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Creating Crisis

How California Teaching Policies Aggravate Racial Inequality in Public Schools

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ERASE Initiative (Expose Racism & Advance School Excellence)

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Table of Contents:

[Introduction](#)

[What's Going On?](#)

[Who's Teaching California's Schoolchildren?](#)

[Pathways to Teaching](#)

[A Look at Seven School Districts](#)

[Views from the Trenches: Recruitment, Braving the CBEST, Support for New Teachers](#)

[Recommendations](#)

[Bibliography](#)

[Glossary of Terms and Abbreviations](#)

Introduction

“The shortage of teachers in California is self-inflicted.”

-Dr. Linda Darling-Hammond, Professor of Education, Stanford University

“We really need more new teachers and the district says they want to hire them, but sometimes I think they don’t mean it, because they make it so hard. They make it especially hard for teachers of color. It costs so much to go to college, and then there is the CBEST and all those other tests, and then they throw teachers into the classroom with nobody to help them. No wonder a lot of them quit.”

- An experienced teacher reflects on what she sees

“It’s amazing that we have had so little revolt among students of color. Our institutions have been so

successful at conditioning our kids to just take it. In spite of all the inequality, the daily stresses of living with the racism of the schools, the young people still have this abiding hope that things will get better.”

- Henry Der, Deputy State Superintendent of Schools

California has a teaching crisis. In the 1997-98 school year, the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing issued a record 33,994 emergency teaching permits and credential waivers. In the summer of 1999, school district recruiters will scramble to find 27,000 new teachers. Abundant evidence shows that well trained, fully credentialed teachers can help students reach their academic potential. That is not what is happening in California today. The teacher shortage is, in effect, also a crisis in teaching quality, and thus, a crisis of the entire public school system.

Given the need, it would seem that state education officials and local districts would move decisively to sweep away barriers to recruitment. Instead, teacher training programs are full of roadblocks to the aspiring teacher-including high costs, standardized tests which bear no measurable relationship to teaching success, and low pay and lack of respect for those who do jump the hurdles. And once hired, the new teachers find few supports to help them become successful in their new profession.

Perhaps most alarming is the disproportionate impact of the teacher crisis. The highest-need schools, mostly in large urban areas, bear the brunt of the crisis. These schools have the highest concentrations of people of color, low-income students, and those whose primary language is not English. Yet these schools also have the majority of the state's undercredentialed teachers. This situation aggravates existing racial, economic, and academic inequities.

In the past 30 years, the racial and cultural face of the student population has changed dramatically-California's public school students today are 60% of color, frequently born into homes where English is not their parents' language, and often foreign born. Yet there has been little change in the racial composition of the teaching force-nearly four out of five of the state's teachers are white. Though being academically proficient in teaching does not depend on one's race, the ability to understand and relate to students often has everything to do with race.

California's teaching force has been, and will likely continue to be, in a permanent state of emergency unless major interventions are undertaken. This self-inflicted crisis can be remedied by concerted action for change by all the involved parties.

As anyone concerned with education knows, there is a voluminous body of literature on every educational problem. There are also vast numbers of experiments, initiatives and innovative models in the field. Although this report makes extensive reference to the literature, its focus derives from interviews. Over a period of three months, the Applied Research Center talked about the teaching crisis with scores of individuals associated with K-12 public education in seven key California school districts: Los Angeles, Long Beach, San Diego, Fresno City, San Francisco, Oakland, and San Jose. Interview subjects included teachers, paraprofessionals, school administrators, students, parents, present and past school board members, and district recruitment officers. Most interviews were conducted face-to-face, and where appropriate, in the subjects' work settings. ARC also interviewed members of the education faculties at private universities and at various schools in the California State University system, as well as highly placed administrators at the state Department of Education.

Based on this research, this report outlines dimensions of the problem from training to recruitment to retention. It describes who currently teaches and examines teacher education. It includes short descriptions of the form the teaching crisis takes in the state's seven largest districts. And, to give the full flavor of the problem as those at the ground level experience it, this report adds extended accounts from a teacher recruiter, a teaching candidate taking the CBEST test, and an experienced teacher of color watching newcomers be disempowered and unsupported by the system. Finally the report makes recommendations about how to correct some of the problems it describes.

No short report on the teaching crisis can pretend to be exhaustive. Although many facets of the problem are dealt with here, other very significant ones are not touched upon. In particular, this document leaves aside the thorny issues created by fragmented governance of education. Local school boards, the state Department of Education, the unions (California Teachers Association and California Federation of Teachers), organized parents, right-wing ideologues with repressive agendas, and politicians at every level and of every stripe vie to preserve and extend their influence over the schools. All of this activity plays an important role, but this report focuses on the quantity, quality, and racial equity issues in the created crisis in teaching.

What's Going On?

In examining the state of teacher recruitment for the largest districts in California, we find that no district has all of the teachers needed for this fall. Almost 1,055 California school districts will attempt to recruit and hire some 27,000 teachers. Some harried recruitment officers find themselves scrambling to hire as many as 100 teachers in two summer months. Interviews with administrators responsible for hiring have uncovered the following trends:

The teaching shortage in California schools has forced administrators into a year-round recruitment crisis. The California State Department of Finance projects that the school population will grow from the current 5.8 million students to approximately

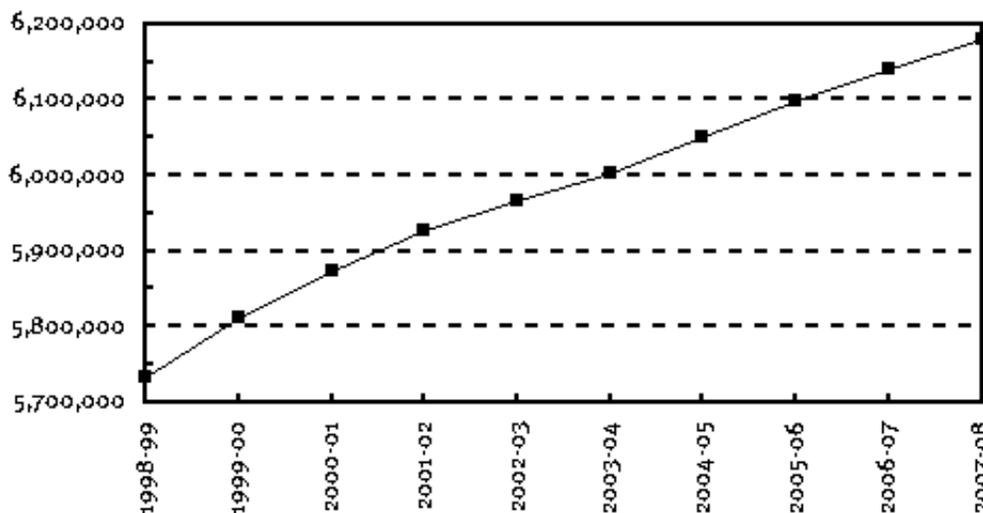
6.2 million in the 2007-08 school year, 70% of whom will be students of color, and at least one-fourth of whom will not speak English as their first language. (This projection may well be low; actual school population has already outstripped the Department's

projections for the 1997-98 school year.) As a result, there is a shortage of teachers, and particularly, teachers with special skills. As Archie Polanco, Executive Director of the Human Services Division of the San Diego School District, observes, "We have to recruit from many different states all year round. It's expensive and labor-intensive."

A number of factors have contributed to the serious teacher shortage, among them:

- A school population that increases by as many as 145,000 students each year;
- An aging teaching corps whose retirement rate hovers around 5% per year;
- A further 5% annual loss of teachers through other forms of attrition, including a 30% attrition rate for teachers in their first three years of teaching
- A grade 1-3 class size reduction program, which will expand to other grades; and
- A precipitous drop in funds available for public schools, dating from the passage of Proposition 13 in 1978.

Chart 1: California's Projected K-12 Public School Population 1999-2008



A conservative estimate puts California's new teacher requirements over the next 10 years somewhere between 270,000 and 480,000, depending on class size goals:

New hires needed 1999 - 2008

24 students per teacher (current average)	270,000
20 students per teacher (current goal)	324,000
17 students per teacher (current national average)	381,200

(Computations assume an average annual attrition rate of 10%)

Although many districts have cultivated relationships with teacher preparation programs in the California State University system and private college teacher-training programs, and have "grown their own" through teacher training programs for district paraprofessionals, the supply of teachers trained in California, approximately 22,000 per year, is not enough to meet the demand. Projections based on the very high student teacher ratio of 20:1 show that if California continues to train the same number of teachers per year and is unable to stem attrition (the yearly loss of approximately 10% of the teaching profession), in the 2000-2001 school year the state will be short 30,000 teachers. This number will increase to 50,000 by the 2002-2003 school year, and by the 2005-2006 school year, California will be short 80,000 teachers. (California Department of Finance)

<p>CALIFORNIA'S TEACHER SHORTAGE</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ California is short nearly 34,000 credentialed teachers ■ California is projected to need
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nearly 300,000 new teachers in the next 10 years. That averages to 30,000 new teachers needed each year.

- Currently, about 20,000 people are recommended for full teaching credentials in California each year, leaving a shortfall of nearly 10,000 teachers per year.

(Source: California Journal, March 1999)

This burden of teacher recruitment disproportionately affects urban school districts. As public education expert John I. Goodlad observes, “Children in advantaged communities enjoy the advantage of a stable teaching force; many of the disadvantaged experience only a succession of substitutes.” (Goodlad, 1997)

Last year, Oakland Unified School District, which employs a total of 2,780 teachers, had to recruit 540 new teachers before the start of school (California Department of Education). It is a vicious cycle. Urban schools with financial and/or student performance problems tend to be less appealing to prospective teachers. The same school systems are often, and quite properly, the targets of parent activists and journalists who expose their failings. But this too can hurt recruitment. Steve Costa, Executive Director of Oakland’s Sharing the Vision Project, points out that this is happening in his city, where the superintendent and the board’s policies have met repeated criticism. “The public debates we’ve been having in this district in the past six months are going to have a major impact on teachers wanting to come work here. We’re going to have to come up with a package of incentives or we’re going to end up with hundreds of substitute positions.” (Slater, 1999)

In the face of the current teacher shortage, the California Commission of Teaching Credentialing issues emergency permits to qualified individuals who do not yet have a teaching credential. Candidates for an emergency permit must:

- Possess a bachelor’s degree
- Pass the California Basic Education Skills Test (CBEST)
- Have some knowledge of the subject they will teach (for middle or high school teachers)

Currently approximately 13% of California’s teachers hold emergency credentials, but these teachers are not evenly distributed around the state. Teachers with emergency permits are concentrated in school districts with higher concentrations of poor students and students of color. For example, in the Los Angeles County Unified School District (89% of whose students are young people of color) 18% of all teachers hold emergency credentials. By comparison, nearby Beverly Hills Unified School District (which is 80% white) does not even accept applications from teachers without a regular credential. According to the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, only 5% of Beverly Hills’ teachers have emergency credentials. (CTC 1998)

FACTS

- In the 1997-98 school year, the

ABOUT CALIFORNIA'S EMERGENCY TEACHERS

California Commission on Teacher Credentialing issued a record 33,994 emergency permits and waivers (where even the requirements for emergency permits are not met).

