-standing views that learning is the consequence of social constructions between and among students and teachers" (Griffith & Early, 1999, p. vii). Reinforcing this stance, Nieto (1999) calls for a resurgence of efforts to develop the cultural awareness that is necessary for teachers to negotiate cultural structures for success in diverse urban schools.

While many cite Vygotsky's notion of the social context in cognition (1978), it is important to note that Piaget, too, highlighted the importance of the social, for it is the learner's experiences in a social context that expose new factors for assimilation and accommodation. The roles of community, culture, and language that are the tools and signs of everyday experience serve as mediators in the development of higher-order thinking skills (Phillips & Soltis, 1998; Wertsch & Tulviste, 1992). According to Vygotsky, full understanding of resident interns' learning is dependent on the context in which learning takes place and what interns can accomplish under the tutelage of others. This is the basic premise behind Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of Proximal Development, which he has defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978, p. 86).

Vygotsky's concept of proximal knowledge was applied in the design of the in-school experiences, the plan for each course, and the sequence of courses. There was a yearlong developmental progression, which began with an orientation to the public school, continued with the development of the disciplinary and pedagogical competencies a teacher needs, and concluded with the resident intern taking full responsibility for a classroom. Courses included

topics that the resident interns needed to understand in practical terms, such as how to grade student work. These practical applications were linked to philosophies of education and principles of educational psychology, such as positive reinforcement. The curriculum included the same course requirements as the standard teacher certification program at the university, but the content of the courses was contextualized to fit urban school situations. For example, the educational philosophy course continued throughout the program. Students analyzed perspectives ranging from Locke to Freire and "tested" their own philosophies in practical applications. Other strands running through the program included principles of psychology that were developed formally in a course on educational psychology and woven into courses on methods of teaching reading, math, and science.

It is important to note that proximal knowledge remains in proximity unless it is learned through application. The courses were constructed so that theory and practice were interconnected. Each week's assignment required resident interns to develop applications for their schools. UTC also required resident interns to complete weekly "quests," in which they interviewed two people at their assigned schools about a topic relevant to the course content. The course sessions included not only university faculty but also presenters and commentators from schools. For example, the course on educational psychology included a dialogue with parents about their perceptions of schooling and their children's needs. Highly effective teachers were panelists and session leaders during the first year. However, during the second program year, resident interns communicated that they "wanted to hear from 'teachers like us' with little prior experience who are having the same kinds of problems we are having, but are dealing with them better." The course sessions were changed to include greater diversity of experience so that resident interns could hear from colleagues who recently had solved some of the problems they were struggling to overcome. In this sense, one can conclude that traditional teacher education outside of an urban classroom context is often diaphanous, impeding the development of skills relevant to specific communities that have complex and specialized divisions of labor. The only way teachers truly can understand these classroom dynamics is by immersing themselves in the culture of their schools. From a contextualized cultural perspective, the transmission of shared cultural knowledge is a social negotiation within constructivism that focuses on how concepts in a particular culture are understood and applied by its members.

The emphasis on teacher experiential education originated with John Dewey (1938) as an intentional response to concerns of school principals that teachers came to their schools fully certified but only partially prepared. Although this problem persists today, institutions of higher learning have the capacity to organize teacher preparation programs that incorporate structures demonstrated by UTC and other pathways-to-teaching programs.

Case in point: Illinois State University developed its charter Professional Development School (PDS) in Chicago's Little Village community in 2005-2006. Little Village is located on the southwest side of Chicago, and its residents include many low-income Mexican immigrants. Through a Teacher Quality Enhancement grant funded by the US Department of Education, the PARTNER Project – an acronym for "Professional Articulation for Recruiting/Retaining Teachers for Neighborhood Engagement and Renewal" – will expand this Chicago-based PDS network in 2006-2007 to include two additional schools in the Little Village community. Although the program is not mandatory, undergraduate students at Illinois State can opt to devote their entire senior year to working at one of these PDS sites. They will complete a sequence of methodology courses correlated with experiences that come from working directly with teachers and students, such as learning the rhythm of the school year, building relationships, and using strategies that enable a teacher to succeed in urban schools. To further the cultural understanding and the urban community context, State Farm Insurance Companies® has partnered with Illinois State University to develop and establish a community-based residential housing facility in Little Village for student teachers in their senior year. With partnership support from the Little Village Community Development Corporation, the Local Initiatives Support Corporation, and CPS, the residential facility will help students engage beyond the classroom and immerse themselves in rich, sustained, and contextually-situated experiences bound within a nexus of social, cultural, historical, economic, political, and geographical contexts,

and shared by a community of learners.

The delineation of induction responsibilities in many cases remains unclear among local schools, districts, and teacher preparation programs (Kestner, 1994). Nevertheless, lessons learned from UTC and the PARTNER Project show that induction must encompass local professional and community supports to excel in a particular environment. This can be achieved best through a collaborative model involving both the local school and the district. Working together toward common goals facilitates the creation of a continual professional development program relevant to the personal aims of novice teachers and the global aims and objectives of the school, the district, and federal NCLB mandates.

According to *Recruiting New Teachers* (2000), "good programs improve new teachers' knowledge, skills, and performance; provide personal support; introduce new teachers to school system norms and procedures; and familiarize them with school system values" (p. 1). Although the classroom cannot be seen as a purely homogenous community, particularly in the urban multicultural arena, Lemke (1994) argues that it is not enough merely to be exposed to common practices, language, and rituals. To be counted as a member of the community; one also must be entrenched through a socialization process. In this manner, the influence of biography, history, and culture over the "here-and-now" situation may alter views on learning and schooling, with the understanding that these conceptual tools are defined interdependently through contextualized activity. Through this process, interns are prepared on-site with robust opportunities to attach meaning to each new experience and relate it to its relevant historical context, whether governed by historical facts or their unique personal histories. By participating in this community with its complex framework of language, rituals, symbolism, and culture, which is guided in socialization toward situated norms and adept performances (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989), the history-forming patterns allow individuals to deviate from this norm, dependent on their unique history and background within schools (Lemke, 1994). This learning crossroads, illustrated by the central element in Lave and Wenger's intersection of meaning, practice, community, and identity (1991), has the power to affect both teacher change *and* school change.

Both graduate and undergraduate programs must recognize that proximal knowledge takes time and structure to develop. The educators who assert that Teach for America shortchanges schools and incoming teachers with its brief preparation period have substantial evidence of that shortcoming. Even the program's own graduates have voiced dissatisfaction with their preparation. In fact, the first UTC cohort included a teacher who had completed Teach for America and felt that he had to "start over" learning how to teach. What has not been analyzed yet is the drain on school resources posed by teachers who supposedly are "highly qualified" after a summer at a teaching "boot camp." An evaluation of UTC by the Urban Institute found that its graduates were rated as significantly better prepared to be first-year teachers than graduates of traditional and other nontraditional teacher preparation programs (Clewell & Villegas, 2001). That principals decided to invest school funds in the salaries of UTC resident interns and sought to hire them after they completed certification is marked evidence of the value that principals saw in the program.

The School Connection

UTC was introduced and carried out as a school development program rather than as a teacher certification program. Its model focused on learning by public school students, and any learning by UTC interns was correlated with and dedicated to learning by CPS students. Individual CPS schools provided "scaffolds" for the preparation of UTC interns. The program placed interns at schools with which the Center for Urban Education (CUE) had worked for several years on matters of professional development, including the implementation of a curriculum framework. CUE interns had participated in school professional development sessions that correlated with their coursework, later working in classrooms to help implement activities based on this framework. Established in 1980, CUE brought a resource to the initiative that was essential to its effectiveness – CPS partnerships.