- Emergency teachers include (1) credentialed teachers teaching out of their subject area, (2) uncredentialed individuals who meet the minimum emergency permit requirements of having a bachelor's degree and have passed the CBEST, and (3) uncredentialed individuals who have had some or all of the emergency permit requirements waived because there are not enough teachers available who even meet these requirements.
- If a district is unable to attract enough fully credentialed teachers, it can declare an emergency, enabling it to hire teachers with emergency permits and waivers.
- Most emergency permits are concentrated in urban districts. A majority of them are for teachers in Los Angeles County.
- Emergency teaching permits are valid for no more than one year.
- Emergency teachers are required to take six semester units of course work per year in order to progress toward a standard credential.
- Most emergency teachers are teaching special education, math, and science.

Information compiled from 1996 report by the

*Institute for Education Reform: A State of
Emergency, CSU IER, 1996 and CTC*

How will California meet the state's teacher recruitment needs? Some educators argue that there is a ready-made constituency of school paraprofessionals, teaching assistants who have years of experience working with students. "All we have to do," argues one proponent, "is teach them to teach." One advocate of this approach is Dr. Celia Reyes, seminar leader for The Model Support System for Paraprofessionals (MSSP) in Tulare County. She states that we "have to recruit people with insight, like these paraprofessionals who are going to stay in the profession." The California School Paraprofessional Teacher Training Program enables 600 teachers to work toward earning their credential, which has proved to be a good investment that may be well worth expanding.

Another dimension of the crisis is the need to train teachers willing and able to competently teach in hard-to-staff urban schools, particularly teachers of color. As Claudette Leffall-Hardy, an African American teacher in the Fresno School system, observes, "Kids need to be able to relate to the teacher they see in front of them every day." Fernando Zeladòn, a third grade teacher at 66th Street Elementary School in South Central Los Angeles—a predominantly Latino and Black neighborhood—believes that his all-Latino class benefits from having a teacher who speaks Spanish. He feels that "they can always turn to me and talk to me." Zeladòn argues that it is important to recruit more teachers of color because "the things that my kids do, I did, and some of these teachers coming in from the outside cannot relate." Many school districts make an attempt to recruit teachers who reflect the racial and language backgrounds of their students. This is important, argues Dr. Sharon Whitehurst Payne, Human Resource Services Administrator of the San Diego Unified School District, because "to be successful in our district, teachers must have some experience or exposure to at least one group of people of color, and preferably more than one. That's why I have no scruples about affirmative action."

Fewer than 23% of California's teachers are people of color (California Department of Education). Although educators generally agree that urban, community-based programs that foster the recruitment, training, certification, and retention of teachers of color are an important component in improving the quality of teaching in inner-city schools, anti-affirmative restrictions, especially California's Prop. 209, have put a major kink in recruitment and training. The small number of teachers of color has led to additional pressures on those currently teaching. As Dick LaBlans, chair of the math department at Berkeley High School, observes in a June 1999 East Bay Express article by Chris Thompson, "Not only are you a new teacher, not only are you doing the stuff that teachers do, but you are expected by the students [of color] to be a spokesperson on their issues. And it wears you out."

Whether or not teachers share the racial identity of their students, the ability to negotiate a number of cultures is an important set of skills many district recruiters look for. The Los Angeles Unified School District's intern program requires everyone to become certified in "Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development" either through course work or by passing the California Commission on Teacher Credential's CLAD exam. Norm Marcs, a coordinator of the program, explains why CLAD is a requirement: "Forty-five

percent of our student population are second language learners so you can't go anywhere in this district without having second language learning skills as a teacher. We feel it's really important to have those skills." LA program coordinator Mary Lewis echoes Marcs' sentiment. "The people who come into LA Unified know we are in an urban setting, so they have to make a real commitment to work with bilingual,

multicultural students.”

Despite the widely acknowledged need for teachers of color in California, recruitment of aspiring students of color into the traditional teacher training programs is simply not happening. There are mediocre recruitment and graduation rates of students of color in the private and state-supported teacher training programs and there are not enough statewide scholarships for students of color. As Archie Polanco observes, “The number of African Americans and Hispanics coming out of university [teacher preparation] programs is getting smaller and smaller each year.”

Dr. Linda Darling-Hammond at Stanford University’s Department of Education commented, “The number of students of color in our teacher training program doubled after the increases in Cal-T grants and APLE Loans,” the key financial aid programs for prospective teachers. But California has not done nearly as much as some states to help people of color become teachers. One of the more successful state programs for bringing in more teachers of color, according to Darling-Hammond is North Carolina’s Teacher Fellows program. The program, to date, has produced over 4,000 new teachers, nearly half of them teachers of color. Through careful identification and selection of good teaching candidates at an early age, and \$20,000 scholarships awarded to high school seniors who can choose between 14 university training programs, the state has made a long-term and cost-efficient investment in its teaching force. Other states have also initiated successful programs. Connecticut provides grants of up to \$20,000 to encourage people of color to become teachers. Florida has established a fund for minority teachers that provides \$4,000 per year to students pursuing a career in education. Both Virginia and West Virginia have established scholarship programs that especially support teachers of color and other educators working in areas of high need. (Hirsch et al., 1998)

In many states, teacher training programs for school paraprofessionals have proved to be most successful in attracting and retaining high numbers of teachers of color and teachers who go on to work in hard-to-staff schools. Yet California, with several successful paraprofessional training programs, still provides insufficient funding to them.

Prospective teachers who can afford to be in a traditional credentialing program typically get to serve as a student teacher, alongside an experienced teacher. There is little debate that the best way to learn teaching is to begin by being in a classroom with another teacher who can offer ongoing hands-on mentoring and assistance. Yet people who require an immediate salary while they are working towards obtaining a credential must often enroll in an alternative program where they have to hold down a full-time teaching job, alone in their own class, under an emergency permit. Aspiring teachers need more opportunities to earn a salary and teach alongside another teacher while they are being trained.

Inflexible test requirements for teaching candidates act as a barrier to certification, especially for teachers of color. New teachers come to the profession from a variety of backgrounds and experiences, including:

- young people who enter college knowing that they want to be teachers;
- college students who decide during their college career that they want to teach;
- college graduates with no education course work who are interested in teaching;
- professionals involved in other fields who are looking for a change;
- paraprofessionals who have experience with students and who may be interested in teaching; and teachers who have been certified to teach in other states and/or abroad who want to teach in

California schools.

Any system for recruiting, training, supporting, and assessing new teachers must be able to accommodate the interests, needs, and abilities of all of these constituencies and match them with the needs of the schools. Given these factors, the assessment method which is least likely to benefit new teachers of color or to evaluate teacher competence is the one which is presently employed: a battery of standardized tests.

In order to become fully certified, California teachers are required to have a bachelor’s degree and successfully complete one year of post-bachelor’s teacher preparation which must include both teaching experience and course work on the U.S. Constitution, health education, special education, and reading instruction. In addition to their course work, aspiring teachers must obtain passing scores on the California Basic Educational Skills Test (CBEST) and meet all subject matter requirements through completion of approved course work or passage of the Multiple Subject Assessment for Teaching (MSAT) and Reading Instruction Competency Assessment (RICA) for elementary school teachers and the Single Subject Assessment for Teaching (SSAT) for secondary school teachers.

<p>CREDENTIAL REQUIREMENTS FOR CALIFORNIA TEACHER</p>	<p>The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing requires the following minimum requirements in order to obtain a clear California teaching credential:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A bachelor’s degree. ▪ A passing score on the California Basic Educational Skills Test (CBEST). ▪ One year of post-graduate teacher preparation study with a grade of a C or better. ▪ Student teaching experience. Completion of a U.S. Constitution course. ▪ Completion of a reading instruction course, including the study of phonics. ▪ Evidence of subject matter competency through completion of approved course work or passage of the Multiple Subject Assessment for Teaching (MSAT) for elementary school teachers and the Single Subject Assessment for Teaching
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(SSAT) and Praxis exam for secondary school teachers.

- A passing score on the Reading Instruction Competency Assessment (RICA) test for elementary school teachers.
- Completion of a course in health education.
- Completion of a course in special education.

The standardized tests are a major barrier to the successful recruitment and retention of new teachers, especially teachers of color. Pass rates on the various teacher exams, disaggregated by race, reveal significant disparities:

- A 1998 study on pass rates and test validity of the MSAT conducted by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing found that 86% of whites passed the test, compared to 64% of Mexican Americans, 62% of Southeast Asians, and 47% of African Americans.
- A similar report in April 1999 on the RICA found that Southeast Asian and African American students had the lowest pass rates.
- A July 1993 report on pass rates of the CBEST found that 81% of whites passed the test, compared to 61% of Asian Americans, 52% of Mexican Americans, 49% of other Hispanics, and 41% of African Americans.
- An April 1999 report of the pass rates for the SSAT and the Professional Assessments for Beginning Teachers (Praxis exams) for the 1996-97 cohort were 49.3% for whites, 31.6% for Asian Americans, 27.5% for Mexican Americans, 25.7% for other Latinos, and 18% for African Americans.

These pass rates are problematic for all test takers, but they are a major barrier for the teaching population that the state most needs: African American, Mexican American, and Southeast Asian teachers. When tests are designed and utilized that consistently produce the outcomes that contradict the stated intentions of school administrators to broaden recruitment, the tests must be reassessed instead of the test takers.

Standardized tests are not only a problem for the teachers taking them. They are also a problem for the districts. The most common lament from school administrators was the description of a current teacher who was “an excellent teacher, good with students and parents-but we can’t get them certified.” It certainly is not in the interest of students to certify teachers who are poorly motivated, deficient in teaching methods, and unable to relate to students and parents, but there are no tests which assess these qualities. What the current tests do assess is the ability to ingest knowledge through a particular framework and to produce both the knowledge and the frame in a test situation. Certainly this is a skill. But is it the most important skill for teachers operating in California’s public schools?

Many teachers of color place state-mandated standardized tests in the same category as the SAT given to high school juniors and seniors. Burma Elom, a kindergarten teacher in San Diego County contends that “the CBEST and MSAT tests are racist and biased-just like the SAT. It doesn’t tell you whether you can teach or not. It doesn’t measure anything except how well you know how to take a test. The people who

put together those tests don't look like me or come from my frame of reference. It's better," she argues, "to use a portfolio with written samples, oral assessment, observation, and hands-on work." Janet Bernard, former teacher and current San Diego Director of Program and Resource Development for AVID-Advancement Via Individual Determination-agrees: "There need to be multiple measures besides standardized tests. Performance is what matters-you should have to show your ability to do something."

Working teachers and those who prepare them for the profession are well aware that there are problems with the credentialing tests. Liz Martinez, a second grade teacher at Stevenson Elementary School in Long Beach who didn't pass the MSAT on her first try, argues that the MSAT "doesn't predict if someone is going to be a good teacher. It takes a lot more than passing a test," she points out. "It takes being able to communicate with the students, which is the real test." Fernando Zeladòn feels that the MSAT was a barrier to many people he knows. "Most of the people I know who didn't finish it or pass it were immigrants. I know a lot of folks who were UCLA students and were from other countries and they took the MSAT and they failed it countless times." In order to receive the Multiple Subject Credential, one must pass the RICA. Zeladòn says that he is "thinking about not getting my credential because of it." Janet Castañas, Director of Teacher Education at the U.S. International University, contends that standardized testing doesn't measure critical thinking and the skills to understand, respect and value all cultures. "Why," she asks rhetorically, "aren't these considered skills? "

Dana Marden Newman, Associate Chair of the Teacher Education Department at Hayward State University, observes that the "Praxis exam tends to be an obstacle" for aspiring teachers who need to pass certain standardized tests in order to receive their credentials. Lisa Gutierrez Guzmán, veteran teacher and administrator in the San Francisco Unified School District, who took the MSAT four times before passing, asserts that the MSAT and CBEST "are a major barrier, especially for older people who've been out of college for a while." California's teaching tests also present significant obstacles for qualified teachers from other states and countries to become credentialed in California.

Low teacher salaries negatively affect the ability of school districts to recruit teachers. In the last 30 years, California's national ranking in per-pupil expenditures has slid 22 slots from 16th to 38th. This process was accelerated by the state's passage of Proposition 13, a 1978 measure which placed a cap on property taxes (National Center for Education Statistics, 1998). In contrast, a 1998 study released by the Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy at the University of Washington found that Connecticut, which has the highest teacher salaries in the country, has all but eliminated the state's teaching shortage. (Hirsch et al., 1998) According to 1993-94 data from the National Center for Educational Statistics, California's average teaching salary of \$39,600 was \$8,400 less than Connecticut, \$6,000 less than New York, \$3,400 less than Michigan, and \$2,400 less than Washington, DC. (Bandiera de Mello & Broughman, 1998)

Experienced teachers are in greater demand and can command higher salaries. This is especially true for experienced white and Asian American teachers, who make on average almost 4% more than African American teachers, 5.5% more than Native American teachers and 5.8% more than Latino teachers. (Gordon, 1998) These pay differentials can add up to several thousand dollars a year. At the same time, suburban districts do pay higher salaries than urban districts, attracting the most experienced teachers. A number of recruiters from hard-to-staff districts in California mentioned the difficulties of recruiting against suburban districts within the state. "It's simple," said one. "We offer more challenging situations, for less pay. No matter how you dress it up, that's the essential truth." However, the ability of urban school districts to recruit, sustain, and retain teachers is not only related to the salary differential between urban

and suburban districts. College graduates have many options besides teaching and there is an estimated 25-50% pay differential between teachers and college graduates entering other professions. In the words of Janet Bernard, “We are in a crisis situation trying to lure college graduates into teaching. I think it’s strictly economics. You can make money faster elsewhere. Teaching is hard work for so little pay.” Norm Marcs of the LAUSD echoes the sentiment: “This is a rigorous profession; it drains you psychologically and intellectually. You get no recognition and lots of isolation. Pay is a big issue.”

Increasing teacher compensation would help greatly in attracting and retaining teachers. Pay for teachers should reflect the vital importance to society of the work they do. It should certainly equal and preferably exceed compensation to starting prison guards who currently receive \$40,000 to \$45,000. The State of California does not achieve that standard.

Although since the mid-1970’s most funding for public schools has come from the state budget to the local districts according to complex and politically contested formulas, major discrepancies nonetheless remain between the pay of teachers in mostly white suburban schools and those in diverse urban districts. For example, in urban Fresno a new teacher received \$28,889 in 1998; in the same year in Clovis, next door but overwhelmingly white, that beginner earned \$31,185. A statewide equalization of teacher compensation would help eliminate one of the incentives for credentialed teachers to choose suburban over urban schools.

Connecticut is one state which has successfully implemented an equalization of teacher salaries. In 1986, Connecticut’s Education Enhancement Act raised and equalized teacher salaries across all school districts. The average teacher salary in 1996-97 was \$51,181, the highest salaries in the country. Since raising and equalizing salaries, Connecticut has all but eliminated its teaching shortages throughout the state, including its urban and rural school districts. (Hirsch et al., 1998)

Programs to support new teachers tend to be small, not widely available, and of uneven quality.

Hands-on classroom teaching experience is a training component for all 20,000 of the new teachers trained annually in California. However, support for new teachers when they are “on their own” in the classroom can only generously be described as sparse. Of the estimated 25,000 teachers beginning their teaching careers in the 1998-99 school year, only 5,240, less than 22%, were enrolled in the Beginning Teachers Support and Assessment program (BTSA). Is this fact significant? Both teachers and administrators indicate that it is. Norm Marcs observes, “New teachers who are in the harder-to-staff schools need constant support—curricular support, resource support, and human support.” This is especially true for teachers in their first two years in the classroom. As Willie J. Horton, the principal of Youth Opportunities Unlimited, an alternative secondary school in San Diego, points out, “A lot of times, teachers get burned out their first year because they don’t get active support.”

Lisa Gutierrez Guzmán remembers two distinct experiences with the BTSA program: “When I was starting to teach, the BTSA program helped me a lot. A mentor worked with me on a regular basis, and I met with a small group of other beginning teachers. However, when I myself became a mentor in the program, the whole San Francisco program was limited to 50 participants, because of funding problems.” In addition to the size and availability of the program, there is also the question of quality. Santiago Ceja, a first-year bilingual third grade teacher at Fresno’s biggest elementary school, Winchell Elementary, observes, “I’m in the BTSA program, but my mentor only knows how to teach in English-only classes. She doesn’t have the materials or the experience to really help me.” Appropriate support requires the matching of experienced teachers with new recruits in the same subject areas.

Thirty to 50% of beginning teachers leave within their first five years of teaching—if they have emergency permits, they leave at an even higher rate of 60%. (Gold, 1996, California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 1997) Until California expends the energy and allocates the funding to develop viable support programs for all new teachers, the revolving door will continue to rotate for new California teachers.

California’s high-need schools have the highest concentration of underqualified teachers. High-need schools, that is, most of those in large urban areas, as well as some in rural areas with large immigrant populations, have the largest concentrations of students of color, low-income students and students who do not speak English as their primary language. Schools with such racial, cultural, bilingual, and developmental diversity require teachers with the skills and experience to adapt their teaching to the varying learning styles and paces of the students. The very schools where the highest-skilled teachers are needed most are those that are most likely, in fact, to have the most inexperienced and emergency credentialed teachers.

Beginning in 1996, under intense demands from parents and the public for school improvements, California precipitously reduced its class sizes in the lower primary grades. This move left high-need schools with even fewer qualified teachers. Class-size reduction initiatives resulted in a “musical chairs” of qualified teachers. When nearly all schools had new positions to fill at the same time, qualified teachers in inner-city and hard-to-staff schools flocked in droves to the openings in the wealthier, whiter, and seemingly safer schools in the surrounding areas and suburbs. That left the inner-city schools with a concentration of openings that often could only be filled with emergency permit holders and teachers with low seniority. The Class Size Research Consortium evaluation covering 1996-98 concluded that “the already weaker qualifications of the teachers serving poor and minority students are now dramatically worse.”

Class-size reduction is a highly desirable educational goal with beneficial outcomes. However, the way the program was formulated and implemented during former Gov. Pete Wilson’s administration resulted in an exacerbation of existing inequalities. Oakland school board member Jean Quan maintains that “it may have been wiser to keep a teacher with the extra 10 kids than to flop them in a classroom without a trained teacher.” (Oakland Tribune, June 23, 1999) A better planned phase-in, targeted initially at the highest-need, hardest-to-staff schools, could have prevented the “musical chairs” effect.

Inner-city schools face the most severe teacher shortages, have the highest turnover rates, and often have the most undercredentialed or inexperienced teachers. People living in these communities have the most familiarity with, and commitment to their communities, yet few have opportunities to become teachers. People from the immediate community of high-need schools are likely to come from similar racial and linguistic backgrounds as the students and parents, may be more able to relate to that community and will probably have longer retention rates. Small programs to assist paraeducators (classroom aides) to acquire regular credentials have shown great promise. (Genzuk, Lavadenz & Krashen, 1994)

Currently, considerable time and money are invested by school districts across the state in recruiting candidates from outside the state and the country. For example, according to Archie Polanco, an annual teacher recruitment fair in New York attracts recruiters from the entire state of California. While these efforts are driven by an acute and immediate teaching shortage, investing in programs that recruit and develop local people may be more effective in the long term. It would seem a more efficient use of

resources if, instead, local schools, particularly high-need and hard-to-staff schools, had the resources to recruit locally, develop programs with nearby credentialing institutions, and support these new teachers in their schools.

Financial incentives, through salary bonuses or educational loan forgiveness, can also make hard-to-staff schools more attractive for teachers. Hiring and funding preferences for the hardest-to-staff schools could also be provided, so they have first crack at getting qualified teachers.

<p>SCHOOLS USE STOP-GAPS TO FILL EMPTY TEACHING POSITIONS</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ In 1998, nearly 13% of California’s teachers had emergency credentials. ▪ 18% of the teachers in the Los Angeles Unified School District have emergency permits. ▪ Teachers with emergency permits often have no prior teaching experience, yet are working alone, full-time in thousands of California classrooms. ▪ One year with a poor teacher takes three to four subsequent years to make up, according to a 1996 University of Tennessee study. (Oakland Tribune, 6/3/99) ▪ More than two-thirds of California’s school districts rely on emergency teachers to fill classrooms. ▪ Only 51% of California secondary teachers hold a degree in the subject they teach-only Louisiana, at 50%, has fewer. (Education Week, 1999 edition of Technology Counts, as cited in EdSource EdFact, How California Recruits, Prepares and Assists New Teachers, 1998) ▪ “California has the third-smallest percentage of fully certified teachers in the country.” (California Journal, March 1999)
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Who s Teaching California s School Children?