Under CUE's system, partnership schools would invest in the program, paying the salaries of the intern teachers and

providing guidance. Typically two interns worked at the same school, and some schools employed three-to-five interns in a given year. These interns were integrated into the school's teaching staff rather than being assigned to one teacher. CUE had established professional development programs with the participating schools, and teachers who had been leaders of those programs became mentors to the incoming interns. Interns would work with a different mentor every quarter. Instead of assigning individual mentors to a resident intern, CUE provided for a mentoring school, with active guidance by a variety of people including the school clerk, librarian, teacher aides, parents, and teachers. A critical factor noted by Cochran-Smith (1991) is that pairing an intern with only one mentor as found in typical field-placements could lead to detrimental consequences. For a new teacher to be mentored by one teacher would "...simply accept the prevailing culture" (Tell, 2001, p. 41). In situations where mentors and their respective student-interns clash or disagree on pedagogical methodologies, classroom management, and/or philosophical (stylistic) approaches to teaching, student interns often are forced to accept practices they do not support to avoid internecine conflicts.

UTC established a partnership with the US Peace Corps through the Fellows Program. The participation of returned Peace Corps volunteers enriched the program significantly. The former volunteers brought cultural understanding, communications abilities, and a different sense of time to the project because they had worked patiently and persistently in impoverished communities. They already were experienced in focusing on an important UTC goal – building the capacity of the community. UTC differed from other Peace Corps fellowship programs in that its cohort included career changers who wanted to become teachers. The mix of career changers and Peace Corps veterans was deliberate. The intention was to help reorient volunteers to the United States while taking advantage of their unique perspective and experiences.

UTC training emphasized building relationships to improve teaching and learning, so resident interns had flexible schedules. They were not bound to any one classroom and could facilitate projects that benefited a number of classrooms and even the entire school. During the first two weeks of the school year, they were assigned to the main office to help with the many tasks associated with the beginning of school. Through that activity and other assignments during the year, resident interns came to know more about the school and the community than many teachers who had been working in the school for years. Often, resident interns worked with staff and community members to implement projects that the school had deferred for lack of resources. At one primary school that had no library, resident interns worked with parents to construct a library – building bookshelves, collecting books, and getting funds allocated to buy more books. At another school, resident interns organized a school supply store, with students doing the math to keep track of the inventory. Resident interns contributed to school progress as they expanded their collaboration abilities.

Potholes and Resilience

In retrospect, UTC's success is the result of multiple factors. The three most significant factors, which ordinarily are not encountered in conventional teacher preparation programs, generated both problems and benefits. First, the program was embedded in a school development structure that resembled the Comprehensive School Reform designs even though it predated them. Second, the program was designed collaboratively by university faculty and school personnel. Third, the program had a coherent structure. This section discusses the strengths and weaknesses of each of these factors.

Because the program was embedded in a school development structure, it enabled incoming resident interns to work collaboratively with teachers who also were learners. However, the program was based at schools that faced critical challenges not only of poverty but also of teacher transience and, in some instances, teacher competence. At one school, one longtime teacher initiated a union grievance against the program because a resident intern was providing tutoring to students after school. The teacher alleged that the resident intern was not qualified to tutor. At another

school, a teacher was able to participate in a professional development week at the university while the resident intern took over his class. After completing the instruction, the teacher retired because he had decided he was "burned out" and could not do his job as well as he should. In both instances and several others each year, the program caused problems for the school. One of the major assets was DePaul's Assistant Dean of the School of Education, Charlie Doyle, a master of human relations who resolved the union complaint and also helped the principal of the second school deal with the sudden resignation.

The program's collaborative design by school personnel and university faculty assured that it would be based in the reality of each individual workplace; however, it also diluted the power and challenged the authority of the university. Distributing hours of the "Philosophy of Education" course meant that the student interns would have an opportunity to study Dewey in relative context. In fact, the assignment for reporting on Dewey's ideas – referred to as "Do we do Dewey?" – took the form of a debate about the relevance of Dewey's ideas to current Chicago issues. The courses were organized to involve interns in answering "big questions" like those advocated in *Understanding by Design* (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Table 2 presents the content sequence and the essential questions that focused the learning in each course.

The DePaul faculty was accustomed to a ten-session course sequence that allocated three hours per session. UTC courses were conducted in seven-hour sessions on Saturdays, which might include a morning on educational psychology and then an afternoon on methods of reading instruction, which applied the morning's psychology principles. Sessions included university faculty as well as presentations by veteran urban teachers, principals, and parents. To reassure the university faculty, outlines of the principles and exemplary activities for each course were prepared. Just as Assistant Dean Doyle interceded in CPS disputes, another dedicated problem solver helped resolve university-related issues. Dr. Geraldine Brownlee, an esteemed local educator, took a one-year position to guide curriculum development and negotiate any obstacles that arose.

Intended to help teachers gain practical knowledge useful in the urban classroom, the partnerships between the university and local schools were weak, resulting in a structural collapse (Chubbuck, Clift, Allard, & Quinlain, 2001). Since then, the importance of successful partnerships in bridging the gap between theory and practice and assisting new teachers in developing instructional and management skills has been established firmly (Holland, Clift, & Veal, 1992). According to a US Department of Education report, *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teachers Challenge* (2003), "...many state regulations for certifying new teachers are burdensome and bureaucratic" (p. 7). Although standards have been implemented in some areas of new teacher induction and certification, this is not a uniform process. Professionally, it is up to the local state infrastructure to design and implement benchmark standards. Taking note of the highly fluid terminology that allows university programs to decide the meaning of *internship* and *induction*, Whitehurst (2002) asserts that a professional consensus based on teacher preparation research is a long way off. In most cases, universities merely use the state regulations as a basis for meeting teacher certification requirements, such as a bachelor's degree in a specialty subject, pedagogy courses, other prescribed coursework, credit-hour requirements, minimum grade point average, credit requirements within a specified time period, practicum or student teaching, and assessments (US Department of Education, 2003). Obviously, standard terminology and requirements must be determined before a global assessment of the best ways to induct new teachers into their specific school environments and cultures can be undertaken.

The coherence of UTC structure meant that changing a single feature required examination of the entire structure to see if other adjustments were needed. The program's flexible design incorporated ongoing formative evaluations that led to changes both during the year and at the year's end. An example of a midyear change was adjusting the science course to include science fair projects, which implemented the goal of project-based science learning; an example of a year's end adjustment was moving the psychology course from first semester to second semester because resident

interns needed more preparation in reading, math, and science instruction. Even so, some principles of psychology were included in the courses on reading, math, and science methods so that considerations of the psychology of learning would not be wholly absent from the first semester.

Other problems emerged from the realities of urban schools rather than from the program's design. Principals retired or moved to other positions, and some successors did not understand or appreciate the program. Still other principals made curriculum changes that were unsuitable to the program. One principal, who not only had two interns per year for three consecutive years but also hired them post-program completion, decided to change his school's curriculum to a direct-instruction model. Although UTC did not take a position on which kind of curriculum worked best, the program insisted on a diversity of instruction to respond to individual differences. When direct instruction became the school's sole mode of instruction, UTC interns could not continue to work with that school. Subsequently, the four program graduates on that school's staff left to go to another school that was active in the UTC program model.