The rapidly expanding numbers and changing demographics of California’s student population raise questions about the composition of California’s teaching force. Some of the implications of these changes warrant further examination, particularly the racial composition of the teaching force relative to that of the student body.

At 24 students for every teacher, California’s student-to-teacher ratio is currently the second worst in the country. Only Utah’s is higher, while the national average is 17. Disaggregating this figure by race, however, reveals that the teacher shortage is even more serious than it first appears. As charts 2 through 4 suggest, there is a big difference between California’s student population and its teaching corps. Sixty-one percent of public school students are young people of color, while the vast majority-78%-of our teachers are white. And the mismatch between students and teachers has been growing for some time.

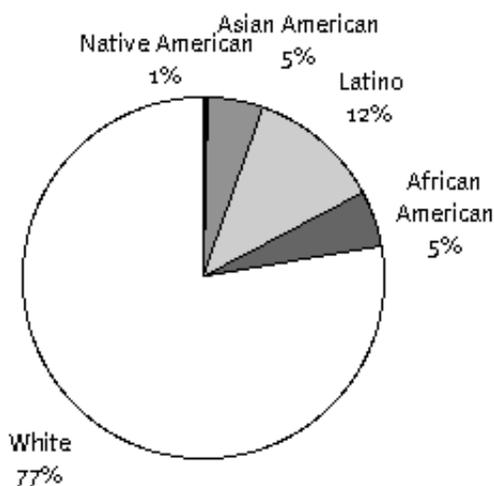


Chart 2: California’s Teachers 1997-1998 School Year

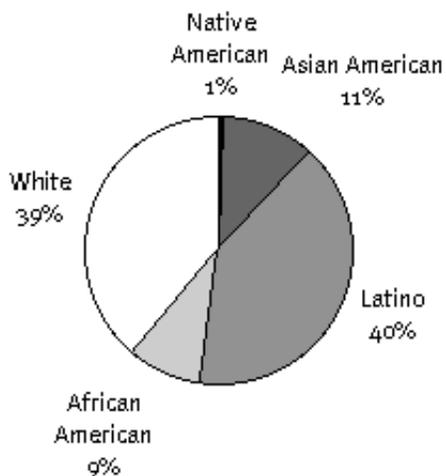
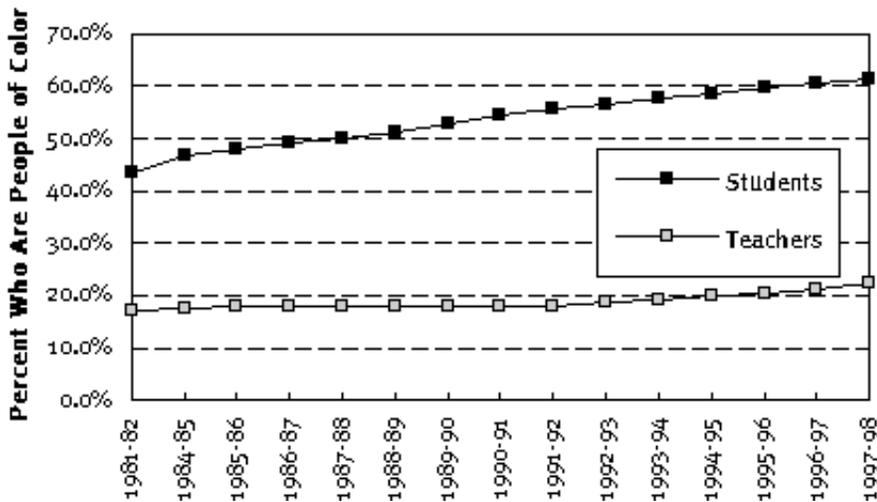


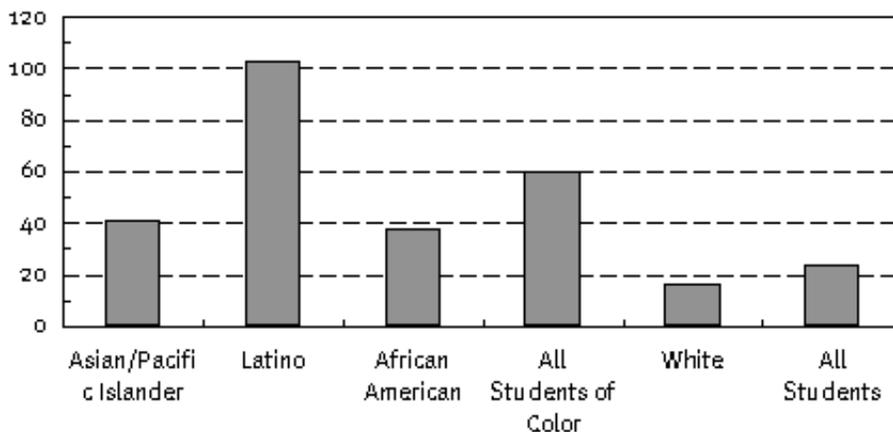
Chart 3: California’s Students 1997-1998 School Year

Chart 4: California's Student & Teacher Populations 1981-1998



While California has one white teacher for every 16 white students, there are 38 African American students for every African American teacher. More alarming still, the state's schools have 103 Latino students for every Latino teacher. Furthermore, the demographic gap between students and teachers has grown over the last decade and a half, especially for Latino students, as Chart 5 illustrates. This is largely because the racial composition of the teaching force has changed little, while the state's student population has been dramatically transformed—from 44% students of color in the 1981-82 school year to 62% students of color in 1998-99.

Chart 5: Number of Students per Teacher of the Same Race in California, 1997-98 School Year



If California were to make a serious commitment to diversity by developing a teaching force that is racially representative of the student population, nearly all of the 300,000 new teachers to be hired in the next 10 years would need to be people of color. If California were to try to recruit people of color to fill 150,000 positions—half of the projected openings—it would require drastically different measures than what are currently in place or planned.

Unless California develops a multi-faceted approach to recruiting and retaining teachers of color, this demographic gap between students and teachers can only worsen in the next 10 years. The California Department of Finance estimates that by 2008, 70% of all public school students will be young people of color (California Department of Finance 1999). While similar projections for the teaching force are unavailable, certainly nothing in current public policy suggests that the teaching corps will diversify nearly fast enough to catch up with the student population without some major new initiatives.

How Important is it to Have Teachers of Color?

Many years of studies suggest that teachers of color are important—both for students of color and for white students. Scholars have identified several key reasons that students of color stay in school longer and achieve more when they have teachers who share some of their racial and cultural experience. These include:

■ The Role Model Effect

Both common sense and considerable research suggest that teachers of color provide students of color with invaluable examples of successful, respected adults. (Villegas, 1998; Stewart, Meier, La Follette, and England, 1989) More particularly, teachers of color provide models of success in the academic arena, where students of color are often expected to fail.

■ The Power of Expectations

Many studies have shown the effects of teachers' expectations on how—and how well—their students learn. This self-fulfilling prophecy effect is well documented (Tauber, 1997; Good, 1987; Jussim & Eccles, 1992), and classically demonstrated in Rosenthal and Jacobson's 1968 study, *Pygmalion in the Classroom*.

Research shows that teachers of color often have both higher expectations and higher standards for students of color than do white teachers. As one veteran African American teacher in Washington, DC put it, "Different people see different things in children. I see that they're eager to learn. They're going to carry on a whole lot of foolishness before they get down to the business, but when you really start with those children, they want to learn. And they are great learners." (Mitchell, 1998)

■ Cultural relevance

Teachers who share their students' culture and life experiences bring to the classroom an extra knowledge about those students, which they can use to fashion teaching that works. They also serve as cultural mediators among school, parents, and community. Teachers are much more likely to reach out at all, and to reach out successfully to parents with whom they feel "at home" culturally. This mediation function has special salience in communities where many parents do not speak English. A teacher who speaks the parents' language and literally knows the place "where they're coming from," can help draw them into their children's education. That parental involvement is a crucial component of academic success.

Deputy State Superintendent of Schools Henry Der confirms the importance of teachers who share their students' culture. Speaking in the aftermath of the shootings at Columbine High School in Colorado, Der said, "People have discussed the physical aspects of safety and security, but we also have to address the kind of support we are giving our kids throughout the education system. There's been a superficial focus on getting more counselors and psychological help. But what our curriculum framework fails to address in a substantive way," Der continues, "is the question of how we contextualize education so the students can really connect with learning and their teachers. Part of that has to include the makeup of the teaching force. It all comes down to day-to-day interaction in the classroom. Is the student motivated to learn? Does the teacher know something about the student?"

■ Teacher retention

At least one study shows that teachers of color are more likely than white teachers to continue teaching at hard-to-staff urban schools, where teacher turnover is a major barrier to quality education. (Adams & Dial, 1993)

Of course, students of color are not the only ones to benefit from a diverse teaching corps. White students also derive important lessons when their role models include teachers of color. As people of color emerge as the demographic majority in California, white students are well served by an education that prepares them to live and work in a multicultural, multiracial and multilingual society.

Pathways to Teaching

California's teaching crisis did not develop overnight, nor will it be solved overnight. Our understanding of today's crisis can be informed by an examination of how teacher training programs have evolved historically, along with an assessment of current ways people are recruited and prepared for teaching.

History

Although as early as 1794 a group of teachers in New York City organized the Society of Associated Teachers to "discuss problems of teaching and set teacher qualifications," it was not until 1805 that New York Mayor Dewitt Clinton started the Free School Society to provide education for poor children. Using public funds, he established a six-to-eight week program to train teachers. (Reisner, 1930, Lucas, 1997)

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts became the first state to make elementary education free to everyone in 1827. By mid-century or shortly thereafter, the public school system was enrolling three-fourths of all children of school age. Left unanswered was where teachers were to come from in numbers sufficient to meet the needs of hundreds of thousands of new pupils crowding into these same common schools. (Lucas, 1997)

A number of private teacher-training institutes were established to service the needs of public schools in the Northeast. In 1839, educator Horace Mann established the first public teacher-training facility in Lexington, Massachusetts. Teacher training "normal schools" grew significantly in the second half of the nineteenth century and many private colleges established courses in the new field of pedagogy, or education. Teaching candidates, predominantly women, were modestly schooled. There was considerable controversy concerning the effectiveness of normal schools. Many accepted students directly from primary

school, undermining their claims to be specialized post-secondary institutions. The quality of instruction was perceived to be inferior to public high schools and, because the course of instruction was not equivalent to a college preparatory school or high school, most graduates were ineligible to apply to a four-year college. (Lucas, 1997)

In 1908, the Department of Normal Education of National Education Association, an early teachers union, passed a resolution requiring a high school diploma for admission to normal school. By 1930, 88 former normal schools had transformed themselves into four-year, degree-granting institutions. By the 1950s, there were 200 state teachers colleges in full operation. (Lucas, 1997) However, while the number of teachers' colleges grew from the 1920s through the 1940s, a 1933 national study examining teacher credentialing found that 85% of high school teachers had degrees, but only 10% of elementary school teachers did. (Bullard, 1998) Educator John Dewey helped to elevate the notion of teaching as an art and to raise the standards of teacher certification, requiring elementary school teachers to complete a college degree before being permanently certified and high school teachers to complete course work beyond the bachelor's degree in order to be certified.