After eight years, UTC had the opportunity to work with teachers from other countries. The CPS district started a program to recruit and hire teachers from other countries to work in Chicago and fill high-need positions in math, science, and world languages. DePaul agreed to enroll the incoming teachers in UTC courses to prepare them to work in local public schools. Supposedly, they would work as "associate" teachers for one semester so that they would learn about Chicago schools before becoming full-time teachers of record. However, while the summer coursework was in progress, it became known that funding was not available for that "scaffolded" first semester. Consequently, on top of the pressures associated with foreign employment, the incoming teachers had to deal with the pressures of teaching in a system that was very different from the schools in which they previously had taught. Many were surprised that this country did not have a national curriculum and customs. "In my country, the students stand and salute me when I come into the classroom. Here I am expected to stand outside my door and greet them as they come in," exclaimed one student.

Despite these challenges, preliminary retention data of these foreign teacher recruits reveal that many are still teaching in Chicago Public Schools. Even with a difficult transition, the program model is one that works to prepare and retain urban teachers effectively.

Resourceful CUE staff members and cooperative school and district personnel helped solve the problems resulting from the international teachers' abrupt entry into full-time teaching. The international teachers were not assigned to schools that had participated in CUE, so two full-time CUE staff members worked to develop relationships with administrators and teachers at these schools. A second cohort of international teachers joined the program in the second semester of the first year, so the staffers' workload doubled. The second group, however, were able to serve as associate teachers for one semester, so the potholes encountered were less of a problem for the second group.

The situation described above illustrates the concept of collaborative resilience: Challenges that are overwhelming to an individual are less formidable when support is available. Resident interns could look to supportive teachers at their assigned public schools for help, and the Saturday sessions allowed them to debrief and consider alternative responses with other resident interns who were experiencing similar challenges. As a result, they returned to school each Monday with renewed persistence.

Problems in UTC design and administration also were solved collaboratively. For example, an annual problem was the CPS payroll system's failure to pay the intern teachers until October or November. To solve that problem, UTC worked with principals and administrators within the district's central office to arrange for expedited payment on a daily basis.

An overwhelming challenge can not only drive individuals from the classroom, but it can end a program if it acts as a

roadblock to the program's implementation. If a university has working partnerships with schools and the school system itself, collaborative resilience is possible at the organizational level. In consequence, the years of partnership with schools and the system that preceded its development were invaluable to UTC.

At this point, UTC retention results are strong. During the first years of teaching, when national attrition data indicate that approximately 50% of new urban teachers desert the often challenging and tenuous teaching environment (Ingersoll, 2000; Henke, Chen, & Geis, 2000, Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996), the retention of UTC graduates is above 80%. In fact, the retention rate for the initial cohort was 95.2% over the first three years even though this group, in all likelihood, faced the greatest challenges. Many UTC graduates continue to work in and with urban schools beyond that five-year benchmark. Today, not only are more than 75% of the program graduates still working in urban public schools, but 18 of the 185 who completed the program have advanced to leadership roles in Chicago schools for a total of four principals, six assistant principals, and eight curriculum coordinators. Although not prevalent in published research, "advancers" – individuals who take leadership roles in public education, but not necessarily as classroom teachers – are not viewed as threats to teacher retention because these individuals continue to enrich public schools and teachers through their efforts.

Conclusions: Implications for Teacher Certification Programs

UTC no longer continues at DePaul because the school has recognized a greater need to improve the transition into teaching for all incoming teachers. Through funding from the US Department of Education, CUE has been working on the adaptation of its model for Special Education majors. The CPS Office of Specialized Services has supported the inclusion of components of the UTC model in the First Class program, an initiative that the Chicago Public Schools has established to support the certification of teachers in areas of need. Given the challenges of budget cuts, schools have less discretionary funding to support internships. However, CUE is currently working on a variation in which incoming resident interns will work as teacher aides.

The lasting outcome of this work is the model itself, which is adaptable to both graduate and undergraduate levels. In fact, it is particularly appropriate for undergraduate education because no additional funding for stipends would be needed. While it would be ideal to have a fifth-year program, individuals need incomes and schools need help. Both local urban schools and schools of higher learning would benefit if the latter could organize a sequence of courses, allowing Education majors a senior year in residence at urban schools. This would provide a much-needed opportunity for students to apply what they have learned while completing required coursework.

The problem that UTC tackled – training and retaining high-quality faculty for high-need schools – persists today. Analysis of the outcomes of fast-track curriculums indicate that inadequately prepared teachers are likely to leave, while those who complete certification requirements with strong, supportive induction processes are much more likely to stay in urban schools. If, however, universities continue to graduate students who are prepared with limited in-school experience, the critics of teacher preparation will have data to support their contentions that teacher education is not needed. Jack Wenders' statement (2003) on the *Texas Education Review* website that "empty certification and licensing requirements do nothing to produce better teachers" typifies the position that critics of teacher preparation have taken. The purpose of this article is to emphasize the need for such preparation and the importance of embedding it in schools, which contributes both to the school's progress and long-term teacher retention. The National Council for Teacher Evaluation has advocated such an approach, and this article confirms that it works and can be organized within the requirements of universities. After all, if it takes a village to raise a child, it makes sense for a school to raise a teacher.

Table 1

Priorities for Teacher Preparation: Blueprint for Planning Teacher Preparation for Inner-City Schools

(DePaul Center for Urban Education, October 1990)

The DePaul planning process has developed the following answers to these questions:

A teacher has a multitude of roles, including parent, psychologist, actor, social worker, and much more.

1. What do teachers need to work effectively in an inner-city Chicago school?

- a. attitudinal adjustments
 - 1. be teachers of children/not subjects
 - 2. positive expectations
 - 3. know yourself
- b. strong knowledge base in your field
- c. management skills/communication skills
- d. knowledge of the community
- e. knowledge of the city
- f. interpersonal skills
- g. a sense of humor

2. What kinds of preparation are possible and appropriate?

- a. experiences--school and community based activities, not just visits
- b. multicultural/multiethnic social experiences
- c. continuing seminars
- d. meetings with people from a range of positions

3. Who should prepare the new teachers?

- a. teachers already in the field
- b. educational specialists
- c. students
- d. parents and other community members

e. mentors

f. administrators

4. What formats should be used for teacher education?

a. cooperative learning

b. cooperative teaching

c. working as lunchroom aides, other non-instructional positions

d. working visits to a variety of schools

e. continuing working relationships with students over an academic year

f. research into the community

g. participation in meetings of parents, teacher groups

5. What sequence should these activities take?

a. they should be ongoing.

b. as the incoming teacher gains confidence, he or she should take a formal position in partnership with other members of a team or network

Table 2

Urban Teacher Corps Courses: Sequence and Focus

Courses	Focus
T&L 585/590 Student Teaching and Seminar*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>How do students learn?</i> • <i>What can teachers do to facilitate learning by all students?</i> • <i>How can teachers assess student needs and progress?</i>
T&L 409/405 Professional Practice Yearlong course	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can the school community collaborate? • What can I do to support the school's progress? • What can I learn from the successes and obstacles I encounter?

<p>T&L 413</p> <p>Reading and Language Arts in the Middle School</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can you teach reading in the content areas? • How can you help parents help children read well? • What is the reading/writing connection? • How can you assess reading needs and progress? • How can you prepare for standardized tests and maintain the curriculum?
<p>CUG 439</p> <p>Middle school psychology</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the patterns of adolescence? • What affects the situation of a Chicago adolescent? • How can you respond effectively to the adolescent's needs?
<p>T&L 416/446</p> <p>Teaching/Learning Math</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is mathematics? • How can you teach it meaningfully? • How can you involve families in learning math? • How can you tell when students have learned it? • How can you prepare for standardized tests and maintain the curriculum?
<p>T&L 415/439</p> <p>Teaching and Learning Science</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is science? • How can you teach science conceptually? • What is the reading/writing science connection? • How do you make the math connection? • How can you make the art connection? • How can you make family and city science connections?
<p>CUG 403</p> <p>Human Development and Learning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are different views of the stages of human development and learning?

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do those views affect the teacher's choices? • What are your views? • How can teachers work with parents to support learning?
R&L 446 Characteristics of the Exceptional Child	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are different views of the ways students are exceptional? • How do those views affect the teacher's choices? • How do those views affect the student and the parent? • What are your views?
T&L 419/447 Teaching/Learning Social Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the important concepts of social studies? • What are effective ways to teach those concepts? • What are the reading/writing, math, and art connections? • How do you organize effective social studies that links students to their community, city, and future?
SCU 408 Education and the Social Order*	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How does a Chicago public school work? • How do people work there effectively?

*Yearlong course, culminates in spring

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Pre-Service Teachers' Motivation for Becoming Teachers, *by Anne George, Ph.D.*

Author Bio

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Abstract

This study explores pre-service teacher motivation for entering teaching at a time when rising teacher attrition and lower recruitment rates indicate a shortage of qualified teachers across the United States. Pre-service teacher motivations for choosing a career in teaching provide insights that may help to improve teacher retention. A total of 52 pre-service teachers completed a three-part questionnaire exploring their motivations for becoming teachers. Respondents varied in age from 18-50 years; 94% were female. Most respondents indicated a desire to work with and motivate children from disadvantaged backgrounds, but many seemed unwilling to work with inattentive, disruptive, or low-achieving students. These responses suggest that behavior management issues would be pressing challenges for them in their future careers. The respondents may have unrealistic expectations of the profession and especially of teaching in high-need schools.

Introduction

The goal of this study is to explore the motivations and expectations of pre-service teachers as they enter the teaching profession. The connection between teacher quality and child performance has been documented in past research (eg, Mills, 2005). Yet, the United States today faces a dearth of qualified teachers. For instance, during the past year in Chicago, public schools reported that more than 1,200 teaching positions remained unoccupied at the start of the school year (Hurwitz & Hurwitz, 2005). Teacher shortages tend to be even more acute at high-risk schools.

The problem of teacher shortages is related to teacher retirement as well as to turnover. Although large numbers of enthusiastic educators enter the teaching profession each year, teacher turnover is extremely high (Ingersoll, 1999). Job dissatisfaction is a significant cause of the high rate of teacher turnover. Typically, the enthusiasm with which they enter the teaching profession wanes in the face of the numerous obstacles they encounter (Foster, 2001, as cited in Valadez, 2003). The problem of teacher shortages in the US is exacerbated by the high demands placed on today's teachers, especially regarding issues of competence and accountability.

Consequently, the preparedness of pre-service teachers to face inherent challenges is an important issue in the recruitment and retention of new teachers. Understanding the motivations behind individual decisions to enter teaching reduces teacher attrition by improving the quality of teacher preparation programs. It also helps in developing contexts that prepare candidates to be realistic in their approach to teaching and their expectations of the profession. Without a sound understanding of what drives an individual to become a teacher, recruitment and retention efforts are likely to be flawed.

The purpose of this study is to develop a clear understanding of the reasons and motivations guiding the decision to become a teacher. Additionally, this study will examine contextual factors that shape teacher motivations, such as age, ethnicity, and gender.

Review of Literature

Research suggests that many new teachers choose to leave the profession within five years. Their reasons can provide clues to enhance teacher retention. Typically, teachers decide to leave teaching because of stressful workloads,

inadequate salaries, disruptive students, and the perceived low status of teaching in society (Kyriacou, Kunc, Stephens, & Hultgren, 2003).

Research examining why pre-service teachers choose teaching as a career points to: 1) altruistic reasons, such as serving children and the community; 2) intrinsic factors, such as a love of teaching and learning; and 3) extrinsic motivations, such as the attraction of long vacations (Kyriacou, Hultgren, & Stephens, 1999). Research also suggests that ethnic minority and majority teachers have similar altruistic reasons for choosing teaching careers. Both cite a desire to work with children, the inspiration of teachers who were role models for them, and the wish to make a difference in society and their communities. The influence of teachers as role models was reported to be greater for majority students than for minority students (Nelson, Garmon, & Davis, 2001).

Other factors that affect teaching as a career choice include the K-12 school experiences of pre-service teachers, residence location, and past academic achievement (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Haberman, 1996; King, 1992). Especially among minorities, the decision to become a teacher is influenced by attitudes toward work and a commitment to serve one's family and community (Collins, 1991; Fultz, 1995; Neverdon-Morton, 1989; Surdarkasa, 1981).

A recent study of the characteristics of African American pre-service teachers found that respondents' family relationships were significant in their decisions to become teachers (McCray, Sindelar, Kilgore, & Neal, 2002). Maternal expectations particularly were important in female decisions to pursue teaching as a career. In addition to their biological mothers, young women were influenced significantly to become teachers by mother figures in the culture. Interactions with teachers in neighborhood and community contexts also are reported to affect minority women's decisions to become teachers. African American women who interacted with teachers who were leaders in the community cited them as an important influence. Significantly, these women also reported that their motivation to pursue a teaching career stemmed from a desire to serve children who might not otherwise succeed academically and socially (McCray et al., 2002).

The significance of social and economic status in decisions to enter teaching is noteworthy. A comparison of high-achieving students at the Harvard Graduate School of Education with students from a smaller college that served a primarily urban population revealed similar motivations for both groups of students. Both groups were driven by a desire for creativity, enjoyment of working with children, and the attraction of a socially respected job. However, urban college students placed greater importance on job security and teaching salaries. Harvard University students, on the other hand, rated the desire to change society and to meet people from diverse cultural backgrounds as being far more significant (Werner, 1993). Clearly, motivators affecting the decision to become a teacher vary by social class and economic status.

A review of the literature reveals common themes in pre-service teacher decisions to enter the teaching profession. Significant motivators include the influence of teachers who acted as role models, family expectations, the desire for job security, beliefs about teaching being a rewarding career, the desire for long vacations, and a desire to serve the community and to make a difference. Understanding these factors can guide teacher education programs in how best to prepare pre-service teachers, especially for teaching in high-need schools. The literature on exploring the role of socioeconomic status, program stage, and gender in candidate motivation is limited, however. My research addresses this gap and extends our understanding of pre-service teacher motivation. This article reports the results of a pilot survey of pre-service teachers.

Methods

My survey explores these research questions:

1. What are the reasons that pre-service teachers choose teaching careers?

2. What are some common expectations held by pre-service teachers about the teaching profession?
3. How do males and females differ in their opinions and expectations of the teaching profession?
4. How do pre-service teachers differ by race and ethnicity regarding their motivations and expectations of a teaching career?
5. What are some common concerns faced by pre-service teachers as they prepare for their profession?