The California State University system, institutions like Hayward State, San Francisco State, and Long Beach State, began life as the unpretentious colleges where teachers were trained. The academically superior "real" universities, UC Berkeley and UCLA, shunned teacher training. The split lingers in California, with the UC system training only a tiny minority of teachers who get their education in the public university system.

Changes in the publicly perceived purpose of public education have come in waves, and teacher training has been a key point of intervention for tinkering with the system. For instance, in the post-war prosperity of the 1940s, the emphasis was on "Americanism": loyalty, patriotism, and love-of-country coupled with an emphasis on hard-core learning. Teaching was further professionalized following the U.S. crisis of confidence in science and technology following the Russian launch of Sputnik I in 1957. As a result, the National Education Defense Act was passed to develop an elite group of students with strong math and science skills by improving student instruction, and many colleges converted from four-year to five-year teacher credentialing programs. (Bullard, 1998)

The critique of education in general-and teacher preparation in particular-continued through the 1970s and 80s, culminating with *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, which alleged that U.S. schools were "drowning in a sea of mediocrity;" the Carnegie Foundation's

A Nation Prepared: Teaching for the 21st Century, which resulted in the formation of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards; and *Tomorrow's Teachers* (1986), a report generated by a group of education colleges that promoted professional development schools. (Bullard, 1998).

While teacher competence and teacher education are two of the most widely studied and written-about subjects for both academicians and media outlets, until very recently little has changed in teacher training. In a 1980 article in *Phi Delta Kappan*, B.O. Smith writes that the basic pedagogical theory for teachers has changed hardly at all, and Semour B. Sarason's 1993 examination of teacher preparation found it "truly remarkable how cosmetic the changes have been." (Lucas, 1997)

California teacher training followed national trends. A 1992 study found that between 1985 and 1990 the number of teacher candidates trained through alternatives to college programs had more than doubled.

(Lucas, 1997) Large, urban, hard-to-staff school districts with dramatically expanding and diverse student populations made the same choices as many urban districts around the country. They forced schools to take teacher training into their own hands and, in conjunction with public and private colleges, work with school paraprofessionals to help them gain teaching skills and obtain certification. These districts have also partnered with teacher training programs at both public and private teacher training institutions to develop joint internship programs.

By the early 1990s, the California Legislature had initiated a number of efforts, including funding the Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment program (BTSA) and non-traditional pathways to the teaching credential, and revising of state laws to give teacher candidates earlier and more frequent K-12 clinical experiences. (Wagner et al., 1995)

Chart 6: The Pathways to Teaching

The next section is a summary of the different routes of entering the teaching profession. Based on research and interviews with universities, school districts, and teachers, the following are the strengths and weaknesses of those pathways to teaching.

Pathways to Teaching	Description	Strengths	Weaknesses
Traditional 1 yr. program	A one-year program that allows students to learn education theory in the first semester and incorporates pedagogy into practice during student teaching in their second semester.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • safety net for someone with little or no teaching experience • strong grounding in teaching theory and pedagogy • hands-on experience while learning theory in second semester • enables students to focus on building skills as a teacher • high retention rate in teaching profession 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no monetary compensation during student teaching • "master" (mentor) teachers usually don't have proper training in mentoring student teachers • programs are expensive; students need a source of income, especially if they are supporting a family • exposure to the classroom teaching happens late in

			the year not from the beginning of the program
Internship program	<p>Interns teach full-time, are paid a teacher's salary, and simultaneously are working towards their credential in the evenings. They have to meet certain requirements before entering the program. These programs are either based in the university in partnership with school districts or based in districts themselves. The duration of the program is usually 2 years.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enables prospective teachers to earn a salary while receiving credential • interns get immediate classroom experience • can help alleviate teacher shortage in hard-to-staff schools • programs are often community-based, credential classes taught in public schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • not enough classroom theory or support for classroom practice • too much time devoted to credential courses and not enough focus on classroom teaching • low numbers of interns remain in the teaching profession after three years or more in the classroom.
Paraprofessional program	<p>This program was developed to draw in a larger pool of teachers who have existing experience in the classroom. Teacher's aides have the opportunity to continue working in schools while receiving financial</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • broaden the scope of possible teachers from underrepresented groups • most teacher's aides have extensive experience in the classroom • come from the communities they work in, alleviate retention issue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • this is a long process, which can take anywhere from 5-7 years to receive a B.A. and credential

	<p>assistance to obtain their bachelor's degree and teaching credential.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • makes higher education a reality and affordable to those committed to teaching • increases pool of bilingual teachers 	
<p>Emergency Credentials</p>	<p>In order to alleviate the teacher shortage, temporary credentials are awarded to those individuals who have not met the requirements to enter a credential program. They must have a bachelor's degree and pass the CBEST (California Basic Educational Skills Test). Emergency credentialed teachers are required to take a minimum of 6 units toward their credential per year.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • immediately puts teachers into vacant positions in hard-to-staff school districts • subject matter requirements don't have to be met; therefore alleviates tests from being a barrier to begin teaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • most don't have any experience teaching • more apt to leave the teaching profession in the first few years • no formal mentorship or support

Where Do New Teachers Come From?

Seventy-eight different California universities produce about 20,000 certificated teachers every year. Over half of these graduate from schools in the California State University system and 5% through the campuses of the University of California system.

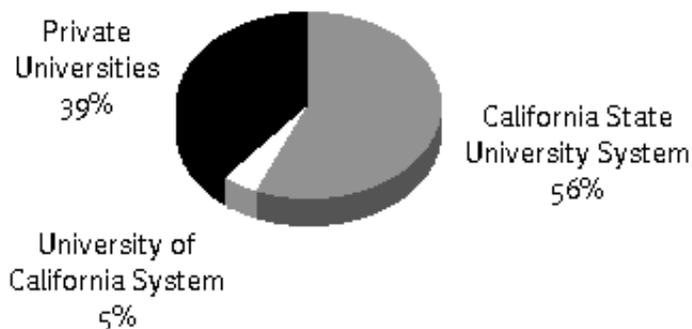
As the graph above illustrates, private universities produce the remaining 39%. Of those private university programs, two schools, Chapman University and National University, graduate by far the most teachers. In

1997, 2,107 potential new teachers

graduated from Chapman alone-over 10% of the state’s entire graduate pool. At 1,674, graduates of National University represented another 8% of all graduates. Together, these two schools produce almost 20% of the state’s newly certified teachers each year. No other single school comes close to graduating as many certificated teachers as do these two programs.

Almost 40% of the undergraduate education degrees granted by the CSU system go to students of color. While not matching the demographics of California’s student population, this figure is an improvement on the 23% of the current teaching force who are people of color. By the time students reach their fifth-and credentialing-year, there is a drop-off in the proportion of students of color among those receiving CSU degrees, as the graph on the next page illustrates.

Chart 7: California Universities Graduating New Teachers in 1997



<p>CRITERIA FOR ASSESSING EFFECTIVE AND EQUITABLE TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Is the program accessible and affordable to all qualified applicants, including people of color and people with low incomes? Does it target, admit, and retain a majority of people of color in order to produce a teaching staff demographically similar to California’s student population? Does it admit a substantial number of people who live in, and are committed to, communities
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with the hardest to staff schools?

- Does it produce teachers who really know how to teach? Does it produce teachers who truly understand how young people learn and develop and know how to adapt their teaching methods to different styles and paces of learning? Do teachers fully understand how children develop and students learn?
- Does it produce teachers who have a solid understanding of racial dynamics, cultural differences, and language development, so that they are effective in diverse settings? Does it produce teachers who have the experience and ability to effectively communicate and collaborate with students, parents and other teachers?
- Does it produce teachers who are committed to staying in the field of teaching? Does it produce teachers who are committed to teaching in hard-to-staff schools?

A Look at Seven School Districts

An examination of seven key urban California school districts further illuminates the racial dimensions of

the crisis in teacher recruitment, training, and retention. Each of these districts-Los Angeles USD, San Diego City, Long Beach, Fresno City, Oakland,

San Francisco, and San Jose City-faces unique challenges. At the same time, they share the difficulties of serving a diverse, multi-racial, multi-cultural, and multi-lingual school population.

The following tables present some key data about these districts, including student and teacher demographics, and teacher credentialing information.

[Chart 8: "Seven Key Districts: Students and Teachers by Race"](#)

[Chart 9: "Seven Key Districts: Student-to Teacher Ratios by Race"](#)

[Chart 10: "Seven Key Districts: Description of Teaching Corps"](#)

**Chart 8: Seven Key Districts:
Students and Teachers by Race
1997-98 School Year**

District	Total		African American			
	Students	Teachers	Students		Teachers	
			#	%	#	%
Los Angeles	680,430	30,208	93,867	13.8%	4,605	15.2%
San Diego City	136,283	6,824	23,065	16.9%	498	7.3%
Long Beach	85,908	3,621	17,471	20.3%	321	8.9%
Fresno	78,166	3,765	8,845	11.3%	143	3.8%
Oakland	53,564	2,815	27,286	50.9%	906	32.2%
San Francisco	61,007	3,616	9,879	16.2%	341	9.4%
San Jose	32,993	1,522	1,079	3.3%	40	2.6%

District	Latino				Asian			
	Students		Teachers		Students		Teachers	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%

Los Angeles	466,259	68.5%	6,622	21.9%	44,515	6.5%	2,885	9.6%
San Diego City	48,077	35.3%	911	13.3%	25,282	18.6%	315	4.6%
Long Beach	34,784	40.5%	539	14.9%	16,614	19.3%	250	6.9%
Fresno	35,362	45.2%	545	14.5%	15,850	20.3%	210	5.6%
Oakland	12,374	23.1%	256	9.1%	10,339	19.3%	281	10.0%
San Francisco	12,936	21.2%	392	10.8%	30,125	49.4%	845	23.4%
San Jose	16,302	49.4%	229	15.0%	4,794	14.5%	63	4.1%