Participants: Data were gathered to pilot-test the instrument developed for this study, employing a convenience sample of 52 students recruited from education courses containing graduate (n=3) and undergraduate (n=49) students at a Midwest university. The respondents varied in age from 18-50 years; 6% were male and 94% were female; 7% of respondents were freshmen; 39% were sophomores; 36% were juniors; 13% were seniors; and 5% were graduate students.

Data Collection: The proposal for the study was reviewed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the institution where the research was conducted. The data were collected in March 2006. The study data were used to refine the instrument.

Measurement: The instrument used for this study was a three-part questionnaire. Part 1 of the questionnaire ascertained respondents' demographic information. Part 2 ascertained attitudes and motivations for becoming teachers. This section contained items in a Likert-type scale, with response options ranging from 1-4. Part 3 determined respondent expectations with regard to teacher workload and remuneration. The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's alpha (.55). The instrument was deemed to have face validity.

Results

Research Question 1: Teacher Motivations: Frequency distributions revealed that nearly all (96.1%) respondents wanted to become teachers because they enjoyed working with children; almost as many (82.7%) wished to serve children from disadvantaged backgrounds; far fewer (38.4%) cited the influence of friends; 32.7% noted the convenience of work hours; and 17% noted the availability of summer vacations as a motivator. Only 15.4% reported that family members influenced their choice of teaching as a career.

Research Question 2: Teacher Expectations: Frequency distributions measured respondents' expectations of the teaching profession on a variety of topics such as preparedness, student characteristics, and career plans (see Table 1).

Table 1. Pre-service Teachers' Expectations of the Teaching Profession:

Pre-service Teacher Expectation	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Hope to work in a high income neighborhood	27.5	72.5
Could change careers in 2-3 years	42.3	57.7
Primarily want to work with academically low-achieving children	31.4	68.6
Expect the ideal classroom to have significant academic variations	62.7	17.3
Like working with children who are focused	59.6	40.4
Hope to work with few/no children with behavioral disorders	51.9	48.1
Would like to work with children who are inattentive/disruptive	32.7	67.3
Welcome opportunity to work with children having behavioral disorders	84.3	15.7
Feel equipped to handle children's negative behaviors	84.3	15.7
Value positive social behavior over academic success	36	64

The key finding regarding respondent preparedness is that the majority feel equipped to manage negative behaviors in children (84.3%), but 67.3% do not wish to work with inattentive and disruptive children. Most (59.6%) would prefer to work with children who are focused and have no behavioral disorders (51.9%). Furthermore, although most respondents believe an ideal classroom would have significant academic variations, 23.1% stated that they would prefer to work with academically successful children and 68.6% would prefer not to work with low-achieving children. Perhaps most tellingly, only 15.7% feel prepared to manage children's negative behaviors, or welcome an opportunity to work with children who have behavioral disorders.

Research Question 3: Gender & Teacher Motivations: T-tests reveal statistically significant differences between males and females in terms of *concerns that they might be perceived as a threat by senior teachers*, $t(52) = 5.19, p < .05$; females ($M = 2.21$) had greater concerns than males ($M = 2.00$). Statistically significant differences also were found between males and females in terms of: *willingness to work with children who might be disruptive*, $t(52) = 8.92, p < .05$; females were more willing to work with disruptive children ($M = 2.23$) than males ($M = 2.00$). Males and females differed in their *willingness to work with academically low-achieving kids*, $t(51) = 14.82, p < .05$; females were more willing to work with low-achieving kids ($M = 2.38$) than males ($M = 2.00$). Males and females also differed in their *belief that they could be a powerful role model to children*, $t(50) = 9.26, p < .05$; females had stronger role-model beliefs ($M = 3.72$) than males ($M = 3.25$). Finally, males and females differed in their *expected annual income*, $t(52) = 6.55, p < .05$; males expected a higher income ($M = 2.00$) than females ($M = 1.83$).

Research Question 4: Race & Ethnicity & Teacher Motivations: Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) show statistically significant differences between respondents based on race and ethnicity in terms of the perception that teaching as a profession carries *great rewards and no drawbacks*, $F(4, 47) = 3.90, p < .05$. Post hoc analyses (Bonferroni) indicate that Middle Eastern students ($M = 3.67, SD = .52$) had more positive beliefs about the rewards inherent in teaching than African American ($M = 2.44, SD = 1.01$) and Caucasian students ($M = 2.41, SD = .68$). Further, ANOVA results show that Caucasian students differ statistically significantly from Hispanic students in the belief that the *benefits of teaching outweigh the costs*, $F(4, 46) = 3.64, p < .05$. Post hoc analyses (Bonferroni) indicate that Caucasian students ($M = 3.79, SD = .49$) had more positive beliefs than Hispanic students ($M = 3.00, SD = .71$) about teaching being a rewarding career.

Research Question 5: Teacher Concerns: An examination of respondent concerns about the teaching profession reveal that nearly half are extremely concerned about behavior management issues in their future career (46.2%). Many respondents (78.8%) agreed that they saw children's negative behaviors as one of the most important concerns they would confront in their careers.

Discussion

This study's findings have implications for teacher preparation, recruitment, and retention. The current sample of pre-service teachers indicated that their primary motivations for entering the teaching profession were their enjoyment of working with children and their desire to serve children from disadvantaged backgrounds. These findings are consistent with suggestions in the literature (Werner, 1993). Also, consistent with past research (Kyriacou, et al., 1999), the respondents cited altruistic and extrinsic motivators (such as convenience of work hours) as influencing their choice.

While these findings agree with earlier studies, an issue that has great relevance to teacher retention is the respondents' expectations. Although most respondents saw academic variations as a part of a normal classroom, most indicated that they preferred to work with academically high-achieving children. They also indicated a preference for working in a setting precluding behavioral disorders. Furthermore, a sizeable percentage of respondents indicated an unwillingness to work with inattentive or disruptive children. These findings are a cause for concern because prior

research (Kyriacou, et al., 1999) has indicated that stressful workloads and disruptive students, among other factors, often cause teachers to leave teaching for a new career. The current sample of pre-service teachers may be high-attrition risks in light of such findings.

In addition, high-need schools often have a greater proportion of students with academic or behavioral difficulties than other schools. Children from disadvantaged backgrounds are likely to face an even greater disadvantage, if a significant proportion of pre-service teachers begin their teaching careers with aversions to working with such children.

The current study also highlights gender differences in teacher motivations. More female than male respondents indicated willingness to work with academically low-achieving or disruptive children. Additionally, males indicated that they expected a higher income than females did. These findings may be significant, given that fewer males than females enter the teaching profession. Inadequate remuneration may well serve as an explanation for why fewer males decide to become teachers. Those who enter the teaching profession expecting a higher salary may leave the profession disappointed. The shortage of qualified male and female teachers in high-risk schools is likely to be exacerbated by salary dissatisfaction among teachers.

Race and ethnicity also appeared to be associated with respondents' motivations and expectations of a teaching career. Altruistic factors appear to be more salient for minority students who perceive teaching as an inherently more rewarding career. The concerns expressed by many respondents about children's disruptive behaviors appear to represent a formidable challenge for several new teachers, one that most feel they are ill equipped to handle.

Limitations

The current study had several limitations. To begin with, the sample was a convenience sample; consequently, the extent to which the findings can be generalized is limited. A second limitation of the current study stems from the limited reliability of the instrument. However, the fact that this was a pilot study allows for improvement of the psychometric properties of the questionnaire. Finally, the current study did not have an equitable distribution of males and females to allow a more meaningful exploration of gender differences in teacher motivations and expectations.