	Native American				All People of Color			
	Students		Teachers		Students		Teachers	
District	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Los Angeles	1,850	0.3%	218	0.7%	606,491	89.1%	14,330	47.4%
San Diego City	880	0.6%	66	1.0%	97,304	71.4%	1,790	26.2%
Long Beach	343	0.4%	26	0.7%	69,212	80.6%	1,136	31.4%
Fresno	669	0.9%	22	0.6%	60,726	77.7%	920	24.4%
Oakland	297	0.6%	35	1.2%	50,296	93.9%	1,478	52.5%
San Francisco	416	0.7%	22	0.6%	53,356	87.5%	1,600	44.2%
San Jose	623	1.9%	16	1.1%	22,798	69.1%	348	22.9%

	White				% Receiving Free Lunch	%LEP
	Students		Teachers			
District	#	%	#	%		

Los Angeles	73,939	10.9%	15,878	52.6%	71.7%	45.9%
San Diego City	38,979	28.6%	5,034	73.8%	59.4%	28.3%
Long Beach	16,696	19.4%	2,485	68.6%	65.1%	36.4%
Fresno	17,440	22.3%	2,845	75.6%	70.5%	32.7%
Oakland	3,268	6.1%	1,337	47.5%	66.3%	33.1%
San Francisco	7,651	12.5%	2,016	55.8%	62.3%	30.9%
San Jose	10,195	30.9%	1,174	77.1%	43.5%	27.4%

Source: California Department of Education, Educational Demographics Unit

Chart 9: Seven Key Districts: Student-to-Teacher Ratios by Race 1997-98 School Year

District	African American	Latino	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	All People of Color	White
Los Angeles	20	70	15	8	42	5
San Diego City	46	53	80	13	54	8
Long Beach	54	65	66	13	61	7
Fresno	62	65	75	30	66	6
Oakland	30	48	37	8	34	2
San Francisco	29	33	36	19	33	4
San Jose	27	71	76	39	66	9

Source: California Department of Education, Educational Demographics Unit

Chart 10: Seven Key Districts: Description of Teaching Corps 1997-98 School Year

	Full		Univ. Intern.		Dist. Intern.		Emergency		Waiver	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Los Angeles	23,228	74.7	155	0.5	981	3.2	6,301	20.3	539	1.7
San Diego City	2,825	78.0	65	1.8	51	1.4	837	23.1	32	0.9
Long Beach	4,853	71.1	19	0.3	33	0.5	41	0.6	0	0.0
Fresno	3,403	94.0	0	0.0	6	0.2	220	6.1	72	2.0
Oakland	3,395	89.9	62	1.6	0	0.0	166	4.4	47	1.2
San Francisco	1,970	69.6	90	3.2	54	1.9	411	14.5	57	2.0
San Jose	1,378	90.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	0.3	168	11.0
State Totals	236,803	87.3	1,855	0.7	1,570	0.6	28,169	10.4	3,087	1.1

District	Avg. Yrs. Teaching	Avg. Yrs. in District	# First Yr Teachers	# Second Yr Teachers
Los Angeles	12.3	10.9	3,371	1,950
San Diego City	12.0	9.7	376	354
Long Beach	11.0	11.0	1,013	360
Fresno	14.8	13.7	49	407
Oakland	13.4	11.3	250	286
San Francisco	14.4	11.0	274	194
San Jose	14.3	12.0	258	126
State Totals	13.2	10.7	25,935	20,847

Note: Complete teacher credential data may not have been submitted for some districts, or a teacher may hold more than one type of credential.

As a result, percentages will not total to 100%.

Source: California Department of Education, Educational Demographics Unit

Los Angeles Unified School District:

With 680,000 students and more than 30,000 teachers, L.A. Unified is by far the state's largest district. While 89% of its students are young people of color, only 47% of its teachers are people of color.

To make teaching in L.A. Unified even more complex, more than 312,000, or 46%, of its school population are Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students. The presence of so many students who do not speak English as a first language helps explain another key factor for Los Angeles: one-fifth of its teachers have emergency credentials. In fact, says Justo Avila, who is the district's Assistant Director of Human Resources, of the 4,000 teachers hired this year, almost 30% have emergency credentials. (By contrast, in nearby Beverly Hills, only 7.4% of teachers hold emergency credentials. That's because, says Avila, "To find a pool of credentialed teachers, it's easier if you're a small district in a 'nice' neighborhood," than a huge urban district like Los Angeles.")

The racial distribution of Los Angeles' teachers reflects the city's migration patterns over the last 15 years. The proportion of African American teachers-15%-actually exceeds that of Black students by one percentage point. But at 22%, the proportion of Latino teachers lags far behind that of Latino students, which is 69%. This discrepancy represents a recent and large influx of Latino students, coupled with a decline in the African American population and little change in the number of African American teachers.

San Diego Unified School District:

One-fifth the size of Los Angeles Unified, San Diego is still the state's second-largest district. As the accompanying interview with a San Diego teacher recruitment officer

suggests, the district has a long history of partnership with local universities, and of active recruitment of teachers of color. Despite these efforts, only 26% of San Diego's teachers are people of color, compared to 71% of its students.

Why is it more difficult for San Diego to attract teachers of color? This may not, in fact be the right question. The difference between the teachers of Los Angeles and San Diego more likely reflects the residential preferences of white teachers, who choose San Diego over Los Angeles as a place to live.

Long Beach Unified School District:

A Los Angeles County port city, Long Beach houses the state's third-largest school district. Eighty-one percent of its 86,000 students are people of color, compared to 31% of its teachers. Over a third of Long Beach students have Limited English Proficiency. According to state Department of Education figures, only 41 teachers hold emergency credentials. (It seems likely this figure reflects missing data. The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing's Annual Report on Emergency Permits and Credential Wavers for 1996-97 reports that 17% of Long Beach USD teachers have emergency credentials.)

Recruiting teachers of color is a priority for Long Beach, according to Joy Dowell of the recruitment office. Recruiters make "more than 50 trips a year," in-state and out, as well as advertising in venues like the newsletter of CABE, the California Association for Bilingual Education. As is true everywhere, Long Beach finds it challenging to hire for its hard-to-staff schools. While the district offers no financial incentives for teachers who work in these schools, they make it a priority to provide mentors and other

support for these teachers. Unlike many cities, Long Beach hires teachers at the district level and assigns them to particular schools, at which they must teach for at least three years before transferring. Officials believe this policy helps alleviate teacher turnover at the schools that are considered least attractive.

Fresno City Unified School District:

Located in California's agricultural Central Valley, Fresno is the state's fourth-largest district. Its students are 78% young people of color, while three-quarters of its teachers are white. Fresno faces extra challenges, because many of its students come from migrant families, for whom the district provides special programs.

Adjacent to Fresno is the professional community of Clovis, which has a separate, largely white, school district. Fresno is fortunate to have teachers like Claudette Leffall-Handy, an African American bilingual teacher, who works in the Migrant Education program. Handy says, "When I became a teacher nine years ago, I interviewed at Clovis USD. But I looked at the demographics-about 2% African American-and I said, 'I don't think I can make a difference here.' I wanted to make a difference in the lives of some of the students of color."

For the last five years, Fresno Unified has partnered with Fresno State University to recruit teachers of color from among the university's science students. The brainchild of Dr. David Anders, Professor of Biology and Natural Science at Fresno State, and funded by the National Science Foundation, the Minority Opportunities in Science Teaching ("MOST") program has placed 50 new science teachers in the Fresno schools. MOST may appear to be a minor effort in a district with 3,800 teachers, but science teachers who are people of color are quite rare. To place 50 in a single school district represents a significant achievement.

Oakland Unified School District:

At 94%, Oakland has one of the highest proportions of students of color in the state. Its student are poor; 66% qualify for a federally funded free or reduced-cost lunch. Oakland is also the only district surveyed with a majority-53%-of teachers of color. In particular, Oakland has by far the largest proportion of African American teachers-32%-perhaps reflecting a substantial presence of African Americans within the district administration.

Oakland has a successful relationship with California State University at Hayward, whose Education department works directly with the district to place its graduates in the Oakland public schools. The CSU Hayward-Oakland Public School District Partnership has had between approximately 60 to 80% candidates of color in its teaching program the past since 1995, an arrangement which may contribute to Oakland's relatively high proportion of teachers of color.

San Francisco:

Although San Francisco's population is roughly 42% white, only 13% of its public school students are white. It appears that most white San Franciscans send their children to private schools, especially once they have finished elementary school. Asians, on the other hand, make extensive and successful use of the city's public schools. Almost 50% of San Francisco's students are Asian, by far the highest proportion in the state. San Francisco also has the state's highest proportion of Asian teachers-23%. Many of these students are Chinese Americans, whose families have lived for many generations in the United States. Recent years have seen an influx of new immigrants from China, the Philippines, and Southeast Asia. Unlike U.S.-born Asians, these new immigrants are

not as well-served by the public schools. Like other students of color, they tend to have higher dropout and suspension rates than their white counterparts.

Like Los Angeles, San Francisco faces the challenge of teaching a linguistically, as well as culturally diverse student body. According to Legaya Avenida, Director of Human Resources at the district, the most common non-English languages spoken by students are Spanish, Cantonese, and the various Filipino languages. However, children come to San Francisco schools speaking more than 60 home languages.

What Avenida describes as “an aggressive program for recruiting minority teachers” seems to be working. At 44% teachers of color, San Francisco has a much more diverse teaching corps than the state in general. The district has a ways to go, however, to match the 88% of its students who are young people of color.

San Jose Unified School District:

Located at the southern end of Silicon Valley, San Jose is California’s fastest-growing metropolitan area. Like many large cities, San Jose’s schools lie in several different districts. And, as in many cities, these districts serve different kinds of students.

San Jose Unified is the only district that combines elementary, middle, and high schools. The remaining districts serve only one level. Many of San Jose Unified’s students are low-income people of color, while nearby districts like Cambrian Elementary have wealthier, whiter students and a lower student-to-teacher ratio (20.9, compared to 21.7). The city’s population of 909,000 is about 50% white, but 69% of San Jose Unified’s 33,000 students are young people of color. 77% of the district’s teachers are white. In a city boasting the nation’s third-highest median household income-\$58,476-it is quite telling that 44% of the district’s students are eligible for federally funded free or reduced-cost lunches.

<p>EXAMINING THESE SEVEN KEY DISTRICTS SUGGESTS A NUMBER OF COMMON TRENDS:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Each district is experiencing a general shortage of teachers, combined with an extreme shortage of teachers of color. ▪ In spite of legal strictures created by the anti-affirmative action initiative, Proposition 209, resourceful individuals find ways to attract teachers of color to their districts. ▪ Conscious, aggressive efforts to recruit and retain teachers of color bring significant returns.
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***Some Views from the Teaching Trenches:
Recruitment, Braving the CBEST, Support for New Teachers***

While preparing this report, researchers recorded stories from many individuals involved in recruiting, training, and evaluating teachers-and from working teachers themselves. Some of their accounts spoke very directly to problems addressed in this report. However, a number of individuals only felt able to speak out after a promise of anonymity, fearing professional retaliation for blowing the whistle on the contentious issues involved with teaching. Three of them describe their experiences with recruitment, the CBEST test to enter the credentialing process, and the lives of new teachers in this section.

**Recruitment:
Affirmative Action After Proposition 209**

A personal interview with a recruitment officer who before November 1996 was an Affirmative Action officer at one of the state’s largest urban districts reveals some of the difficulties of the post-Proposition 209 era. For many years it has been this staffer’s personal goal, and that of the Human Resources Department in general, to increase the percentage of teachers of color in this district.

More than 70% of the district’s students are of color. By comparison, just under half of the teachers are people of color. To address this imbalance, Human Resources staff “hit the road recruiting,” traveling to universities in-state and out, looking for qualified people to teach.

Where do they find new teachers? Most are graduates of local universities, including state schools. Private institutions, including National University, University of the Redlands, and University of San Diego, also feed teachers into the district.

The district hires about a thousand new teachers each year. This year, 396 of that thousand are teaching with emergency credentials. Most of these, especially emergency-credentialed bilingual and special education teachers, are concentrated in the district’s hard-to-staff schools, which serve the city’s poorest residents. In part, says the recruitment officer, this is because at their first opportunity, many credentialed teachers will exercise their option to move out to “better” schools within the district. Those teaching on emergency credentials don’t have that option. “It’s horrendous. Teachers sign a contract with the district, then refuse to work in certain schools.” Her solution? Develop “dream schools” in those hard-to-staff neighborhoods, with plenty of equipment and supplies-and give teachers a bonus to work there.

<p>WHAT QUALITIES SHOULD A NEW TEACHER HAVE?</p>	<p>In addition to familiarity with at least one community of color, this recruiter’s ideal teacher would have:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Exposure to children with special needs; ▪ Thorough knowledge of his or her subject area; ▪ The skills to establish a classroom management system using positive reinforcement; ▪ Experience with learners for whom English is a second
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language;

- Computers skills; and, perhaps
- Knowledge of a second language-not only to facilitate communication with students who don't speak English, but for the "mental flexibility" learning another language imparts.

Recruiting teachers of color was the main impetus 10 years ago, when the district began a teacher internship program, through which qualified people can begin classroom teaching while still pursuing their credentials. Originally designed especially to bring mid-career African American men into teaching, in recent years the program has developed a multi-cultural focus. About 10% of participants are classroom para-professionals, most of these parent educators. Traditionally, 30 people a year have earned credentials through the internship program. Now, says this recruiter, "With the passage of Proposition 209, maintaining the program's focus on recruiting teachers of color has become very difficult." It's hard to justify hiring interns of color, she explains, when white, credentialed teachers are also available.

April 1, 1999 saw a big change, when the district transferred all intern programs out of the Human Resources office and into the office that administers the Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) program. Philosophical differences over the purpose of the internship program may have prompted this shift. Human Resources views the program primarily as a recruitment tool, especially for under-represented groups, while the BTSA office thinks of it primarily as a teacher training tool. Unfortunately, says the recruiter, "Diversity has not been one of the BTSA office's primary focuses in the past." Time will tell, but, "I'm not optimistic," she admits.

Taking the CBEST:

A personal account by an Oakland resident

"I arrive at the Oakland Vocational Technical School on a chilly Spring morning. There are hundreds of people waiting outside on the lawn. As I approach the crowd, I am heartened to see that it's very racially mixed-fairly representative of Oakland's local population. I'm surprised to see a neighbor of mine in the crowd. She's in her 40s and tells me that she's considering changing careers to become a teacher. As a parent, she expresses concern that she may not be able to jump through all the hurdles-the tests, the classes, the fees-to become a teacher, but she at least wants to try and start the process to see how far she gets.

"No one seems to know what's going on and why they're not letting anyone in. Finally, an older man emerges from the front door of the school to announce that the power has gone out and that the test cannot be administered without power. He said they are doing everything they can and that everyone must wait until the next announcement. A chorus of groans sweeps through the crowd. I can hear multiple conversations-a man to the left of me complains that passing this test is his only shot at teaching in the Fall. The woman next to him wonders how she's going to get another Saturday off.

“Another man, this one with apparently more authority, calls for the crowd’s attention. He tells us that if they can’t get the power restored by 10 a.m., the test will be canceled and rescheduled at an undetermined future date. Just as he finishes, lights can be seen from inside the school. As we enter the school, everyone has to catch a glimpse of a tiny piece of paper taped to the wall, that lists people’s assigned room numbers.

“After finding my room and desk, I go up to the front to sharpen my pencil. The pencil sharpener doesn’t work. I ask the test moderator for permission to go over to the next classroom. I feel like I’m back in elementary school as she reluctantly agrees, but with a scolding glance back at me. In the next room, I have no better luck, so I have to proceed to yet a third room where I encounter a third broken pencil sharpener. At least I discover that you can make this one semi-functional, as long as you position the pencil just right. Once it’s clear I’m having some success, a line quickly forms behind me.

“Above the pencil sharpener is a huge window that is wide open, letting in gusts of chilly air. People at the desks around it are complaining that they’re freezing. Being the tallest around, I attempt to reach up and get it unstuck. I tug as hard as I can but nothing helps. The classroom test moderator scolds me for trying to close it because she insists it can’t be closed. The people sitting nearest the window ask to be reassigned. The classroom test moderator snaps back in a raised voice that there’s nothing that can be done and that anyone is free to leave, but they also forego taking the test. There are no other places to sit in the room. The tension in the room rises. It feels like we are all back in grade school. Luckily, I get to return to my original, much warmer, room.

“There, the test is explained. We will have exactly four hours to work on it. We look up at the clock, but find that it, too, is broken. The moderator agrees to write on the board when each hour has passed. There are three sections to the test: reading comprehension, math, and writing. The reading and math sections are multiple choice with 50 questions each. The writing section involves two essay questions, each to be answered in two blank pages in the answer booklet.

“As I take the reading section, I wonder who gets to choose which vocabulary words get to rise to the level of being the ones you must understand in order to become a teacher. Then I think about whose logic and whose culture, the “comprehension” questions are based on-as if there is only one absolute logic and correct way of understanding.

“The math section is much the same. It’s not that I can’t answer any of the questions. But for each of them, I feel like I am being tricked. As I proceed through the questions, I feel like I have to increasingly conform my thinking to a narrow type of “acceptable” logic. The test feels more like a set of brainteasers than an entry exam into teaching. As the test progresses, I grow more confident that I have developed some mastery in understanding the logic of the testmakers. But, I feel manipulated that I have to spit back exactly what they want. I feel trapped in their fixed framework-it’s not about how I think, it’s all about how they think. My intelligence is insulted.

“Before I move on to the next section, I take a break to go to the bathroom. The “teacher” only permits one “student” at a time to leave the classroom. I wait my turn. In the bathroom, the walls contain a lot of graffiti, and there’s no running water to wash my hands.

“I head back to the classroom to begin the writing section. Much to my surprise, I find this section of the test to be the most challenging-not because I lack writing abilities. In fact, a lot of my professional work involves writing, and I’ve even authored a couple of books and published several articles. What’s

challenging is that I feel I must conform to a narrowly prescribed and formulaic form of writing.

“I also feel constrained by, and resentful of, the framing of the essay questions. Both have something to do with violence in society (the contract I signed when I paid my \$40 CBEST registration fee prohibits me from divulging any of the specific questions). Both essay questions frame a solution to a dilemma—one social and one personal. I have a different conceptualization of both the problem and the solution, yet I have to defend my position within the framework they have set. I find this more distasteful in the second essay question, since I am required to speak from personal experience, yet the experience they want doesn’t feel like my experience. Both of my essay questions are loaded with assumptions about our culture and the things you’re expected to know about the societal context.

“I think about the many immigrants who are taking the CBEST who come from a different cultural context. I also think about how culturally based is the way that we formulate problems, express ideas, and articulate our own voice. It doesn’t feel like I’m just being tested in writing here.

“Then there’s the logistical hurdles to the writing section. I find it particularly confining to not be able to go back and change or move a sentence, as I am accustomed to doing. After having done most of my writing on a word processor for the past fifteen years, I found myself out of practice composing a structured essay freehand, in my own partially illegible handwriting. For the first essay, I develop an outline and even write a practice draft in the test booklet. But developing the outline and draft, and then having to recopy the entire essay into the answer sheet, took longer than I thought (although it was hard to guess the exact time without a working clock around).

“Sensing that time was getting short, for my second essay I opted to skip the outline and draft and proceed to composing it right on the answer sheet. I wrote at a faster pace than I normally would. When I reached the bottom of the page, there was no more room to add the last two sentences that I wanted to use to bring closure to the essay. My options: leave the essay without an ending, or erase the entire last paragraph and find a way to rewrite it in half as many words, even though I wanted to retain all of the ideas. If I erase, however, I risk running out of time before I can rewrite the last paragraph.

“I choose to begin the tedious task of erasing, re-writing, and condensing my ideas. I still have to squeeze in the last few words at the end and finish writing them just as the ‘teacher’ announces that the time is up and orders everyone to put their pencils down. I finish in such haste that I realize that my passing of this section of the test hinges on the ability of the testgrader to read my handwriting.

“On the way out, a woman in my classroom whom I hadn’t met before strikes up a conversation with me. She is just two months away from completing all her course work in the teacher education program at the University of San Francisco. She heaps praises on the program and said she’s done very well in her classes. The only problem is that she can’t pass the writing section of the CBEST. She received one of the highest scores possible in math, and well above average in reading. But she’s had to retake the writing section four times now. She’s a Central American immigrant who doesn’t have any trouble communicating in English, including writing. But for reasons unknown to her, she never passes that section of the CBEST. I ask her what she’ll do if she doesn’t pass it again. She says she can’t even get an emergency credential without passing the CBEST, and she wouldn’t even want to teach if it meant having to get a waiver. She said she’ll probably try taking the test one more time, even though it’s expensive, then, perhaps, have to figure out another career. Having been born in the U.S. with English as my first language certainly gave me a leg up on this exam.