Conclusion

This study raises crucial issues relating to teacher preparation and recruitment. These issues seem especially relevant in the context of high-risk schools, which often serve children with academic or behavioral challenges. While pre-service teachers often may cite altruistic motives for choosing teaching as a career and indicate an awareness of challenges inherent in the profession, current attrition rates may indicate that such awareness is insufficient preparation for success when working at a high-risk school. Indicating that one welcomes the opportunity to work with children having behavioral disorders, but would prefer not to work with inattentive and disruptive children reveals a dichotomy that may leave pre-service teachers unprepared for the rigors of teaching challenging and disadvantaged students. Teacher education programs need to target these issues. One small step toward solving the problem might be to offer courses that examine and tackle pre-service teachers' unrealistic expectations of a teaching career. Another important intervention might be to offer courses and workshops that focus on teaching at high-risk schools. Finally, pre-service teachers may need to be required to obtain mandatory field experiences or practicum experiences in high-risk settings as part of a regular teacher education program. Further research is needed to refine the measurement of these issues to create meaningful and effective interventions that benefit children in high-risk settings.

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Associate of Arts in Teaching Degrees: Promoting Partnerships in Teacher Preparation, by Carol Lanning

Author Bio

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Article

In December 2000, members of the Illinois Community College Board (ICCB) identified enhancing the role of the community college in teacher preparation as one of its top priorities. The Board identified this priority after studies showed that more than 60% of the graduates of teacher preparation programs at public universities in Illinois earn some credits from a community college. Furthermore, 44% of teacher education graduates complete a year or more of their programs at a community college (ICCB, 2000). In addition, the accessibility of the statewide community college system, the nation's third largest, provides the opportunity to tap new pools of potential teachers, particularly in communities that are located in hard-to-serve areas or that have large minority populations.

Illinois has a well-established, voluntary statewide articulation initiative, which supports successful transfer for tens of thousands of students annually. However, in the field of teacher preparation, articulation issues have been complicated by reforms that required the state's teacher preparation programs to move to standards-based curricula that meet both Illinois and NCATE standards. It became clear that if community college programs are to be full partners in preparing the state's teachers, they also must be connected to the standards reform process.

In September 2002, the University of Illinois P-16 Collaborative formed a steering committee in cooperation with the Illinois Board of Higher Education, the ICCB, and the Illinois State Board of Education, with the mission of developing models for an Associate of Arts in Teaching degree. Representatives of public universities, community colleges, and the three state education agencies came together to undertake this task. The primary goal was to develop degree models that will attract students into high-need teaching disciplines and allow students who complete the degree to have equal status with those from four-year institutions.

A set of general principles was developed that continue to guide the development of these degree models:

- A degree model is a general framework within which community colleges may develop specific degrees in accordance with institutional policies and priorities.
- For most teaching specialties, the Illinois Articulation Initiative (IAI) General Education Common Core and one additional mathematics course will be appropriate. For some teaching specialties, it may be necessary to identify specific courses within the general education core, or the core may need to be modified.
- Core language arts standards and standards related to global diversity and multiculturalism should be met through the general education component of the degree. Core technology standards may be met with an educational technology course or may be infused throughout the general education component.
- Passing the Enhanced Test of Basic Skills will be a requirement for program completion. It is recommended that the test be administered no later than the point at which students have accumulated 45 semester hours and that remediation be provided for students who are not successful

in their first attempt to pass the test.

- Alignment of Illinois State Board of Education and National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education standards with Associate of Arts in Teaching degree models will be accomplished by groups of faculty from community colleges and four-year institutions.
- Early field experiences need to begin in the first two years of a future teacher's preparation, regardless of whether a student begins at a community college or at a four-year institution.
- Community colleges should adopt a process for admission to Associate of Arts in Teaching programs for purposes of advising and career development.
- Maintaining close communication between teacher education programs at community colleges and those at four-year-institutions is critical to providing smooth articulation and addressing problems as they arise. Each institution should formally designate a contact person to ensure a clear pathway for communication.

To date, Associate of Arts in Teaching degree models have been approved by the education boards in Secondary Mathematics, Secondary Science, Early Childhood Education, and Special Education. A key step in creating buy-in to these models has been involving the community college and four-year-institution faculty workgroups that linked professional teaching standards to the models, identified appropriate artifacts demonstrating mastery of the standards, and developed sample course syllabi for selected courses. The course/standards matrices and sample syllabi that were developed are available on the ICCB website (<http://www.iccb.org/HTML/what/aat/html>). Community colleges that choose to offer these degrees must develop programs that are consistent with the models and receive approval from both ICCB and the Illinois Board of Higher Education.

The discussion and collaboration that this initiative has fostered between the faculty and administrators of community colleges and four-year institutions has been, and continues to be, a critical factor in the initiative's success. Although the Steering Committee initially included only public university representation, it quickly became apparent that the private university sector must be included as well. Following the adoption of the first Associate of Arts in Teaching degree model in Secondary Mathematics, the Steering Committee structure was revised to include tri-chairs that represented community colleges, public universities and private universities. Additional representatives of private universities have been invited to serve on the committee. The implementation of these degree programs provides the opportunity to develop and enhance partnerships between community colleges and four-year institutions in the preparation of teachers in areas of high need.

For more information about the Associate of Arts in Teaching degree models and/or the community colleges that have approved these programs, contact the author at 217-524-5502 or carol.lanning@illinois.gov.

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Principal Performance in High-Need Schools, *by Kristine Servais and Kellie Sanders*

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Abstract

The emergence of new leadership theories and practices during the past decade indicates a need to reexamine the methods by which leaders prepare, develop, and perform. Principals have been recognized for having a significant impact and being a catalyst for change, particularly in high-need schools. Although there is limited research on the impact of principals on student achievement, leadership is second only to classroom instruction among the factors that contribute to student success (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom, 2004). Three leadership factors that affect high-need schools will be examined in this article: 1) the motivation for becoming a principal; 2) preparation and professional development of principals; and 3) approaches for adapting to diverse environments. Findings suggest that leaders must be trained in diverse settings, and that the training should employ new theories of leadership, professional standards, frameworks, and active reflection to provide effective leadership.

Introduction

“In our past explorations, the tradition was to discover something and then formulate it into answers and solutions that could be widely transferred. But now we are on a journey of mutual and simultaneous exploration... All we can expect from one another is new and interesting information. We can not expect answers. Solutions, as quantum reality teaches, are a temporary event specific to context, developed through the relationship of persons and circumstances” (Wheatley, 1992, p. 150).

The school principal’s job is riddled with questions and difficulties arising from relationships among people, circumstances, and contexts. Principals must have the ability to construct meaning and seek solutions as learners as well as leaders (Reeves, 2006). This article will explore factors that contribute to the successful performance of principals in high-need schools.

Principals are credited with having significant influence and being catalysts for change, particularly in high-need schools. There is limited research on the impact of principals on student achievement, but leadership is second only to classroom instruction among the factors recognized to contribute to student success (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Although demographics are linked directly to student achievement, professional practices in leadership can be even more significant (Reeves, 2006). Three leadership factors that particularly affect high-need schools will be examined in this article: 1) the motivation for becoming a principal; 2) preparation and professional development; and 3) approaches for adapting to diverse environments.