“I leave the school building feeling very puzzled and put-off. Here I am, taking this curious standardized assessment instrument that seems to have nothing to do with teaching. It seems like such a waste of time and money to have gone through what seems like a very absurd process. It would seem that the money could be better spent on some useful preparation or assessment of prospective teachers, or perhaps, on some needed classroom resources and facility improvements after all, the building where we took it is falling down around us. Whether I pass this test or not, the state is not going to know much about my teaching ability. I wonder why I’m being assessed based on a such a rigid instrument, despite the other experiences in my life that seem to have a lot more relationship to teaching. For 20 years, I have designed adult education curricula and led hundreds of workshops and trainings. I’ve worked as a high school administrator, and I have over 500 hours of secondary school teaching experience. And I graduated near the top of my class in college. But if I don’t pass the CBEST, like thousands of other qualified candidates, I won’t ever be able to become a credentialed teacher in California.”

Retention:

Hard times for new teachers of color

In an out-of-the-way corner of Los Angeles lives an African American woman who has been teaching for over 25 years. The elementary school where she teaches is located in a community well below the poverty line, predominantly Latino, with a small population of Asian immigrants. As one of the few African American teachers, she knows all the African American children by name and most of their parents. She observes that “it’s a good thing to have role models the same ethnicity; it’s very important. I know all the Black students from kindergarten all the way up; there’s just this automatic attraction. There are times when kids not even from my class stop and have conversations with me, whether it is a casual thing or they are having a problem.”

She certainly doesn’t think things are better for new teachers of color today than they were when she started. She says her hand was held when she first taught. She worked with a veteran teacher, and the principal had an open door policy for teachers who needed support. She remembers “even though it was a lot of work and difficult,

I felt I had support. I don’t think it was nearly as stressful as it is now. I have a lot of empathy for new teachers coming into the school district.” When she began, she was required to take only a district test, but no other exams. “A few years ago I remember people having to take areas of the CBEST over and over again. That was the big buzz...

I know the teachers who have started recently are in school and I know they take a lot of tests. I just wonder how in the world they do it all. I don’t know if I could do that. I didn’t have all those pressures.”

With class-size reduction, more districts need to hire teachers immediately. She says that more new teachers are coming in who have no experience and who never thought about teaching before they saw a sudden opportunity. At her elementary school there are 54 teachers and 25 of them are new teachers. She frequently hears new teachers say things like “well, I saw my mentor two months ago.” There is no mentor at their school and the circuit-riding mentor rarely comes in. The new teachers “really didn’t receive the help they needed, and I saw a lot of teachers quit. I never heard of a teacher quitting before, but in the last few years I’ve seen teachers quitting and on the verge of nervous breakdowns, total frustration, not getting the help that they need. I think it’s kind of a dangerous trend.”

Recommendations

Just as things that are learned can be unlearned, problems that are created can be undone. Implementation of the following recommendations would help undo the created teaching crisis by significantly expanding the quality, quantity, and racial equity of California's teaching force.

1. Fully invest in the development of teaching talent and resources at high-need schools by creating "Local Education Action Projects."

- The state legislature should create and fund a major new initiative to infuse high-need, hard-to-staff schools with ample teaching talent and resources. Clusters of eligible schools in close geographic proximity would create their own "Local Education Action Project" (LEAP), a plan to develop local teaching talent. A major goal of the LEAPs would be to recruit and train local residents to become high-quality, long-term teachers in their local schools.
- All prospective and current teachers would be provided the professional and economic support needed to succeed. LEAPs would have local flexibility, within broad parameters such as:
 - recruiting local candidates for the teaching profession
 - providing a variety of financial aid options for aspiring teachers
 - providing training of new teachers in local community classrooms
 - providing intensive support to new teachers during their first years on the job
 - building in active community input and involvement
 - creating partnerships between local schools and nearby credentialing institutions

2. Develop a fully prepared, highly skilled teaching force better suited to California's changing demographics.

- Require all teachers to be CLAD (Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development)-certified and equipped with the necessary skills for success in racially, culturally, linguistically, and developmentally diverse classrooms. Continue to allow CLAD certification to be achieved either by testing or by completing course work.
- Continue to expand the level of professional support provided to new teachers during their first years of teaching through initiatives like the Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) program.
- Develop ongoing, on-site professional development opportunities, including mentoring, peer consultation, and master teachers available to provide assistance.

3. Eliminate barriers that prevent qualified people from becoming teachers, including the California Basic Educational Skills Test (CBEST).

- The California Basic Educational Skills Test (CBEST) is not an effective measure of teaching ability, yields racially biased outcomes, and prevents many qualified people from becoming credentialed teachers. It consumes time and financial resources that could be applied towards more appropriate and effective assessment.
- Teacher assessment should take place after completion of a certified teacher preparation program rather than be used as a hurdle prior to entrance to the profession, as currently with the CBEST.
- Allow many different pathways into teaching with accessibility, affordability, and flexibility for qualified candidates from various situations to enter the field.
- Allow full reciprocity for experienced and certified teachers from states and countries that have

sufficient teaching standards.

4. Significantly increase teacher compensation across the state and provide incentives for teaching in high-need schools.

- Increase teachers' starting salary in order to recruit and retain more teachers.
- Provide salary incentives for teaching in high-need schools, including student loan waivers
- Equalize teacher compensation scales statewide in order to remedy long-standing inequities.

5. Aggressively institute programs to attract more teachers of color.

- The governor and state legislature must take all possible steps to reverse the adverse racial impacts of Proposition 209, which decreases the access of people of color to academic institutions.
- The governor and state legislature must double the number of scholarships and loans—specifically, the Assumption Program of Loans for Education (APLE) and Cal-T scholarships—to people who cannot enter the teaching profession due to a lack of financial resources.
- Expand programs and funding to enable paraprofessionals and substitute teachers to become credentialed teachers.

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Glossary of Terms & Acronyms

Alternative Credentialing Programs are designed to help prospective teachers receive their teaching credential while they take necessary coursework and simultaneously teach full-time in the classroom.

APLE Loans (The Assumption Program of Loans for Education) may assume up to \$11,000 in outstanding educational loan balances in return for the participant's service as a public school teacher in California in designated subject matter areas.

BCLAD (Bilingual, Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development) is a certificate that enables a bilingual teacher to work with limited-English proficient students. The coursework or examination required for the certificate must cover language structure and first and second-language development; methodology of bilingual instruction, instruction of English language development; and culture and cultural diversity.

BTSA (Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Program) was established by statute in 1992 for teachers in their first two years in the classroom in order to improve teacher retention and effectiveness.

Cal-T Grant Award is for students enrolled in and attending a teacher-credentialing program at least half-time. These grants are for one academic year and will be pay up to \$1,584 at a California State University, \$3,609 at the University of California, and up to \$9,036 at an eligible independent California college or university. The California Student Aid Commission will offer approximately 2,500 awards for the 1999/2000 school year.

CBEST (California Basic Educational Skills Test) is a standardized written test of basic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics that all credentials candidates (including substitute teachers) must take and pass.

CLAD (Crosscultural, Language, and Academic Development) is a certificate that enables a teacher to work with limited-English proficient students. The coursework or examination required for the certificate must cover language structure and first and second-language development; methodology of bilingual instruction, instruction of English language development; and culture and cultural diversity.

CTC (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing) is a state agency that establishes the requirements for state credentials for public school teaching and service, and standards for programs that prepare public school personnel.

Credential Waivers allows an individual to teach who hasn't yet met any of the necessary requirements for a teaching or service credential and has no emergency permit. The school districts, county offices of education, and non-public schools can grant an individual a credential waiver.

District Internship Program is a district-run credentialing program which usually takes at least two years to complete. Interns in the program must meet certain requirements before entering the program, such as subject matter knowledge. Credential classes are often based in local schools in the evenings.

Emergency Permits or Emergency Credentials are issued for a period of one year, and allow an

individual to teach if they have a baccalaureate degree, a passing score on the CBEST, and have completed a minimum number of subject matter courses. Teachers with emergency credentials are required to take a minimum of six units per year towards a regular teaching credential.

Induction follows completion of teacher credentialing program, in which new teachers and administrators participate in formative assessment, support, and mentoring.

Interns are full-time teachers who are paid a teacher's salary and who are working towards their credential. Credential completion usually takes a period of two years.

LEAP (Local Education Action Project) is a plan to develop local talent by recruiting and training local residents to become high-quality, long-term teachers in their local schools.

MSAT (Multiple Subjects Assessment for Teachers) is a standardized test that must be taken by individuals who are pursuing a Multiple Subject Teaching Credential. Those individuals who have completed an approved program of subject matter preparation are exempted from the exam. The MSAT consists of both multiple choice and constructed response items. It covers subject areas necessary for elementary teaching.

Paraprofessionals or **Paraeducators** make up a number of non-teacher educational roles: Educational Aides, Special Education Aides, Teacher Assistants, Teacher Aides, and Special Education Assistants, etc.

Pre-Internship Program is a new program designed for emergency permit holders to complete the necessary prerequisites for enrolment in a credentialing program. The goal is to replace the emergency permit system.

Praxis (Professional Assessments for Beginning Teachers) is a standardized test in a particular subject area that must be taken by individuals who are pursuing a Single Subject Teaching Credential. Those individuals who have completed an approved program of subject matter preparation are exempted from the exam. Each exam is designed to measure an individual's breadth of content knowledge in the subject area.

RICA (Reading Instruction Competence Assessment) is a standardized exam mandated in 1996 to test Multiple Subject Teaching Credential candidates' competence in teaching reading. The RICA must be passed in order to be awarded the Multiple Subject Teaching Credential.

SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test), a standardized test that must be taken to be admitted by most undergraduate universities and colleges.

SSAT (Single Subject Assessments for Teaching) is a standardized exam that must be taken by individuals who are pursuing a Single Subject Teaching Credential. Those individuals who have completed an approved program of subject matter preparation are exempted from the exam. The SSAT consists of only multiple-choice items. Each exam is designed to measure an individual's breadth of content knowledge in the subject area.

Student Teachers are individuals in a traditional credentialing program who are teaching in a classroom (unpaid) while being supervised by a "master" or mentor teacher.

Traditional Credentialing Programs are one-year programs that allow students to learn education theory in the first semester and incorporate pedagogy into practice during student teaching in the second semester.

This section has been compiled by ARC with the help of the following publications; Bullard, Chloe Qualified Teachers for All California Students, and CTC, California's Future: Highly Qualified Teachers for All Students.

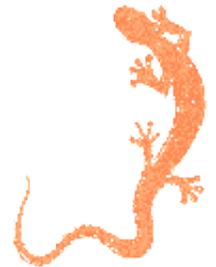
[RETURN TO TOP](#)

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