New Leadership Theories

The emergence of new leadership theories and practices during the past decade indicates a need to re-examine the

methods by which leaders prepare, develop, and perform. New theories suggest that leadership is an increasingly complex function that requires the ability to change, build relationships with all stakeholders, and confront problems. These theories and emerging models of leadership focus on establishing relationships, shared values, and moral responsibilities (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003), as well as on the need for leadership skills in interpersonal relationships, facilitation, and problem solving.

A leader must be able to build and maintain relationships with all stakeholders within the school community (Thomas, Holdaway, & Ward, 2000; Davis & Hensley, 1999). An effective school administrator is supportive, communicative, an effective manager of resources, and politically aware (Ediger, 2001; Lindahl, 2001; Lepard, 2002). Only recently has an extensive meta-analysis been conducted to study the impact of leadership on improved student success (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). This research strongly supports a link between effective leadership behaviors and student achievement.

The complex role of today's principal requires a variety of skills and actions tailored to each diverse learning environment. Two questions that must be addressed: 1) How do educational programs prepare aspiring leaders for the complex, unpredictable, and constantly changing environments in which they will lead; 2) How can principals receive continuous professional development that will enable them to address demands for significant improvement of teaching and learning?

Competent and culturally sensitive school leaders can build partnerships between colleges and school districts that will help attract talented college-educated adults to new careers as teachers in high-need schools. Recent studies clearly demonstrate that socioeconomic disadvantages do not automatically inhibit learning. In most high-poverty schools, the achievement gap arises from inadequate instruction that cannot overcome the deficits with which children enter school. Kati Haycock, founder of the Education Trust, asserts that:

“If we but took the simple step of assuring that poor and minority children had teachers of the same quality as other children, about half of the achievement gap would disappear. If we went further and assigned best teachers to the students who most need them... There's persuasive evidence to suggest that we could entirely close the gap” (*Thinking K-16*, 1998, pg. 3).

Leadership can bridge the gap between inadequate teacher instruction and high-performing teachers. Increasingly, the necessity to train and retain principals for diverse settings has become critical to meeting school performance and competency requirements. The challenge that contemporary school leaders face is demonstrating competencies in contexts and circumstances for which they have not been specifically trained. As Margaret Wheatley has noted, “There are no recipes or formula, no checklists or advice that describes ‘reality.’ There is only what we create through our engagement with others and with events. Nothing really transfers; everything is always new and different and unique to each of us” (1994, p. 7).

Motivation for Becoming a Principal

One of the factors that must be considered in the examination of successful school leadership is the motivation for becoming a principal. The literature on educational leadership identifies many inhibitors in developing and retaining effective leaders. These inhibitors include role complexity, time demands, and stress (Trampas, 2006). As a result, a great number of school leaders are choosing to resign or retire. In addition, many educators who have earned administrative certification are not choosing to become principals and have no desire to do so. Motivation appears to be a critical factor in the decision to pursue this vocation. A recent study of leadership candidates who chose to become principals suggests that they wished to make a difference, to have a positive impact on students, and to initiate change (Trampas, 2006). Improved preparation and continuous professional development are essential to

attracting and retaining high-performing principals. Induction and mentoring programs are needed to strengthen the competence and performance of inexperienced principals.

Leadership Preparation and Professional Development

Educational leadership programs long have attempted to provide aspiring leaders with the ideal balance of theoretical knowledge and practice experience. Because the environment and circumstances of different schools require diverse leadership styles, an extensive range of skills is critical to the long-term success of a school leader. Educational leadership programs have attempted to identify the knowledge and skill sets most vital for the beginning principal. Successful preparation programs are characterized by rigorous standards and the correct mixture of theory and practice, which allows leadership candidates to adapt to varied settings.

Superior educational administrative programs exhibit high quality in three areas: content, methods, and structure (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). The content of an educational administrative program includes professional standards, a logical sequence of courses, and principles based on adult learning theory. Professional standards have evolved from a variety of sources, organizations, and programs as a means to provide greater continuity in training and assessing leadership. The standards of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) have been utilized by many researchers as a framework for preparing and assessing leadership (Amsterdam, Johnson, Monrad, & Tonnsen, 2003; Lepard, 2002). The ISLLC standards are designed to provide leaders with a comprehensive conceptual framework for understanding effective professional leadership. This framework consists of six standards with multiple indicators that emphasize leadership knowledge, dispositions, and competencies. Each standard begins with a statement promoting student learning and success: "The competent school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students..." (Wilmore, 2002, p. 19).

While the standards provide a conceptual framework for leaders that is adaptable to any school setting, the indicators discuss in detail the application of knowledge, dispositions, and actions that leaders need to internalize for successful leadership. Effective program methods include field placements in schools, which give candidates an opportunity to hone their problem-solving, management, and leadership skills. An experiential approach is essential to allow candidates to discover their identities, leadership styles, and beliefs. Administrative mentors who model, provide support, and share feedback are fundamental to the development of each leadership candidate. Much like the student-teaching experience, leadership training must provide an opportunity to apply theory to practice under the supervision of a school administrator and faculty from the leadership program. This field experience is especially critical for candidates who desire to be principals in high-need schools. Unfortunately, many teachers who enter educational administrative programs have had neither teaching nor field experience in a school with significant socioeconomic or ethnic diversity.

Adult learning theory, or andragogy, provides a framework for effective adult learning and teaching. Andragogy is the basis for many professional development recommendations (Peery, 2005, pg. 17). Adults need to be involved in their own instruction by planning it, implementing it, and evaluating its effectiveness.

Adult learning activities should be rooted in learners' experiences and should be problem-based rather than content- or theory-based. Adults need to see immediate and direct applications to their jobs and personal lives if they are to be invested in the learning process. Adults often see themselves as the sum total of their experiences, making it important that their self worth is honored by the learning experience (Perry, 2005). Adult learners also benefit from the use of cohorts or teams.

Finally, an effective leadership program structure must provide a seamless partnership between schools and educational administration programs. Not only does each partner contribute to the success of the program and its candidates, but the partners gain reciprocal benefits as well. For example, participating schools gain access to the most current issues and training methods for leadership development.

Leadership Adapted to Diverse Settings

It is a challenge for leadership programs to provide both a comprehensive foundation of knowledge and the appropriate tools and training for specific settings. Leadership candidates rarely foresee where they ultimately will be called upon to lead. After obtaining an administrative certificate, leadership candidates usually enter the field as assistant principals, often at diverse schools that have experienced high turnover in administrators. Although highly motivated, these first-year leaders face the learning-curve challenges of any first-year administrator as well as the particular challenges of leading a high-need school. More experienced principals also require new strategies that take into account the diverse needs of learners while also addressing low student achievement. The present tendency to blame the student, parents, or their ethnicity or culture results in continued failed performance for both the victims and the school's leaders (Reeves, 2006). Rather, leaders must be prepared to adapt to diverse cultures using three specific alternatives: multiple frameworks, self-assessment, and reflective practice.

According to Bolman and Deal (2003), frameworks serve multiple functions as a mental map of ideas and assumptions, a window to the world of leadership and management, and a set of varied tools for navigation. Frameworks are best utilized when multiple viewpoints are needed, which allows them to either validate an understanding or provide new insights. Multi-frame thinking allows for greater likelihood of success in choosing applications or new options, or for clarifying a unique circumstance (Bolman and Deal, 2003).

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) have identified a framework of 21 leadership responsibilities and the practices associated with each. This framework is best suited to the principal who wishes to maximize the correlation between each leadership practice and student achievement (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). These categories support the transformational leadership work of Bass (Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004), which has proven useful in diverse cultural and organizational contexts. Transformational leadership includes a framework of behaviors that builds relationships and a shared vision in each unique learning environment (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999).

Servais and Sanders (2006) provide a framework of ten essentials of collaborative leadership in their book *The Courage to Lead: Choosing the Road Less Traveled*. This framework can be adapted to individual and organizational development in diverse settings. In addition, each chapter provides multiple frameworks for building a learning community, culture, teams, transformational leadership, and mentoring.

The *Dimensions of Leadership* by Douglass Reeves presents a framework that allows leaders to capitalize on their strengths using a wide range of leadership skills (2006). While all of these dimensions cannot be developed by a single leader, each dimension should be demonstrated by members of a leadership team. These seven dimensions include vision, relationship building, systems development, collaboration, reflection, analysis, and communication.

Leadership self-assessment is an evaluation practice that is being used in many schools and organizations (White, Crooks, and Melton, 2002). The primary purpose of leadership self-assessment is to promote the growth and development of those who are being evaluated (Weaver-Hart, 1994; Marcoux, Brown, Irby, & Lara-Alecio, 2003). A leader's primary purpose in any school environment should be teaching and learning: "The fundamental purpose of leadership evaluation is the improvement of teaching and learning through the building of knowledge and skill of current and prospective educational leaders" (Reeves, 2004, p.16). However, leadership development and

performance assessment overall is random, rare, and arbitrary (Reeves, 2004). Self-assessment, on the other hand, may be the primary method by which many leaders can be evaluated continuously. Leaders who have an insight into their own leadership competencies are more likely to improve both their performance and their potential (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998). One example of a comprehensive self-assessment is the leadership standards framework. The standards framework provides a means of self-assessment for administrative candidates, as well as for practicing principals (Servais & Sanders, 2006).

Reflective practice is a means for continuous learning and improvement, which can be conducted by individuals, small groups, and the entire school community (York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere, Montie, 2001). Reflective practice can provide new understanding and perspective for leaders. This is particularly significant in diverse settings where the leader may not have previous experience or understanding. Skills in questioning, inquiry, and change contribute to meaningful reflection. The commitment by administrators to work together as learning partners creates the conditions for active reflection. These partners may choose to use interactive journaling, cognitive coaching, conversations, readings, case studies, or shared problems as a means of reflection. Distributive leadership is necessary to address the needs of schools today. Activities such as learning partners, teams, reflective practice, and self-assessments enhance this model of collaborative leaders.

Leaders must be willing to construct new meaning from each leadership experience as an opportunity to learn and grow. A constructivist learning setting differs greatly from one based on the traditional model. In the constructivist classroom, the teacher becomes a guide for the learner, providing scaffolding to support the learner's zone of proximal development. The student is encouraged to develop metacognitive skills, such as reflective thinking and problem-solving techniques. Independent learners are intrinsically motivated to generate, discover, build, and enlarge their own framework of knowledge. This theory of learning is very useful for preparing school leaders and their administrators for fieldwork.

A basic principle of constructivism is learning as an active social process that is contextual rather than isolated and dependent on knowledge to assimilate new meaning. Brooks and Brooks (1993) summarize this fundamental leadership concept: "Constructivism describes a learner-centered environment where knowledge and the making of knowledge are interactive, inductive, and collaborative, where multiple perspectives are represented, and where questions are valued."

In summary, the development of competent leaders who can help close the achievement gap in diverse settings remains a formidable challenge. Diverse schools need leaders who are motivated, appropriately trained, and able to utilize a variety of skills. Competent and reflective leaders can create a positive learning environment that can attract and retain high-performing teachers. Leaders must be trained in diverse settings and must use new theories of leadership and professional standards, frameworks, and active reflection to provide effective leadership.

Because a constructivist approach offers a wide range of tools for leaders in diverse settings, this approach is especially beneficial for educating leaders. Likewise, aspiring leaders must be prepared to construct meaning from multiple perspectives in the diverse educational setting in which they lead. Failure to adequately train leaders and provide them with meaningful professional development will continue to adversely affect schools with low student achievement and will affect retention levels negatively. Leadership does make a difference – it could be the single most important factor in turning high-need schools into high-achievement schools.

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Increasing Racial and Ethnic Diversity in the Teaching Corps, *by Victoria Chou*

Author Bio

Victoria Chou has served as Dean of the College of Education at University of Illinois-Chicago since 1996. Previously, she was a classroom teacher, a reading specialist, a teacher educator, and a reading researcher. She has secured numerous grants to support the preparation and professional development of excellent teachers for students in Chicago's historically underserved neighborhood schools. She chairs UIC's Council on Teacher Education, is Co-Chair of the Steering Committee of the Consortium on Chicago School Research, and chairs the governing board of the National Teachers Academy-Professional Development School.

Article

Academics and policymakers have pointed to the growing racial imbalance between the student population and the teaching force in our nation's public schools. While students from racial and ethnic minorities comprise approximately one-third of school enrollments, teachers from those groups comprise only one-tenth of the nation's teaching force. It is widely accepted that increasing the racial and ethnic diversity of our teacher corps is an important goal.

A more diverse teaching force, however, makes little sense as an end in itself. Presumably, it is a means to other educational goals, which are likely to vary with the educational context. Two reasons typically offered for diversifying the teaching corps in the nation's schools are as follows: 1) Teachers from backgrounds similar to their students will be better able to respond to their students' cultural histories and experiences; and 2) All students are thought to need role models who resemble themselves. Assuming that academic qualifications are equal, African American teachers are thought to be best equipped to teach African American students, and Mexican American teachers are thought to be best equipped to teach Mexican American students.

The trouble with this decontextualized reasoning is that it doesn't respond well to the realities of most urban and middle-class suburban school districts. Most predominantly white communities seek sufficient Black, Latino, and other minority teachers to "diversify" a predominantly white teaching force. But in Chicago, more than half the schools are either exclusively African American or Latino or close to that. Principals in such schools, particularly those with all African American student enrollments, often are faced with the challenge of diversifying the teaching staff by hiring more white teachers. But few educators believe that the goal of such diversity efforts is to provide better role models or more culturally responsive teachers. Instead, the goal is to meet some general ethic of "diversity" that may or may not serve the children well. What would it take for these teachers to be effective for these children—and to seek out such positions in the first place?

If we believe that all students benefit from a racially and ethnically diverse teacher corps, then we must improve significantly our recruitment, preparation, and support of all teacher candidates who want to learn to teach successfully in low-income, ethnically segregated communities where the majority of our African American and Latino students reside. We must recognize the cultural and class differences among teachers of color, who may or may not be able to connect to students' lives; we also must recognize how important it is to develop the ways in which all teacher candidates understand themselves in relation to others before being supported in developing pedagogy that is based in the students' culture.

When seeking more teachers of color for predominantly white, integrated suburban environments, different challenges arise. To date, the number of teachers of color hired in such environments is so small that their contact with the students of color in those schools is limited. It is fair to ask whether higher education has targeted resources adequately to recruit and prepare prospective teachers of color in sufficient numbers so that they can compete

effectively for positions in better-funded school districts.

Schools and colleges of education are not meeting the needs of either urban, low-income environments or middle-income suburban environments. The diversity goals in each case are different, and teacher preparation programs will do well to target those differences.